Transforming Africa through Education
Readings on the Continental Education Strategy for Africa (16-25)
(PRE-PRINT VERSION)

Editors
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Transforming Africa through Education

Readings on the

Continental Education Strategy for Africa

(16-25)

Editors

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Commissioner for Human Resources, Science and Technology
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FOREWORD

All over the world, education has been recognised as the driver of accelerated and all-round development. For this reason, education is put at the centre of the development agenda of the African Union. A glance at the pages of the Agenda 2063: The Africa We Want, which is the African Union’s Vision of what the continent should be by 2063, clearly shows that education is of paramount importance. The Agenda foresee a prosperous continent propelled by inclusive growth and sustainable development. To match words with action, the African Union developed a tactical document termed the Continental Education Strategy for Africa (CESA 16-25) which espouses the strategic objectives and how these could be employed to achieve the desired prosperity, inclusive growth and sustainable development. Today, investment in education as well as cooperation, research, policy development and implementation by the African Union and its education partners revolve around the CESA 16-25.

In this vein, this book titled Transforming Africa through Education: Readings on the Continental Education Strategy for Africa (16-25) is a masterpiece written by scholars who are education insiders in Africa and who understand the workings CESA 16-25 and the current state of education in the continent. The book is, therefore, a one-stop-shop for all the fifteen Clusters (major thematic areas) created to implement the educational aspirations of the continent. More than anything else, the book has documented the current efforts of the different players – the African Union Commission and its education partners – for posterity. It will therefore serve many interests among which are those of the governments, development partners, researchers and public analysts interested in seeing the rapid transformation of the continent through education. The African Union Commission is immensely grateful to her Commissioner of Human Resources, Science and Technology and her team for coming up with such a remarkable initiative and steering it successful to reality. The Commission is equally thankful to the Africa Federation of Teaching Regulatory Authority (AFTRA), a great education partner, for working collaboratively with the Education Division of the Commission to get this book produced. To all the Member States of the African Union and education partners worldwide, I strongly recommend this book for an enhanced understanding of education efforts of the African Union, now and in the years to come.

H.E. Moussa Faki Mahamat
Chairperson of the African Union Commission
BLURB

The African Union is proud to launch education unto the frontiers of the twenty first century. This calls for strategic actions that are ground-breaking and innovative. While these actions have been articulated in the famous document titled *Continental Education Strategy for Africa* (CESA 2016-2025), it is left with the leading academics and policy makers in Africa to come up with cutting edge theories, principles, and best practices to implement the strategic actions. This book discusses such leaders of thought and their take on over fifteen Clusters of CESA, which combined, guarantees a place for Africa in the global league of educationally advanced regions.

The book covers Information and communication technology; science, technology and mathematics education; higher education; teaching strategy, development and professionalization; women, girls and gender; educational planning and financing; curriculum development; and peace education. Others are reading culture; life skills; school feeding; technical and vocational education; early child care and education; primary education; and lots more. Therefore, this book on CESA is the single most comprehensive treatise on African education at its best.

H.E Amb. Stephan Auer
Ambassador of Germany to Ethiopia and the African Union
PREFACE

The Continental Education Strategy for Africa (CESA 2016-2025) is a very important strategy document developed by the African Union Commission, not only to address its continental education needs but also to respond to the demands of the United Nation’s Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 4 which called for “inclusive and equitable quality education” and the promotion of lifelong learning. CESA is a mid-term strategy designed to guide efforts in education up to the year 2016. It is expected that the outcome of the discourses, actions and researches emerging from CESA will inform the next line of action leading to the target years of 2030 for the SDGs and 2063 for the African Union Agenda, respectively. In essence, this book makes great contributions to the discourses and researches required to understand CESA, its prospects and challenges and the best options going forward.

The Agenda 2063: The Africa We Want dreams of a continent that has a number of critical characteristics. Among these are renaissance, prosperity, political integration, inclusion, sustainable growth, pan-Africanism, peace and security. Others are democratic ideals, justice, cultural identity, shared values and ethics, self-reliance, and global competitiveness, and other qualities. The Agenda needed an equally ambitious education strategy which CESA 2016-2025 has provided. Thus, CESA encompasses the overarching issues of education in Africa. For a meaningful coverage and management of the issues, they were divided into thematic areas termed Clusters. The African Union Commission created fourteen Clusters and Member States and education partners were distributed across the Clusters based on their interest, statutory mandates and other criteria. The Clusters are Childhood Care and Education; Teacher Development; Information and Communication Technology in Education; Science, Technology and Mathematics Education; Women, Girls and Gender; Higher Education; and Education Planning. Others are Education Financing; Curriculum Development; School Feeding; Peace Education; Culture of Reading; Technical and Vocational Education and Training; and Life Skills.

This Book of Reading on CESA 2016-2025, further, is an exposition of what the African Union Commission, together with its education partners across the continent, are doing currently to realise the educational aspirations of the African Union. It is a kind of eye- witness account, written by those involved not only in the theory but also principles and practices of CESA. Consequently, it remains the most authoritative and comprehensive account of the conceptual issues, themes and perspectives that are relevant for the proper understanding of CESA 2016-2025. The authors are drawn from the various Clusters, many of them being leaders and active players in the Clusters while others are scholars in the academia and independent thinkers in the continent. Altogether, there are fifty-one
chapters across the Clusters dealing with the perspectives of the authors. The first three Chapters of the book written by the Editors espouse the background of SDG4, CESA 2016-2025 and Education in Africa, which form the foundation and context of the book. In conclusion, the book is invaluable for all those working in the area of education in Africa, both the state actors, corporate organizations and individual developmental agents.

H.E Professor Sarah Anyang Agbor  
Commissioner for Human Resources, Science and Technology  
African Union Commission

Professor Steve Nwokeocha  
Executive Director  
Africa Federation of Teaching Regulatory Authorities

Dr Beatrice Khemati-Njenga  
Head, Education Division  
African Union Commission
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The papers in this book are contributed mostly by the leaders and members of the Continental Education Strategy for Africa (CESA 2016-2025) Clusters. This ensured the book is not only comprehensive but also authoritative regarding the core issues and roadmap for advancing education in Africa. Thanks to the Clusters and to all others who contributed papers.

A special gratitude also goes to the African Union Commission (AUC) and Africa Federation of Teaching Regulatory Authorities (AFTRA) whose principal officers managed this book Project. It was initiated by Her Excellency, Professor Sarah Anyang Agbor, Commissioner for Human Resources, Science and Technology, AUC and supported by Dr Beatrice Khamati-Njenga, Head of Education, AUC and Professor Steve Nwokeocha, Executive Director, AFTRA. Above all, H.E. Moussa Faki Mahamat, Chairperson of the AUC further provided the relevant encouragement and inspiration that made the project a reality.

The authorities and sources cited in the various papers have been acknowledged by the authors.
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PART 1: SDG4, CESA 16-25 & AGENDA 2063: A SYNTHESIS
THE BASELINES OF THE UN AND AU DEVELOPMENT AGENDA

Professor Sarah Anyang Agbor
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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this chapter is to survey baselines of the UN and AU Development Agenda. Recognizing the importance of going beyond Rhetoric and consolidating a more concerted effort in implementing strategies and policies for the sustainable development to create a new Africa, African head of states and government launched the African Union (AU) Agenda 2063- The Africa we Want. Therefore, we present an overview of Agenda 2063 and UN SDGs, including a summary of the vision and action plans. The main objective of this article is to provide information on the baselines of the UN SDGs and AU Agenda 2063 development agendas. Second, we discuss opportunities and challenges for the effective implementation of Agenda 2063 and UN SDGs for Africa and the World sustaining development and transformation as well. Moreover, we will examine the AU CESA 2016-2025, and UN SDG 4 so that it can be used as a provisional benchmark for the indicators. This will help as a starting point for a comprehensive assessment as well as a guidance for policymakers to determine priorities for early action and monitor progress. The chapter reinforces the strategic linkages between Agenda 2063 and UN Development Agenda existing educational system. It discusses the education-development nexus and argues that to achieve radical transformation as envisaged in the Agenda 2063 and UN SDGs, education is the golden key. The analysis, based on the above objective has covered a range of CESA 2016-2025 strategic objectives and SDG 4 indicators.

Introduction

Agenda 2063 exists before global Agenda 2030 and Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) of UN. “The Agenda2063 is a call for action and a strategic framework and roadmap to achieve continental development goals. It represents a collective effort and an opportunity for Africa to regain its power to determine its own destiny, and is underpinned by the AU Vision to build an integrated, prosperous and peaceful Africa, an Africa driven and managed by its own citizen and representing a dynamic force in the international arena”(AFRICAN UNION AGENDA 2063A Shared Strategic Framework for Inclusive Growth and Sustainable Development BACKROUND NOTE AUGUST 2013:4)

This agenda was developed by the African Union Commission, working closely with the New Partnership for Africa’s Development (NEPAD) Coordinating Agency (NPCA) and supported by the African Development Bank (AfDB), the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA). (see pg 3 of AFRICAN UNION AGENDA 2063 A
Shared Strategic Framework for Inclusive Growth and Sustainable Development

BACKGROUND NOTE AUGUST 2013: “as requested by the 21st Ordinary session of the Assembly of Heads of State and Government of the African Union, at Addis Ababa, 26 May 2013”. The objective of the Agenda is to develop Africa’s growth trajectory for the next 50 years benefitting from lessons learnt over the last 50 years.

In the 50th Anniversary Solemn Declaration of the Heads of State and Government of the African Union assembled to celebrate the Golden Jubilee of the OAU/AU, Africa’s political leadership while acknowledging past successes and challenges, rededicated itself to the continent’s development and pledged their commitment to make progress in eight key areas:

1) African Identity and Renaissance,
2) The struggle against colonialism and the right to self-determination of people still under colonial rule,
3) Integration Agenda,
4) Agenda for Social and Economic Development,
5) Agenda for Peace and Security,
6) Democratic Governance,
7) Determining Africa’s Destiny, and
8) Africa’s place in the world

They further pledged to integrate these ideals and goals in the national development plans and the development of the Continental Agenda 2063, through a people-driven process for the realization of the vision of the AU for an integrated, people-centred, prosperous Africa, at peace with itself (AFRICAN UNION AGENDA 2063 A Shared Strategic Framework for Inclusive Growth and Sustainable Development BACKGROUND NOTE AUGUST 2013: )

Policy and Programme Environment of the African Union

Africa Union has envisioned an integrated, peaceful, prosperous continent, driven by its own citizens to take up its rightful place in the global arena as indicated on its next five decades roadmap called Agenda 2063. It has a concrete and implementable framework with a clear vision, 7 aspirations, 20 goals, 39 priority areas. It has seven aspirations which significantly correlate with UN SDGs. These include:

1. Prosperous Africa based on Inclusive Growth and Sustainable Development
2. Integrated Continent, Politically United based on the ideals of Pan-Africanism
4. Peaceful and Secure Africa
5. Africa with strong Cultural Identity, Values and Ethics
6. Africa of people-driven development relying on the potential of its women and youth.
7. Africa as a Strong, Resilient and Influential Global Player and Partner
## Goals & Priority Areas of Agenda 2063

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<th>Aspiration</th>
<th>Goals</th>
<th>Priority Areas</th>
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| 1) A Prosperous Africa, based on Inclusive Growth and Sustainable Development | (1) A High Standard of Living, Quality of Life and Well Being for All Citizens | • Incomes, Jobs and decent work  
• Poverty, Inequality and Hunger  
• Social security and protection Including Persons with Disabilities  
• Modern and Livable Habitats and Basic Quality Services |
|            | (2) Well Educated Citizens and Skills revolution underpinned by Science, Technology and Innovation | • Education and STI skills driven revolution |
|            | (3) Healthy and well-nourished citizens                              | • Health and Nutrition |
|            | (4) Transformed Economies                                             | • Sustainable and inclusive economic growth  
• STI driven Manufacturing / Industrialization and Value Addition  
• Economic diversification and resilience  
• Hospitality/Tourism |
|            | (5) Modern Agriculture for increased productivity and production     | • Agricultural Productivity and Production |
|            | (6) Blue/ ocean economy for accelerated economic growth               | • Marine resources and Energy  
• Ports Operations and Marine Transport |
| (7) Environmentally sustainable and climate resilient economies and communities | • Sustainable natural resource management and Biodiversity conservation  
• Sustainable consumption and production patterns  
• Water security  
• Climate resilience and natural disasters preparedness and prevention  
• Renewable energy |
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<td>(8) United Africa (Federal or Confederate)</td>
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<td>(9) Continental Financial and Monetary Institutions are established and functional</td>
<td>• Financial and Monetary Institutions</td>
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<td>(10) World Class Infrastructure crisscrosses Africa</td>
<td>• Communications and Infrastructure Connectivity</td>
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| (11) Democratic values, practices, universal principles of human rights, justice and the rule of law entrenched | • Democracy and Good Governance  
• Human Rights, Justice and The Rule of Law |
| (12) Capable institutions and transformative leadership in place | • Institutions and Leadership  
• Participatory Development and Local Governance |
| (13) Peace Security and Stability is preserved | • Maintenance and Preservation of Peace and Security |
| (14) A Stable and Peaceful Africa | • Institutional structure for AU Instruments on Peace and Security |
| 5) Africa with a Strong Cultural Identity | 16) African Cultural Renaissance is pre-eminent | • Values and Ideals of Pan Africanism  
• Cultural Values and African Renaissance  
• Cultural Heritage, Creative Arts and Businesses |
|-----------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------|
| 6) An Africa Whose Development is people driven, relying on the potential offered by African People, especially its Women and Youth, and caring for Children | 17) Full Gender Equality in All Spheres of Life | • Women and Girls Empowerment  
• Violence & Discrimination against Women and Girls |
| 7) An Africa as A Strong, United, Resilient and Influential Global Player and Partner | 18) Engaged and Empowered Youth and Children | • Youth Empowerment and Children |
| | 19) Africa as a major partner in global affairs and peaceful coexistence | • Africa’s place in global affairs.  
• Partnership |
| | 20) Africa takes full responsibility for financing her development | • African Capital market  
• Fiscal system and Public Sector Revenues  
• Development Assistance |

**Source:** [https://au.int/en/agenda2063/goals](https://au.int/en/agenda2063/goals)

From the above, we see that Agenda 2063 is a concrete and implementable framework with a clear vision, 7 aspirations, 20 goals, 39 priority areas, with targets and indicators. Since its birth in 2013 different strategies and policies and blue print has been set in motion. The agenda is a holistic framework with inclusivity at the forefront because the public and private sectors and civil society were involved in its formulation. Moreover it is implemented at national, RECs and continental levels. Therefore Agenda 2063 prompts action at all levels of government, private sector and civil society. In this light, Agenda 2063 is incorporated into the Member States “national strategic and action plans and programmes and budgets as national instruments of implementation”. In addition “35 national and RECs plans were reviewed, synthesized and formed building blocks of Agenda 2063. In this manner elements of Agenda 2063 are already aligned with the contents of most national plans and programmes”( ).
Mandates of Human Resources, Science Technology (HRST) Department

The department is in charge of driving strategic policy and programmes that contribute to the realization of the African Union Vision through its three key divisions and its specialized regional offices, by supporting the development, harmonization, coordination and implementation of appropriate policies in African Member States and Regional Economic Communities.

HRST is implementing AU Agenda 2063 Aspirations 1, 2, 6 & 7:

- A prosperous Africa based on inclusive growth and sustainable development.
- An integrated continent; politically united and based on the ideals of Pan-Africanism and the vision of Africa’s Renaissance.
- An Africa, whose development is people-driven, relying on the potential of African people, especially its women and youth, and caring for children.

It also contributes to 3 Goals of Agenda 2063 namely:

- Goal 2 - Well Educated Citizens and Skills revolution underpinned by Science, Technology and Innovation.
- Goal 4: Transformed Economies
- Goal 18: Engaged and Empowered Youth and Children

For this purpose, there is Continental Frameworks such as:

- Continental Education Strategy for Africa (CESA 16-25)
- Continental Strategy for Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET)
- Science, Technology and Innovation Strategy for Africa (STISA-2024)
- Africa Youth Charter
- AU Five Year Plan of Action on Youth Empowerment (2019-2024).

CESA 2016-2025

CESA 16-25 is aimed at re-orienting Africa’s Education and Training systems to meet the knowledge, competences, skills, innovation, and creativity required to nurture African core values and promote sustainable development at national, regional and continental levels. It has 12 Strategic Objectives:

1. Ensure a conducive learning environment at all levels including informal and non-formal settings
2. Harness the capacity of ICT to improve access, quality and management of education systems
3. Ensure completion rates at all levels and groups through harmonization processes
5. Accelerate gender parity and equity
6. Launch effective literacy programmes across the continent to eradicate the scourge of illiteracy
7. Strengthen science and math curricula in youth training and disseminate scientific knowledge
8. Expand TVET opportunities at both secondary and tertiary levels
9. Revitalize tertiary education, research and innovation to address continental challenges and promote global competitiveness
10. Promote peace education and conflict resolution
11. Improve management of education system
12. Set up a coalition of stakeholders to facilitate the implementation of CESA 16-25.

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Linking Agenda 2063, CESA 16-25 and the SDG 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CESA 16-25 Strategic Objectives</th>
<th>Sustainable Development Goals and Targets</th>
<th>Agenda 2063 Aspirations and Goals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4. Ensure acquisition of requisite knowledge and skills, as well as improved completion rates at all levels and groups through harmonization processes across all levels for national and regional integration</td>
<td>Goal 4. Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all</td>
<td>Aspiration 1. A prosperous Africa, based on inclusive growth and sustainable development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Target 4.1. Ensure that all girls and boys complete free, equitable and quality primary and secondary education</td>
<td>Goal 2. Well educated citizens and skills revolution underpinned by science, technology and innovation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Target 4.2. Ensure that all girls and boys have access to quality early childhood development care and pre-primary education</td>
<td>Aspiration 6. An Africa whose development is people driven, relying on the potential offered by African people, especially its women and youth, and caring for children</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Target 4.5 Eliminate gender disparities in education and ensure equal access to all levels of education and vocational training for the vulnerable, including persons with disabilities,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8
| 16. Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable, and inclusive institutions at all levels | 17. Strengthen the means of implementation and revitalise the global partnership for sustainable development | Aspiration 7. An Africa as a strong, united, and influential global player and partner |

| Goal 20. Africa takes full responsibility for financing her development goals | 17. Strengthen the means of implementation and revitalise the global partnership for sustainable development | Aspiration 7. An Africa as a strong, united, and influential global player and partner |
mobilize and share knowledge, expertise, technology, and financial resources, to support the achievement of the sustainable development goals in all countries, developing countries

Baseline for the SDG 4 and CESA 2016-2025

The United Nations Millennium Development Goals are eight goals that all 191 UN member states have agreed to try to achieve by the year 2015. The United Nations Millennium Declaration, signed in September 2000 commits world leaders to combat poverty, hunger, disease, illiteracy, environmental degradation, and discrimination against women. The MDGs are derived from this Declaration, and all have specific targets and indicators with eight Millennium Development Goals. The MDGs are inter-dependent; all the MDGs influence health, and health influences all the MDGs.

The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), also known as the Global Goals, were adopted by all United Nations Member States in 2015 as a universal call to action to improve on the MDGs, to end poverty, protect the planet and ensure that all people enjoy peace and prosperity by 2030. The 195 nations agreed to change the world for the better by bringing together their respective governments, businesses, media, institutions of higher education, and local NGOs to improve the lives of the people in their countries by the year 2030 and seventeen (17) SDGs were integrated with additional nine (9) as in the case of the MDGs, in recognition that, action in one area will affect outcomes in others, and that development must balance social, economic and environmental sustainability. Through the pledge to Leave No One Behind, countries committed to fast-track progress for those furthest behind first. In this case, the SDGs were designed to bring the world to several life-changing 'zeros', including zero poverty, hunger, AIDS and discrimination against women and girls, amongst others. As a result, everyone is needed to reach these ambitious targets. The creativity, knowhow, technology, and financial resources from all of society is necessary to achieve the SDGs in every context.

The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) provide an integrated, evidence-based framework of targets and indicators to support national planning and reporting. For countries to begin implementation of the SDGs, it is critical to build the evidence base for action. The integrated nature of the SDG targets means that progress towards one target is also linked through complex feedbacks to other targets, placing demands on science and research to support national implementation. Implementation of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) commenced at the beginning of 2016, and
there is emerging international practice and a growing catalogue of assessments, reviews, and other publications (Allen, C., Metternicht, G. and Wiedmann, T. (2019)).

The SDGs are integrated, broad and complex and are a non-binding agreement which countries are expected to set their own priorities and target values. SDGs implementation primarily takes place at the national level, following the generic stages of the policy-planning cycle, from prioritisation of targets and indicators through to policy evaluation, decision making and implementation.

Currently, most countries have commenced implementation of the SDGs and the efforts taken so far are documented in Voluntary National Reviews submitted each year to the High-Level Political Forum on Sustainable Development. However, key gaps remain in terms of applying evidence- and science-based approaches including the application of systems analysis to assess interlinkages between targets. The integrated nature of the SDG targets means that progress towards one target is also linked through complex feedbacks to other targets. A science-informed analysis of the interactions across the SDGs supports more coherent and effective prioritisation and decision making (Costanza et al., 2016; Schmalzbauer and Visbeck, 2016). However, a comprehensive assessment of these interactions remains lacking (International Council for Science, 2017).

A range of approaches and tools have been recommended by experts, including indicator-based assessments, benchmarking, target mapping, and systems analysis techniques (International Council for Science, 2017; Sustainable Development Solutions Network, 2015; United Nations Development Group, 2017). Each of these approaches can inform different stages of the policy cycle and provide useful information and evidence to support decision making. An emerging challenge becomes how to apply and combine the different approaches and tools to provide a coherent analysis that supports evidence-based decision making on the SDGs.

At the initial step, many countries are turning their attention to prioritisation of the SDGs and adaptation of target values and indicators to national circumstances. This is a critical implementation stage, and there is a considerable risk that countries will adopt arbitrary or politically salient approaches to prioritisation and/or pursue the same ‘siloed’ approaches that have met with limited success in the past. This is also known to undermine the transformative potential of the SDGs. A key challenge remains the comprehensiveness and complexity of the goals and targets. There is a need for effective approaches that assist countries in reducing complexity by refining and prioritizing a more manageable set of national targets. Without a robust approach, there is a risk that countries will also select those targets and values that are easy to achieve and fail to deliver on the full potential of the SDGs which calls for the use of systems thinking and analysis to support national target prioritisation (Nilsson et al., 2016a; Weitz et al., 2017).
Four years since the adoption of the Sustainable Development Goals, there have been noted progress in some areas, such as on extreme poverty reduction, widespread immunization, decrease in child mortality rates and increase in people’s access to electricity, but warns that global response has not been ambitious enough, leaving the most vulnerable people and countries to suffer the most – (The Sustainable Development Goals Report 2019). This showed clearly that a much deeper, faster and more ambitious response is needed to unleash the social and economic transformation needed to achieve our 2030 goals.

Amongst other things, the key finding includes Increasing inequality among and within countries which requires urgent attention. Three quarters of stunted children live in Southern Asia and sub-Saharan Africa; extreme poverty is three times higher in rural areas than urban areas; young people are more likely to be unemployed than adults; only a quarter of people with severe disabilities collect a disability pension; and women and girls still face barriers to achieving equality. In addition is the fact that, the year 2018 was the fourth warmest year on record. Levels of carbon dioxide concentrations continued to increase in 2018. Ocean acidity is 26% higher than in pre-industrial times and is projected to increase by 100% to 150% by 2100 at the current rate of CO2 emissions. Also, the number of people living in extreme poverty declined from 36% in 1990 to 8.6% in 2018, but the pace of poverty reduction is starting to decelerate as the world struggles to respond to entrenched deprivation, violent conflicts and vulnerabilities to natural disasters. Lastly, the global hunger has been on the rise after a prolonged decline. Despite the threats, the report demonstrates that valuable opportunities exist to accelerate progress by leveraging the interlinkages across Goals. Reducing greenhouse gas emissions, for instance, goes together with creating jobs, building more livable cities, and improving health and prosperity for all.

The African Union Agenda 2063 was adopted by the African Union Summit in January 2015. Its First Ten Year Implementation Plan (FTYIP) was adopted in June 2015, which predates the global Agenda 2030 and Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) of September 2015, Addis Ababa Action Agenda (AAAA) adopted by the Third Conference on Financing for Development; and end of 2015 Paris COP21. The need to envision a long-term 50 year development trajectory for Africa is important as Africa needs to revise and adapt its development agenda due to ongoing structural transformations; increased peace and reduction in the number of conflicts; renewed economic growth and social progress; the need for people centered development, gender equality and youth empowerment; changing global contexts such as increased globalization and the ICT revolution; the increased unity of Africa which makes it a global power to be reckoned with and capable of rallying support around its own common agenda; and emerging development and investment opportunities in areas such as agri-business, infrastructure development, health and education as well as the value addition in African commodities.
Agenda 2063 encapsulates not only Africa’s Aspirations for the Future but also identifies key Flagship Programmes which can boost Africa’s economic growth and development and lead to the rapid transformation of the continent. The Agenda also identifies key activities to be undertaken in its 10-year Implementation Plans which will ensure that Agenda 2063 delivers both quantitative and qualitative Transformational Outcomes for Africa’s people. The First Ten Year Implementation Plan (FTYIP) of Agenda 2063 (2013 – 2023) is the first in a series of five ten-year plans over the fifty-year horizon of Agenda 2063’s 50-time frame.

The purpose for developing the ten-year plans are to identify priority areas, set specific targets, define strategies and policy measures required to implement the FTYIP of Agenda 2063; Bring to fruition the Fast Track programmes and initiatives outlined in the Malabo Decisions of the African Union (AU) to provide the big push and breakthroughs for Africa’s economic and social transformation; Provide information to all key stakeholders at the national, regional and continental levels on the expected results / outcomes for the first ten years of the plan and assign responsibilities to all stakeholders in its implementation, monitoring and evaluation; and outline the strategies required to ensure availability of resources and capacities together with citizen’s engagement in the implementation of the First Ten Year Plan.

To ensure that Agenda 2063 is not only implemented but that it has measurable results, the FTYIP enumerates 20 Agenda 2063 Goals linked to the 7 Aspiration and each of these goals identifies the priority areas to be implemented at a national level to ensure that collectively Africa will attain its developmental objectives. The goals and priority areas of the FTYIP were influenced by 4 key factors which include, the Flagship Projects /Programmes of Agenda 2063; Near Term National and Regional Economic Communities (RECs) Development Priorities; Continental Frameworks and Agenda 2063 Results Framework. The flagship projects of Agenda 2063 refer to key programmes and initiatives which have been identified as key to accelerating Africa’s economic growth and development as well as promoting our common identity by celebrating our history and our vibrant culture. The Flagship projects encompass amongst others infrastructure, education, science, technology, arts and culture as well as initiatives to secure peace on the continent.

It is to note that, the global Agenda 2030 and its SDGs were heavily influenced by African Union’s Common African Position on Post 2015 Development Agenda (CAP) with Africa being the only region to submit a well-articulated position in writing. United Nation (UN) Open Working Group (OWG) and formal inter-governmental negotiations relied heavily on CAP. CAP was adopted by the AU Summit in Addis Ababa in January of 2015 and promulgated in Ndjamena in February 2015.

The AU Agenda 2063 is a concrete and implementable framework with a clear vision, 7 aspirations, 20 goals, 39 priority areas. There are also targets and indicators which enables effective results-based management with accountability instrument and
architecture in place, which are to be implemented at national, RECs and continental levels, with the involvement of the public and private sectors and civil society, both at the level of formulation and implementation, with each having a niche. The implementation will be at central, provincial, district at the public sector and community government levels. Hence domestication missions collaborate with authorities to disseminate contents of Agenda 2063 and to prompt action at all levels of government, private sector, and civil society. The mission also works with planning offices to ensure incorporation of contents of Agenda 2063 into the national strategic and action plans and programmes and budgets as national instruments of implementation.

This is a manageable task, as stakeholders participated in the formulation of Agenda 2063 which makes it becomes their product. In addition, 35 national and RECs plans were reviewed, synthesized, and formed building blocks of Agenda 2063. In this manner, elements of AU Agenda 2063 are already aligned with the contents of most national plans and programmes. Domestication strategy was reviewed in December 2016 at the stakeholder workshop in Maseru, Lesotho, which took stock, shared experiences, and then refined and consolidated the approach to domestication exercise.

In this regard, the AU member countries are encourage to pursue the AU Agenda 2063 whose contents will have been incorporated into national plans and budgets through the domestication exercise, though, it can be done in alignment with the other development endeavors, the national plan and the global Agenda 2030 and its SDGs. This is due to the fact that, the Common African Position on Post 2015 Development Agenda (CAP) of January 2014 influenced the work of the Open Working Group and later formal intergovernmental negotiating group which came up with the global Agenda 2030 and SDGs, and the reason the seventeen SDGs fit neatly into the twenty goals of Agenda 2063. They are all encapsulated in the 20 goals of Agenda 2063. SDGs scope is confined to social, economic and environmental dimensions. Agenda 2063 is broader in scope, covering social, economic and sustainability considerations in the broad context, political cultural and other African priorities. Hence by implementing Agenda 2063, Member States will ipso facto be meeting global obligations under the SDGs.

The harmony between the AU Agenda 2063 goals and global SDGs prompted Specialized Technical Committee (STC) of Ministers of Finance, Monetary Affairs, of Economy and Development Planning and those in charge of Integration, to ensure there is an integrated and coherent approach to implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the AU Agenda 2063 and SDGs; joint domestication; one accountability instrument, catering for both at the same time; and Single periodic performance report which has also called for the senior African statisticians to team up with the African Union Commission, RECs and Partner Institutions to develop 78 indicators that address both Agenda 2063 and SDGs. The 78 indicators were validated by the STC
of Ministers of Finance, Monetary Affairs, Economy and Development Planning and those in charge of Integration in March 2017 in Dakar, Senegal, which enables setting of baselines and accurate tracking of performance, with the accountability architecture for AU Agenda 2063 in place.

**Indicators and Baseline for CESA/SDG4:**

**Strategic Objective (SO)1: Revitalize the teaching profession to ensure quality and relevance at all levels of education**

According to CESA Indicators manual the main indicator for the above strategic objective is Percentage of Teachers Qualified to Teach According to National Standards. It is interpretation is a higher percentage of trained teachers by sex leads to higher quality education as it is assumed trained teachers can transmit knowledge more effectively. The baseline for this indicator is obtained from 2019 Global Education Monitoring Report

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Baseline</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>By 2030, substantially increase the supply of qualified teachers, Trained teachers, primary</td>
<td>82%, 2018</td>
<td>2019 Global Education Monitoring report</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>By 2030, substantially increase the supply of qualified teachers, Trained teachers, secondary</td>
<td>73%, 2018</td>
<td>2019 Global Education Monitoring report</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SO2: Build, rehabilitate, preserve education infrastructure and develop policies that ensure a permanent, healthy and conducive learning environment in all sub-sectors and for all, so as to expand access to quality education**

**Number of African Countries operationalizing the School feeding Programmes**

There is growing evidence on the multiple benefits of school feeding programmes: accelerating progress towards Zero Hunger (SDG2) and Quality education (SDG2). It also contributes to other SDGs and Agenda 2030, including SDGs 1 (No poverty), 5 (Gender equality), SDG 8 (Decent work and economic growth), 10 (Reduced inequality) and 17 (Partnerships for the goals), all of which are considered as key interventions in reducing risk of promoting peace, and reducing conflicts among the people. The African Heads of State and Government during the 26th African Union Summit in January 2016 (Assembly/AU/Dec.589(XXVI) has passed a decision in support of School Feeding. Furthermore, AU in its CAADP/Malabo Declaration on “Accelerated Agricultural Growth and Transformation for Shared Prosperity and
Improved Livelihoods”, highlighted the promotion of innovative school feeding programmes that use food items sourced from local farming communities.

Proportion of schools with access to basic drinking water- This indicator helps measure how conducive the learning environment is by using the availability of WASH facilities separated by gender and by learner and teachers as a proxy.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Baseline</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of African Countries operationalizing the School feeding Programmes</td>
<td>21 in 2016</td>
<td>AU Study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary schools with water</td>
<td>53%, 2017</td>
<td>2019 Global Education Monitoring report</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This indicator gives an indication of improvements in the safety and quality of education. It requires access to sufficient safe water, basic sanitation, and improved hygiene services in education facilities.

**SO3: Harness the capacity of ICT to improve access, quality and management of education and training systems**

Proportion of schools with access to Internet for pedagogical purposes (%). This helps to understand information on literacy skill, and it has positive effects on the involvement, motivation and learning perception.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Baseline</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Proportion of primary schools with access to Internet for pedagogical purposes (%)</td>
<td>5%, 2018</td>
<td>SDG 4 Data Book: Global Education Indicators 2019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proportion of lower secondary schools with access to Internet for pedagogical purposes (%)</td>
<td>38%, 2018</td>
<td>2019 Global Education Monitoring report</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
SO4: Ensure acquisition of requisite knowledge and skills as well as improved completion rates at all levels and groups through harmonization processes across all levels for national and regional integration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Baseline</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Proportion of upper secondary schools with access to Internet for pedagogical purposes (%)</td>
<td>45%, 2018</td>
<td>2019 Global Education Monitoring report</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

By 2030, ensure that all girls and boys complete free, equitable and quality primary education leading to relevant and effective learning outcomes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Baseline</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The adjusted net enrollment ratio 79% in 2012</td>
<td>CESA, 2016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On average, only 70% of children entering primary education in Sub-Saharan Africa complete</td>
<td>CESA, 2016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower secondary Gross Enrollment Rate (GER) 44.7% in 2016</td>
<td>CESA, 2016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper secondary, 23.2% in 2016</td>
<td>CESA, 2016</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Proportion of students not reaching the basic and minimum proficiency levels in reading by SDG region

| Basic proficiency 63%                                                    | CESA, 2016              |
| Minimum Proficiency 87%                                                  | CESA, 2016              |
SO5: Accelerate Processes Leading to Gender Parity and Equity

The Enrolment Rate of Girls relative to that of boys, expressed as a value of one when there is parity between the sexes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Baseline</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female/male parity, primary</td>
<td>1.02, 2017</td>
<td>Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) 2019, Global Education Monitoring report</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female/male parity, lower secondary</td>
<td>0.86, 2017</td>
<td>Source: 2019 Global Education Monitoring report</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A value of one indicates a high degree of gender parity or balance. Less than one indicates insufficient girls in school. Greater than one indicates insufficient boys in school. Purpose: The GPI measures progress towards gender parity in education participation and/or learning opportunities available for women in relation.

SO6: Launch comprehensive and effective literacy programmes across the continent to eradicate the scourge of illiteracy

The number of people aged 15-35 years who can both read, write and make simple arithmetic calculations with understanding of simple statement on their everyday life divided by the population in that age group. The purpose is to reflect recent outcomes of the basic education process.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Baseline</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>By 2030, ensure that all youth and a substantial proportion of adults, both men and women, achieve literacy and numeracy-Africa's Illiteracy rate</td>
<td>41% in 2015</td>
<td>Source: CESA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SO7: Strengthen the science and Maths curricula in youth training and disseminate scientific knowledge and culture in society

Percentage of teachers qualified to teach in Science or Mathematics according to national standards. It provides an indication of the relative proportion of teachers that are sufficiently and officially qualified to teach Science or Mathematics at any given level of education. We need to get data for this but now the data not available.
SO8: Expand TVET opportunities at both secondary and tertiary levels and strengthen linkages between the world of work and education and training systems.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>By 2030, ensure equal access for all women and men to affordable and quality technical, vocational, and tertiary education, including universities</td>
<td>Source: only 6% of total enrolment in secondary education in 2016</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SO9: Revitalize and expand tertiary education, research and innovation to address continental challenges and promote global competitiveness

Expenditure on Research and Development as a Percentage of GDP—Expenditures for research and development cost covers basic research, applied research, and experimental development. The main purpose is it provides an indication of the level of financial resources devoted to R&D in terms of the share of the GDP.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Enrollment to Higher education</td>
<td>Enrolment stands at about 7% of the age cohort in 2016, CESA, 2016.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contribution of Africa for the global Knowledge</td>
<td>Contributes around 1% of the global knowledge. CESA, 2016</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SO10: Promote peace education and conflict prevention and resolution at all levels of education and for all age groups

Number of countries endorsed and operationalized Safe Schools Declaration—Through this declaration it is believed to ensure the continuation of education during humanitarian situations, emergency situations such as armed conflict and support the reestablishment of educational facilities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Baseline</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of countries endorsed and operationalized Safe Schools Declaration</td>
<td>17 countries, 2018</td>
<td>Save the Children report</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The purpose of the indicator is to determine whether Governments are safeguarding the right of children and people everywhere to receive an education.
SO11: Improve management of education system as well build and enhance capacity for data collection, management, analysis, communication, and use

CESA aims to set up “qualitative system of education and training to provide the African continent with efficient human resources adapted to African core values and therefore capable of achieving the vision and ambitions of the African Union.” Thus, the present challenges towards achieving this goal are due to the poor reporting of education data in member states occasioned by the less then effective national Education Management Information System (EMIS).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators</th>
<th>Baseline</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of countries with functional EMIS Platform</td>
<td>10 Countries, 2020</td>
<td>IPED</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Due to this, the Continental Education Strategy for Africa Indicators Manual was developed in March 2018 as a wider CESA Monitoring and Evaluation Framework and as a global tool to empower education managers to perform their jobs effectively. In addition to this is the development of the EMIS Platform which aims to ensure the efficiency in policy formulation by governmental bodies to address the data blanks satiations in the implementation of the Action Plans for CESA.

Education Management Information System (EMIS) is a system for organizing information base in a systematic way for the management of educational development. EMIS is based in the ministry of education of the AU member States and tasked with collecting, processing, analyzing, publication, and distribution of education information for use in educational management. It is no secret that many AU member states are struggling with their EMIS systems due to various challenges. These struggles and the significance of having effective EMIS systems has prompted extensive support from partners like the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) and Global Partnership for Education.

Efficient EMIS systems are those that have high accuracy of education data obtained from schools. These data should be up to date to aid the allocation of per-capita funds to schools, monitoring of school enrollment and attendance, teacher turnover, address of emergent institutional issues and to inform the planning and policy formulation at the national level. However, many member states still grapple with the issue of data quality, timeliness, and in significant cases, data blanks.
SO12: Set up a coalition of stakeholders to facilitate and support activities resulting from the implementation of CESA 16-25

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education expenditure (%GDP)</th>
<th>4.3%, 2017</th>
<th>2019 Global Education Monitoring Report</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education expenditure (%budget)</td>
<td>16.5%, 2017</td>
<td>2019 Global Education Monitoring Report</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This indicator is defined as whether the country in question has allocated adequate budget for education sector or not. The purpose is to determine whether the country has domesticated the general agreement of the cut-off points needed to allocate budget for the sector.

**Recommendations:**

- Allocate the necessary budget for data management in general and baseline survey in particular to establish a benchmark for the key continental strategic frameworks: Agenda 2063, SDG 4 and CESA
- Strengthen the institutional capacity of the Educational Management system, in consultation with the strategic planning, department of AUC.
- Leverage the partnership among the cluster members and harmonize the data to speak all concerned the same language.

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Allen, C., Metternicht, G. and Wiedmann, T. 2019
Costanza et al., 2016;
Schmalzbauer and Visbeck, 2016
Nilsson et al., 2016

Continental Education Strategy for Africa Indicators Manual was developed in March 2018

*The Sustainable Development Goals Report 2019*


**Acknowledgments**

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1.2
THE CONTINENTAL EDUCATION STRATEGY FOR AFRICA:
A TIMELY RESPONSE FOR EDUCATION DEVELOPMENT FOR THE
AFRICA WE WANT

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CESA was developed at the time when globally discussions were around unfinished business from the Millennium Development Goals. The MDG educations goals had not been achieved, and yet, worse, the MDG education goals were woefully inadequate in themselves. Amidst global-regional tension, the continent of Africa had insisted on a different education agenda and goals, which covered the full spectrum of education from early childhood to higher education, including Technical and Vocational Education and Training, under the Second Decade of Education Plan of Action.

Africa’s rationale was as follows:

Education is a human right and children must remain in school until they complete secondary education. This would help keep them away from child marriage, child labour and other related disadvantage.

Completion of secondary education in pertaining education systems seemed to be the minimum required for a child to make a reasonably informed decision of career pathways; it was a useful quantum of education for empowering young people to be able to make better choices concerning healthy lifestyles, environmental management and democratic participation.

And finally, taking a break or dropping out after completion of secondary provided substantive opportunity for second chance return to the system, compared to dropping out at any lower level.

This was in contrast to the MDG prescription of 6 years basic education as the compulsory offering for children, even at a time when it was said, and was clear that Africa’s need for teachers, medical, agricultural and other professionals could not be addressed by primary school graduates.

There has since been serious re-thinking, with UNESCO studies commissioned to seek to find social economic arguments for agreeing on higher basic minimums for education and training. Although it had always been self-evident for the African group, that Africa needed to increase the very low levels of access to tertiary education including TVET, while ensuring that all children complete secondary education, it was in the discussions to establish post 2015 global agenda that this became universally “acceptable”. This was a most important development, so that when the African Union Commission (AUC) partnered with UNESCO to convene all AU member states in Kigali to agree on the post 2015 agenda, the African position was able to influence the global position at Incheon. Hence the global SDG 4 framework Education 2030 does not contradict the Continental Education Strategy for Africa in the main. This is in stark
contrast to the Second Decade of Education for Africa that placed Africa in a lonely position crusading for addressing Education comprehensively while raising the minimum acceptable standard for children.

CESA therefore, like the SDGs, set off to refocus on the “unfinished business” of the Second Decade of Education, which had been undermined by the global goal; and also to reposition Education and Training as the core imperative and common denominator to achieving all other social economic development goals.

Indeed, education development must be seen to respond to the needs in society, and prepare people to harness opportunities, while also providing the knowledge, skill and attitude necessary to empower innovation and leadership for change in every sphere of life.

A hallmark of the implementation of CESA so far has been the partnerships created and platforms established to foster experience sharing, collaborative development of strategic tools and joint reporting spaces that are allowing stakeholders to be more in touch with developments, challenges and opportunities across the African landscape, and beyond. Stakeholders have been able to establish linkages that are enabling them to work more coherently, reducing resource leakages that result from uncoordinated parallel approaches that characterised previous decades of education.

The CESA implementation platform, which consists of Thematic Clusters, facilitates mapping of agencies working in particular areas of education for the purpose of bringing them together for experience sharing, co-creation of solutions and mutual accountability to ensure best possible outcomes for inclusive, responsive, transformative education and training.

CESA implementation has also benefitted from the increased awareness and publicity of Africa’s potential demographic dividend from the youthful population, in a time when several regions of the world have aging populations. The agency of education and training in harnessing demographic dividends demands that education development be more critically aligned to the needs for certain knowledge for responsible citizenship, skills for critical thinking and entrepreneurial mind-sets that enable identification of opportunities in challenges. Lobbying for quality, inclusive, transformative education has therefore received a boost from advocates for youth empowerment and employability.

The reiterated and more generally recognised critical and catalytic role of education for achieving all other development goals has also boosted calls for ensuring education for all, and for linking education and training to productive and service sectors. It has directed attention to Technical and Vocational Education and Training, and secondary education quality. With an average of only 10% access to University and other tertiary education, the majority of young people in Africa access the workforce after completion of secondary education. This raises the realisation that issues of quality, relevance, life skills and employability must be addressed at all levels of education and are more critical at secondary, and perhaps even primary levels. It also means that ICT-related functional skills as well as STEM education have to be introduced earlier in the education system. All these imperatives have led to what is referred to as competence based curricula. It is fortunate that CESA addresses all these issues and is a clearly excellent policy framework.

It is increasingly evident that children have been disadvantaged by the very limited access to early childhood education and training- the foundation for education and human development. CESA calls for ensuring that all children access at least two years of compulsory early
childhood education and training. It has been shown that investments in ECED have the greatest returns in learning performance and overall human and intellectual capital development. Inclusion of ECED in CESA has added to its value, and therefore enhanced the primacy of CESA as the strategic framework for Africa that can provide useful lessons to the rest of the world. The key is to ensure that ECED is a part of a quality education system, with commensurate investment by government, not instead of, but alongside investment in the other levels.

Social disadvantage and exclusion have kept many children out of school, limited their performance and stunted their physical social and intellectual development. CESA call for inclusion identifies social interventions as key in getting all children to school, keeping them there and ensuring that they succeed. For this reason, School Feeding has become a major tool for education access and success under CESA, to the extent of provoking a decision by the AU Summit of Heads of State and Government in support of particularly home-grown school feeding for all children. Benefits of social interventions to girls are especially crucial and impactful, as girls are often the first to fall out of systems.

The advent of the African Continental Free Trade Area provides further opportunity for validating CESA call for harmonisation of education in Africa and strengthening intra-Africa academic and professional mobility and collaboration. This includes the mobility of teachers. Existing and new instruments such as the Addis Ababa Convention for mutual recognition of qualifications, the African Quality Rating Mechanism for higher education, the tuning and harmonisation of curriculum development, continental guidelines and standards for higher education, and for the teaching profession, qualification frameworks and so on begin to make more sense than when they were first mooted.

The issue of teachers and teaching and learning experiences has remained on the agenda due to unfinished business under the second decade of education. The continental study on teacher training working and living conditions in Africa that was called for under the second decade has become pivotal in providing direction and substance for renewed efforts in teacher development. CESA has placed the teacher as a centre piece for education development, taking on board existing and new initiatives towards ensuring quality, quantity, attention and status of the teaching profession. The continental Teacher Prize and qualification frameworks have resulted directly from the Study recommendations.

School safety and security of children and the teaching community have come to the fore as a result of serious tragedies that were borne out of terrorism, war crimes, natural and man made disasters affecting schools and universities. CESA recognises the links between peace and education and calls for ensuring peace in education and peace through education. If education is the key to social economic and human development, then an attack on the education system is an attack that threatens the future of nations and peoples, hence the core importance of peace education and safe campuses.

Education planning and financing are other major areas addressed by CESA. African governments spend significant levels of resources on education and training, and yet a great deal more is needed. It is clear that there is need for new and innovative sources, but also for improving the efficiency of use across the sector. A robust data platform and management information systems are essential to ensure optimal management, resource allocation, forecasting and planning for intervention. Education Management Information Systems
development and harmonisation has remained a priority since the Second Decade of Education, and significant progress has already been made under CESA.

Education and training have long been seen as having potential to contribute to building innovation ecosystems if well-ordered and appropriately organically linked to the world of work, resources and technology. On the other hand, education systems too must benefit from innovations made possible by new knowledge, new products and new technologies that introduce positive disruption towards more equitable and transformative systems. Implementation of CESA would have been incomplete without the effort that the AUC has made to promote Education Innovation through the annual Innovating Education in Africa expo. It will be essential to make links between the innovations exhibited and awarded with the education and training systems. Otherwise it will be a missed opportunity for Africa’s education, and for innovation and entrepreneurship in general. A number of international development agencies are seeking to introduce innovations in the African education system from the outside, but should rather engage with local African innovators for home grown EdTech and other solutions.

Imperatives referred to in the foregoing section imply the need for better coordination among education development and provision agencies to ensure that efforts are mutually reinforcing, achieving optimal results for given investments while ensuring internal coherence. Thus, CESA calls for mapping of education players and organising them into thematic clusters, where the various agencies come together for mutual support, mutual learning and working together towards a common vision of the Africa we want. The CESA Cluster platform has made it possible to engage around key issues to develop clarity about the challenges, threats and opportunities; and a shared understanding that can lead to every agency contributing from its area of strength in collaboration rather than unhealthy competition and unnecessary parallel and mutually contradictory initiatives that introduce resource leakages and abortion of the home grown vision.

There are a number of CESA thematic clusters established and operational. Notwithstanding the different levels of success so far, the cluster mechanism will be useful for focussed mobilisation of resources and for addressing issues in a systematic way, without losing sight of the other inter-related sub sectors. One of the distinctive features of CESA Clusters is that member agencies themselves choose among themselves the coordinating agencies that help ensure performance. Follow-up and continuity. The AUC chairs all the clusters to provide the vision.

Below is a table showing the various clusters at the end of 2019:
Table 1: CESA Clusters at the end of 2019

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEMATIC CLUSTERS</th>
<th>STATUS</th>
<th>COORDINATING PARTNERS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Development</td>
<td>Active Regular events</td>
<td>UNESCO-IICBA; Education International; IGAD; AFTRA; CEMASTEA; ....</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICT in Education</td>
<td>Active Several events</td>
<td>Global e-Schools and Communities Initiative (GESCI); UNESCO; UNICEF.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STEM Education</td>
<td>Active</td>
<td>African Institute for Mathematical Sciences; CEMASTEA; AAS ....</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women &amp; Girls/ Gender</td>
<td>Active Regular events</td>
<td>CIEFFA; FAWE.....</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher Education</td>
<td>Active</td>
<td>AAU; INHEA; ADEA; EU....</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education Planning</td>
<td>Active</td>
<td>IPED; ADEA; NEPAD agency; AOSTI; ....</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education Financing</td>
<td>Not launched</td>
<td>Student Loans/ Bursary Boards, ADEA, Banks....</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Feeding</td>
<td>Active</td>
<td>WFP; FAO; UNESCO; UNICEF; DSA; DREA; DPA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peace and Education</td>
<td>Active</td>
<td>Save the Children International; UNESCO-IICBA; DPA, DPS....</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture of Reading</td>
<td>Active</td>
<td>ADEA Associations of African Writers, Libraries; ACALAN, Publishers, DSA, ADEA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TVET</td>
<td>Very Active</td>
<td>NEPAD agency; Youth Division, ADEA; GIZ; ... DSA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Early Childhood Education</td>
<td>Very Active</td>
<td>AIECN; UNICEF; ADEA; Plan International; DSA; ....</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum</td>
<td>Launched</td>
<td>ACA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career Guidance and Life Skills</td>
<td>Launched</td>
<td>UNFPA, UNICEF, Youth Division</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It is essential that all bona fide agencies working in education in Africa take part in these collective processes, promoting home grown solutions, strengthening systems and policies, re-directing resources strategically and appropriately according to the AU brokered prioritisation.

Working together through the cluster system is designed to enhance ownership by stakeholders and help to secure high level institutional engagement, while promoting multi-sectoral approaches. Through the Clusters, stakeholder agencies are able to jointly identify and develop strategic initiatives, identify and mobilise champions, build transparency, commitment, mutual trust and accountability among stakeholders. It is also intended that stakeholders will be better able to recognise and celebrate achievements, jointly establish baseline situations through strategic studies and surveys and promote joint monitoring and reporting. The Cluster on Education Planning therefore takes on a lead role in ensuring appropriate instruments are developed for purposes of monitoring and reporting.

The CESA monitoring and performance indicators have been developed by the Commission making these important issues visible and measurable; they should also help provide a measure of how education is helping to achieve the other development goals and aspirations.

This CESA Book of Readings is expected to shed light on what developments have been achieved and the directions being undertaken to ensure that education in all its sub-sectors proves to be a veritable agency for achieving the Africa we want.
1.3

AFRICA’S EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN PERSPECTIVE

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ABSTRACT
This chapter deals with the context of the Continental Education Strategy for Africa (CESA) 16-25. It traces the checkered history of education in Africa from the indigenous system that existed centuries before the external interventions to the entry of Islam into Africa, the slave trade and period of colonialism. It discusses how Islam and colonialism in particular changed the philosophy and nature of education in the continent. It further captures the efforts of the post-independent governments to remedy the weaknesses of the Western education system inherited from the colonial powers. These accounts are linked to the global education goals starting from the declaration of Education for All (EFA) in 1990 and Millennium Development Goal (MDG2) in 2000 which had 2015 as target. The latest of these efforts which are the Sustainable Development Goals (SDG4) and African Union’s Agenda 2063: “The Africa We Want” and CESA 16-25 are then discussed as a way of preparing the ground for readers to appreciate the over forty chapters of this book on CESA and how CESA is transforming education in Africa. Conclusively, the chapter provided a preponderance of evidences to demonstrate that Africa had not achieved its educational goals over the years; however, CESA presents a fresh opportunity to right the wrongs in education in Africa.

Keywords: Africa, CESA, Colonial, Education, Islam, & Western.

1. INTRODUCTION

Education is the primary means of transmitting all the inventions and creativities of any society from one generation to another. These include knowledge about all spheres of life; skills and practices; value systems, comprising norms, customs, attitudes, beliefs and aspirations (Tylor, 1871/1920). For the modern societies, it is through education that manpower is developed to propel science and technology which have become the corner-stone of day-to-day life: build roads and bridges; manufacture automobiles, trains and aircrafts; design and produce digital technologies; erect architectural marvels; plan and build the most beautiful cities; revolutionise health care; boost agriculture; and ultimately comprehend and control the universe. Education also nurtures the individual to enrich art, literature, civics, politics, and social life; and to advance the overall ideals, values and civilization of the human race. Furthermore, through education, numerous canker worms such as poverty, illiteracy, disease, and insecurity (Akokpari, 2007) afflicting Africa in particular and many parts of the world in general, can be eradicated; gender discrimination and inequalities could become a thing of the past; isolation and marginalization of the venerable peoples as well as racial, ethnic and religious prejudices could be minimized; and the world could become a safer, more peaceful and prosperous place to live in.
Being endowed with the ability to do all the above and even more, it is not surprising that education is rightly at the centre of the debates about sustainable development. Therefore, the Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 4—Education is believed to be the pivot of the rest of the SDGs (UNESCO, 2015b). The implication is that the success or failure of SDG4 will significantly determine that ability of the global community to achieve the other SDGs. Nevertheless, the power of education as a cure to most of the world’s challenges had been recognized throughout history. More recently, there are great quotes that back up the faith in the efficacy of education, such as the one by Africa’s great leaders, Nelson Mandela that “Education is the most powerful weapon which you can use to change the world” (Mandela, 1990); The Education rights activist and Nobel Laureate, Malala Yousafzai, “One book, one pen, one child, and one teacher can change the world” (Yousafzai, 2017); Irina Bokova, Director-General of UNESCO, “education, a fundamental human right, is the key to global peace and sustainable development” (UNESCO, 2015b:12); and Helen Clark, UNDP Administrator, “In our world, knowledge is power, and education empowers. It is an indispensable part of the development equation. It has intrinsic value – extending far beyond the economic – to empower people to determine their own destiny. That is why the opportunity to be educated is central to advancing human development” (UNESCO, 2015b:12).

Given the abiding faith in Education as a sine qua non to development, humanity across the generations have philosophized about education, thinking hard to decipher the best essence, goals and objective of any education. There has been the case of ancient philosophers such as “Plato, Confucius, Jerome, Comenius, Rousseau, Pestalozzi, and Froebel as well as more recently Spencer, Dewey, Whitehead” (Fafunwa, 1971) and a multitude of others who tremendously influenced the opinions about education. Accordingly, the world has, over the centuries, paid serious attention to education and set audacious goals that the nations must achieve. More remarkably, the world’s first conference on Education, the Jomtien Conference (1994) came up with what became popularly known as the Education for All (EFA) goals. At the close of the last millennium and realizing that much has not still be achieved in Education, the world became hysterical. Before then, the year 2000 seemed to be a magic wand and there were so many catch phrases such as “Education for All”, “Food for All”, “Health for All”, “Security for All”, and so forth. It was thought that the year 2000 would herald a more prosperous year and a joyful end of the millennium. However, when the year came, the dreams turned into a mirage as education, health, food, security and other basic necessities of life still remained out of the reach of the great part of the world’s population, especially in Africa. Therefore, the world community swiftly moved to initiate the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) which had 2015 as the target year. When that year came, some progress was recorded globally and in Africa as well. However, it was still far from the ultimate dream. A World Bank research report put the fact this way:

As in most countries worldwide, Sub-Saharan African countries are striving to build their human capital so they can compete for jobs and investments in an increasingly globalized world. In this region - which includes the largest number of countries that have not yet attained universal primary schooling - the ambitions and aspirations of Sub-Saharan African countries and their youth far exceed this basic goal.
(Majgaard & Mingat, 2012)

In 2015, the United Nations again enunciated the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) targeting the year 2030. The African Union came up with a 2063 Agenda christened “The Africa we want” with lofty aspirations as captured in Box 1. Furthermore, The African Union
institutionalized the Continental Education Strategy for Africa (CESA 16-25) as a medium-term direct response to SDG4-Education.

**Box 1: Our Aspirations for the Africa we want**

1. A prosperous Africa based on inclusive growth and sustainable development.
2. An integrated continent, politically united and based on the ideals of Pan-Africanism and the vision of Africa’s Renaissance.
3. An Africa of good governance, democracy, respect for human rights, justice and the rule of law.
4. A peaceful and secure Africa.
5. An Africa with a strong cultural identity, common heritage, shared values and ethics.
6. An Africa whose development is people-driven, relying on the potential of African people, especially its women and youth, and caring for children.
7. Africa as a strong, united and influential global player and partner.

Source: African Union (2015:2)

Invariably, every significant effort in Africa to advance education is guided by CESA 16-25. Indeed, just three years into the implementation of CESA, quantum achievements had been recorded while there are obviously challenges yet to be overcome. There are also Clusters created by the African Union to serve as a convenient delineation of CESA stakeholders, programmes and activities in order to meaningfully drive CESA to a logical conclusion by the year 2025. It is against this backdrop that this book, titled “Transforming Africa through Education: Readings on the Continental Education Strategy for Africa (16-25)” was initiated. The aim is to document the different facets of concepts, theories, practices, experimentations, success, challenges, and the unfolding blueprints among the clusters. The book also provides opportunity for scholars across the continent to publish original theoretical and reserved ideas regarding education in Africa. Therefore, the book is an innovative attempt to “intellectualise” and propagate the enormous efforts being invested by countries, organisations and individuals in the efforts to achieve the goals and targets of CESA 16-25.

This chapter, titled “Africa’s Educational Development in Perspective” presents a background to the agelong effort to building a veritable education system for Africa. Logically, therefore, it goes down memory lane to trace the different historical epochs in Africa with the contending political powers and their impact on education. This includes the reign of the traditional authorities when the education system was purely indigenous, and the time Islam established roots in Africa, down to the time of the colonial and post-colonial administrations, each of which perpetuated peculiar education features. The chapter further traces the course of education to the more recent time characterized by such clichés as EFA, MDG, SDG, and CESA. Accordingly, this chapter has the following captions:

i. In the Beginning: The African Indigenous Education System
ii. The Advent of Islam in Africa
iii. Colonialism and Western Education in Africa
iv. Education in Post-Colonial Africa
v. CESA 16-2025: Dawn of a New Era, and
vi. Conclusion.
In all of this, the reader is invited to appreciate that education in Africa had faced vicissitudes and exruciating challenges. Nevertheless, the resilience of the people and faith in education has never at any time been in doubt.

2. IN THE BEGINNING: THE AFRICAN INDIGENOUS EDUCATION SYSTEM

Africa as home to ancient empires, kingdoms and communities

Africa is home to indigenous peoples and cultures from time immemorial. Archeological finds and museums all around Africa, especially East Africa (Ethiopia, Tanzania, Kenya, etc.) vividly depict Africa as home to the earliest known humans. A skull in the Ethiopian museum, named “Lucy”, dated over three million years, is said to be the oldest known human remains in the world. The Guardian (2015) described Lucy as “a 3.2 million-year-old member of Australopithecus afarensis and the most complete skeleton of an early human ancestor ever discovered” (The Guardian, 2015:1). The claim of Africa as the cradle of civilization is also supported by the records of the ancient civilizations of Egypt and Ethiopia, and sprawling kingdoms and empires in Africa before the foreign dominations. Tchombe & Wirdze (2018) specifically mentioned the Ashanti and Dahomey kingdoms of West Africa; and the Zulu kingdom in South Africa under Shaka; and also pointed to numerous autonomous societies without kings or chiefs, which included the Talletlsi, the Igbo and Yako in West Africa; Nuer in the southern part of Sudan, and Tonga in southern Zambia. Such indigenous peoples and cultures of Africa flourished for many centuries and had artefacts dated B.C. (Before Christ).

The peoples’ allegiance to their environment and religion

The indigenous African peoples developed rich cultures and social institutions in education, politics, religion, economy, marriage, kinship, and extended family system. They developed distinctive cultures and identities and bonded closely with their environment. They were essentially tied to their environment not only through the ownership of land and the exploitation of the natural resources for their sustenance and survival but also through a spiritual link anchored on ancestor worship and other forms of spiritism and supernatural belief systems. As the famous American sociologist, Talcott Parsons (1937, 1951) pointed out, religion is the primary source of morality and values system and this is true not only in the industrial but even more so in the traditional societies. Most of the indigenous African societies believed not just in their ancestors but also in the existence of the supreme being. There is hardly any African society without a name for the supreme being, known in the Western concept as “God” or in Islam as Allah (SWT). However, the people believed that the supreme being is to be reached through the ancestors and other gods. Thus, there were gods of thunder, fertility, justice, the sun, moon, land, mountain, rock, iron, river, forest, and so forth. In Religious Studies, the belief in the existence of both the supreme being and other gods can rightly be classified as polytheism (worship of two or more gods) and that was the religious system in most, if not all, African societies in the ancient days.

What this depicted is that the people identified anything around them or in the universe as habitats of the gods or as having specific gods that controlled them. They believed that the gods animated such objects and entities and through them manifested their powers. Once these entities were identified, they were set aside as “sacred” as distinct from the “profane” (Durkheim, 1893, 1971). The sacred are common objects dedicated to the gods while the profane are the rest of objects in the environment or universe. This is the idea described by the famous French sociologist, Emile Durkheim, who defined religion basically as a distinction between the sacred (holy things) and profane (ordinary or secular things). According to him,
the sacred objects are materially speaking not different from the profane or ordinary objects. The only difference is that the people set them aside and regard them as sacred. From that time onwards, they begin to approach the sacred objects with reverence, awe and deference. Thus, he argued that religion among the traditional people was a social creation based on the beliefs, experiences and practices of the people. In his view, religion was simply “society deified”, that is, religion was simply an exaltation of the people’s beliefs and practices into the spiritual and transcendental realm by the people themselves. He did not believe that “deity” was anything other than the imagination and creation of society. Nevertheless, while the argument about whether religion was or is real or not is better left for the individuals of the different faiths to contend with, Durkheim was able to demonstrate through his study of religion that lives of the people were powerfully influenced by their religious beliefs (Durkheim, in The Open University, 1971). In his study of totemism (worship of totems) among the aborigines of Australia, he described the religious force among the people as the collective and anonymous force of the clan represented by the totem; therefore, the totem was mere emblem signifying the “visible body of the god” (Durkheim in Bellah, 1973:184).

Social solidarity among the indigenous peoples
The indigenous peoples of Africa were in a covenant not only with their land and among themselves but also with their ancestors, the gods and the supreme being. The members of the communities were closely-knit and submitted to the wishes and dictates of their culture and communal norms, customs and practices. They were held together by bonding produced through kinship ties, common religious beliefs, experiences, world view, norms, customs and aspirations. The society was based on “mechanical solidarity” (Durkheim, 1893; Schiermer, 2014); this is a social system where members did not live according to selfish indulgence but rather with utmost consideration to public good, norms and values. Altruism was a hallmark of the society as against individuality. The society was regarded as having the power to life and death and breaches of the ethics and values were punished punitively. Disputes were resolved by institutionalized mechanisms of social control which had much to do with religious belief systems and traditional political authority structures. Social control, therefore, was effective, and crime was relatively under control. Most of the vices of the present-day could not have been imagined centuries ago. The by-products of the traditional religions were morality and collective conscience founded upon truth, honesty, justice, fair play and other virtues.

Among the indigenous peoples, there was clearly a social division of labour and children were socialized into their respective social roles from birth. The roles for men and women, young and old were well known as well as their duties, responsibilities, rights and privileges. A universal value system among the African societies was communalism – a belief and practice of collectivism which implies a sense of relationship and oneness, one with another. The southern African peoples call this, ubuntu – “I am because you are”; people feel a sense of common ancestry and heritage and a problem for one person is regarded as a problem for everyone. Among the Igbo of Nigeria, they say that “the child belongs to the entire community”. Therefore, the child relates to all elders like they do to their parents and all elders treat the child in the community as their own. Indeed, the indigenous peoples of Africa have a distinctive sense of communal bonds and ties for which they are known till this day.

The nature of the indigenous education system
In the foregoing context, education in the traditional society was an experience lived daily by each member of society. In other words, at the heart of the education system was experience: The idea that “experience is the best teacher” was best demonstrated by the traditional
education system. People learnt by observing and doing; people learnt by close association for the various members of the family and community and their stories, tales and lifestyles. There were no written texts and as such, the oral tradition was the dominant way of passing information from generation to generation. However, the ancient arts and crafts later become the precursors of written language for the indigenous peoples because those arts and crafts actually conveyed important messages and meanings and indirectly told the story of the ancient people as may be reconstructed by the archeologists. No single individual or set of individuals were designated teacher. Every person in the society contributed to bringing up the child and initiating the adults into higher levels of knowledge and practices. There was no classroom; the entire society was the teaching and learning arena. Education was mainstreamed into all facets of the cultural practices and lives of the people. Education was basically informal because the individual learned from the family, peers, neighbours, secret societies, age grades, and other various social groups. Most importantly, education was less theoretical and rather practical. People learnt very much on the job and from direct experience: farming, palm wine tapping, hunting, goldsmithing, traditional medicine, cooking, marriage, and the numerous activities and social roles were learnt directly through the techniques of demonstration and observation. Punishment and reward were also publicly displayed in most cases for individuals to witness and then develop a rational sense of the consequences of doing good and evil. Nevertheless, some aspects of the traditional education were indeed formalized in the context of the traditional societies. For instance, apprenticeship, religious rituals, rites of passage, dance, native medicine, divination, priesthood of the gods and goddesses, hunting, and other creative and “professional” trades as well as complex societal stages and ceremonies called for a systematized approach to learning that had some features of the formal and semi-formal systems of education in the present day. There were stages of initiation ceremonies, rites and instructions for various categories of men and women into the higher order of things in the traditional society.

In the traditional societies, the individual received education from birth till death. Education was also functional because every individual engaged primarily in learning occupations for subsistence and survival. The mainstay of the economy was agriculture which was mainly farming and animal husbandry. However, the traditional occupations such as (hunting, music, dance, arts, crafts, native medicine, iron works, wrestling, military skills, etc.) flourished as well. There was no question of unemployment or embarking on education that was not relevant to the immediate society. Indeed, education was a means of adaptation to the immediate environment and contact with the outside world was limited. There was no case of globalization as in the present time where people found themselves thrown into a World Order where they have no control over their fate or of anything for that matter. The rules are determined by the powerful external forces and the individual simply has to play by the rules.

**Defining the indigenous education system**

Based on the foregoing, the indigenous education refers to the ways of transmitting knowledge, skills, practices, values, customs and belief systems from one generation to another which are as old as the peoples and which are intricately linked to the cultures (Emeagwali, & Dei, 2014; Eyong, 2007; Hays, 2004; International Work Group for Indigenous Affairs, 2004; Kothari, 2007; Lanzano, 2013; Muazrui & Levine, 1986). In this context, the International Council for Science and UNESCO (ICSU, 2002) defined traditional knowledge as the:

> **cumulative body of knowledge, know-how, practices and representations maintained and developed by peoples with extended histories of interaction with the natural**
environment... These sophisticated sets of understandings, interpretations and meanings are part and parcel of a cultural complex that encompasses language, naming and classification systems, resource use practices, ritual, spirituality and worldview. (ICSU, 2002, p. 9).

Corroborating the facts above, Mosweunyane (2013) opined that learning in the African traditional society was an:

interaction with their physical and spiritual milieus, as evidenced by their design of tools which they used mostly in their agro activities and in fighting for resources. The other area in which learning took place was that of spirituality or mysticism, as some superstitious members of African communities were believed to have powers of communicating with their ancestors. As noted by Westerlund (1991), the belief in the ancestors is widespread in many African agricultural areas and like divinities and nature spirits, the spirits of ancestors are thought to be intermediaries between God and humankind.

Mosweunyane (2013:50).

Furthermore, the International Institute for Sustainable Development asserted that traditional knowledge and other related concepts such as indigenous or local knowledge means the same thing: they all refer to the information, ideals, customs and practices created over the generations by the indigenous people and transmitted through “stories, legends, folklore, rituals, songs, art, and even laws” (Kothari, 2007:4). In the view of the Institute, the traditional clearly differs from formal education because the former “does not separate ‘secular’ or ‘rational’ knowledge from spiritual knowledge, intuitions, and wisdom. It is often embedded in a cosmology, and the distinction between ‘intangible’ knowledge and physical things is often blurred. Indeed, holders of traditional knowledge often claim that their knowledge cannot be divorced from the natural and cultural context within which it has arisen, including their traditional lands and resources, and their kinship and community relations” (Kothari, 2007:4).

In a nutshell, from the writings of various scholars (Boateng, 1985; Meredith, 2006; Mosweunyane, 2013; Ocitti, 1994; Tchombe and Wirdze, 2018), some of the characteristics of the traditional education system may be surmised as follows:

i. The primary purpose of the education system was to equip the individual to adapt to the immediate environment. Therefore, education was functional and appropriate for the immediate needs of the individual and community;

ii. The education system was founded upon informal instruction in terms of general education while aspects of education, for instance, rites of passage, initiation ceremonies, age-grade system, and apprenticeship for certain occupations, were systematized and formalized;

iii. The education system thrived on oral communication;

iv. Everyone was a teacher and there were no individuals specifically assigned to the role of professional or full-time basis;

v. The entire society was the learning arena; learning was not limited to “rooms” as in today’s classrooms;

vi. The curriculum consisted primarily of the people’s culture and traditions. Foreign influence on the curriculum was absent or negligible;
vii. Training was practical and learning by observation and doing were the tenets. The use of theories and abstract generalisations was limited. These were presented in the form of proverbs and idioms that reflected the age-old wisdom and experiences of the people;

viii. Specialisation was limited as individuals were socialized into all the relevant roles appropriate for the gender and age in society;

ix. The education system was intricately linked to religion, ethics and worldview of the society. It was impossible to separate the education from the people’s religious beliefs and practices. There were no competing religions as the indigenous people had common ancestry and religious practices;

x. The education system was conservative as it was tied to the customs and traditions which seldom changed within a generation. Experimentation and research did not exist in the complex way they are carried out in today’s education system;

xi. Learning was life-long, that is, from birth till death; and

xii. No child was left behind; the concept of out-of-school children was unknown to the traditional societies.

3. THE ADVENT OF ISLAM IN AFRICA

Origin, meaning and spread of Islam to Africa

The Islamic religion was founded in Mecca, Saudi Arabia in the seventh century (Encyclopedia Britannica, 2018), dating roughly six hundred years after the birth of the Christian religion in Israel. Islam is monotheistic, a belief and worship of one God, Allah (SWT). The holy book of Islam, the Qur’an contains the basic teachings of the religion. It is also regarded as a revealed religion because Muslims believe that Allah, through an archangel, Jubril revealed the contents of the Qur’an to Islam’s final and greatest prophet, Muhammad (PBUH). The meaning of Islam, an Arabic word, is “submission, surrender, and obedience to Allah” (SWT), the Creator of the universe; and Islam literally also means “peace”, that is, “one can achieve real peace of body and of mind only through submission and obedience to Allah” (Ahmad, 2018).

Curtin, Feierman, Thompson, Vansina, (1995) suggested that the entry of Islam into Africa from the Arabian countries was from the tenth century. According to the authors, it spread gradually from “North Africa to the West and South of the Sahara and then along the Red Sea and the northern coast of the Indian Ocean.” (Curtin, et al, 1995:76). Nicolini and Watson (2004) also reported that Islam entered Africa through the horn of Africa (East Africa, for instance, Ethiopia) soon after its establishment in Saudi Arabia and steadily spread down the coast of the Indian Ocean, all the way to Southern Africa. In the account by Levitzion and Pouwels (2018), Islam entered Africa through the North and East: In the middle of the seventh century, the Arabs defeated the imperial forces of the Byzantine which enabled them to gain access over the coasts of North Africa. Then they fought the Berber tribes in the interior Africa which resisted but over the years fell to the powers of the Arabs as well. The conquests involved both conversion and political submission (Levtzion and Pouwels, 2018). West Africa received Islam after the year 1000. From this time there were narratives of Islamic rulers in some of the empires within the region – for instance, the Kanem Bornu Empire. Eventually, one of the most ambitious spread and purification of Islam in West Africa was undertaken from 1804 by Uthman Dan Fodio, a Fulani Islamic scholar and leader whose greatest impact was felt in the present-day Nigeria. Beginning from 1804, he overran the king and dynasty of Gobir, conquered the indigenous Hausa tribes and established an Islamic Caliphate (Headquarters) that ruled till this day over most of the area now known as the Northern Nigeria (Lovejoy, 2016; Hiskett, 1973). Nevertheless, jihads occurred in West Africa before the one executed by
Uthman Dan Fodio such as the jihads of Bundu (1660s), Futa Jallon (1725), and Futa Toro, (1776) (Achebe, Adu-Gyamfi, Alie, Ceesay, Green, Hiribarren, and Kye-Ampadu, 2018). Achebe et al gave the following synopsis of the journey of Islam in Africa:

*Africa was the first continent, which Islam spread into out of Arabia in the early seventh century. Almost one-third of the world’s Muslim population resides today in the continent. It was estimated in 2002 that Muslims constitute 45% of the population of Africa. Islam has a large presence in North Africa, West Africa, the horn of Africa, the Southeast and among the minority but significant immigrant population in South Africa.*

*The first West Africans to be converted were the inhabitants of the Sahara, the Berbers, and it is generally agreed that by the second half of the tenth century, the Sahara had become Dar al-Islam that is the country of Islam...* (Achebe et al, 2018:1)

Basically, therefore, the spread of Islam to Africa came primarily through trade, migration, inter-marriage, scholarship (early Muslim missionaries) as well as conquest. According to the Encyclopedia Britannica (2018), Islam expresses itself as religious community mandated by Allah (SWT) to impose its values upon world through and this could be achieved through the *jihād* (“holy war”). This character proved to be a powerful force that enabled the Islam to spread across the world within a short time. The present population of the Muslims in the world are over 1.8 billion (24.1% of the world’s population) next to the Christians with over 2.4 billion (33%) and Hindus that occupy the third position with a population of about 1.15 (15%) (Adherents.com, 2018; Pew Research Centre, 2015).

**The principles and characteristics of Islam**

Describing the essential characteristics of Islam, Qutb (2018) quoted the Islamic scriptures, Al-Baqarah 2:138, which states: “The hue of Allah - and whose hue is better than Allah's?”. He, therefore, asserts that there are many characteristics of Islam but all of them are subsumed under the primary characteristic of being originated by Allah. “This concept is divinely ordained by Allah with all its constituents and characteristics not so that man may add something to it or take something away from it, but so that man may receive it whole-heartedly, adapt himself to it, and apply its corollaries to his life” (Qutb, 2018: ). Similarly, At-tameemi (2018:1) analysed what he called the fundamental principles and the four basic rules in Islam. According to him, “If you are asked regarding the three fundamental principles which every Muslim should know, you should reply: ‘That the slave knows his Lord, his religion (Islam), and his Prophet, Muhammad (PBUH).’” Based on this he stated the three principles as:

1. The Knowledge of the Lord.
2. The Knowledge of the Religion of Islam with its supportive evidences.
3. The Knowledge of the Prophet, Muhammad (PBUH).

The four basic principles then are:

1. Knowledge, which is to know Allah, His Messenger (PBUH) and the religion of Islam, with the supportive evidences.
2. Application of this knowledge.
3. Calling people to it.
4. Persevering patiently through any harm that might afflict you while calling others to it.
Implications of the principles and characteristics of Islam for knowledge

The above shows that the most acceptable and authentic Knowledge in Islam is that about the Allah (SWT), the prophet Muhammad (PBUH) and the revealed ways of life. This requirement is overriding and supreme and cannot be compromised by any other knowledge or way of life. In this sense, Islam does not separate politics, economy, or any aspect of the cultural institutions and practices from the Islamic injunctions. All these are fused into one and ruled by religion. In effect, Islam seeks to regulate not only the individual’s relationship to God but also the entire social fabric of the human relations: “Thus, there is not only an Islamic religious institution but also an Islamic law, state, and other institutions governing society” (Encyclopedia Britannica, 2018). In this sense, the religion could be said to be revolutionary in its approach because it seeks to uproot any un-Islamic culture on its way. Nevertheless, the are bound to be vestiges of the “conquered” cultures that remain and sometimes, the people incorporate them into their religious practices or mix Islamic religion with their old ways of life. This creates a situation that “adulterated” the Islamic practices and sometimes, ignites certain Islamic movements which rise up to “purify” the system. Out of the tendency to purify the system and to dominate new areas have risen what is contemporarily called “radical Islam” – the extremist Islamic movements that seek to use terror as an instrument to gain the political control of territories. Furthermore, Muslims believe that the Arabic version of the Qur’an is the most authentic; thus, the study of the Arabian language is key to understanding and practicing Islam.

The implication of the foregoing is that the indigenous education, political and social system of the African people who came under the influence of Islam were replaced and governed according to the Islamic religious creed. The Quranic schools dominated the indigenous system of education and people looked up to the learned Islamic clerics for the interpretation and impartation of Islamic knowledge, skills and values. The learning of the Arabic language and Qur’an became the primary purpose of education; and all other aspects of education – sciences, arts, humanities, philosophy, and morality were governed by Islam. Consequently, the dawn of Islam marked the first transformation of the cultures of the indigenous peoples of Africa who had embraced the religion. This was particularly so because Islam is described as a way of life and rule by the Sharia (Islamic) Law. The tenets of Islam empowered the religion to control all aspects of the people’s lives from politics to economy, family, and even science and morality.

Enosi (2018) further captured the history and crux of Islamic education:

*Islamic education had its roots in the period when Islam was established alongside the creation of the Arab Empire (750-250 A.D). This empire spread its influence as far as India, parts of Italy and Spain in Europe, Morocco in Northern Africa and the Arabian Peninsula and beyond. According to Ozigi and Canham (1995), Baghdad in Iraq became the capital of the Arab empire and was the centre of Islamic education during the period.*

*In terms of the curriculum, Islamic education during the great days of the Arab Empire put emphasis on the study of the Koran, the Holy book. The traditions of Prophet Mohammed (Hadith) were also taught. Other areas that featured on the Islamic curriculum were Arabic Literature, Logic, Rhetoric, Mathematics, Science, among others.*

(Enosi, 2018:36)

The long history of Islam in Africa accords it an ‘indigenous’ status because there are now generations of African people born into Islam, and who think of the Islamic culture and
education as their original way of life. Though such people had their indigenous cultures before the advent of Islam, most of the cultures had been lost while more of the Islamic culture had been gained. As stated by Encyclopaedia.com (2017), Islam in Africa had blended with the indigenous cultures and thus enriched the cultures and vice versa.

4. COLONIALISM AND WESTERN EDUCATION IN AFRICA

The serial domination of indigenous Africa by external powers
Historically, Africa has seen serial disruptions of its original cultures and social institutions (Cogneau, 2003; Nicolini & Watson, 2004; Oxford Reference, 2017). Islam, slave trade and colonialism were among the greatest external religious, economic and political forces that impacted greatly on the continent. After the conquest by Islam which began in the tenth century as explained in the earlier section of this chapter, slave trade was another hallmark of the ravages faced by Africa. According to South Africa’s Department of Arts and Culture (2018), slave trade in Africa spanned from the fifteenth to the nineteenth century, heralding the largest deportation in human history and involved the exportation of about 25-30 million slaves from the continent. The “people were violently torn from their homelands and shipped abroad, causing untold human suffering, and leaving an indelible imprint on culture and society worldwide… one of the most shameful episodes in human history” (Department of Arts and Culture, 2018:1).

No sooner was slavery abolished in the early 1800s that colonialism took over the domination of the African people. In these years, the competition for space in Africa among the Europeans, popularly termed the “Scramble for Africa” intensified and eventually to the partitioning of the continent among the European powers. The partitions were legalized through the treaties of the 1884-1885 Berlin Conference (Cogneau, 2003; Oxford Reference, 2017). Britain, France, Germany, Portugal, Spain, Italy, and Belgium had colonies in Africa, at one time or the other though Britain and France eventually took the greater part of the continent. From this time, the European countries gradually over-powered the local administrations in Africa and established their authorities. Thus, the Encyclopedia Britannica Ultimate Reference Suite (2018) referred to colonialism as a “political-economic phenomenon whereby various European nations explored, conquered, settled, and exploited large areas of the world.” It puts the beginning of modern colonialism at about 1500s, occasioned by the discovery of the sea routes to the southern coast of Africa by 1488 and of America by 1492. However, the nineteenth and twenty centuries were the climax of the colonial rule in Africa. In some areas the colonial authorities applied the governance tactics called Direct Rule which entailed replacing the administrative structures with theirs, while in others the approach was Indirect Rule which means the protected the local administrative structures and used them to achieve their colonial purposes.

Education in the colonial setting
One of the most significant outcomes of colonialism in Africa was the introduction of Western education. Before colonialism had a full grip of the continent, Christian missions from Europe had settled in the continent to evangelise and convert the people who they considered as pagans, and in some cases as barbarians, to Christianity and Western civilization considered to be a superior culture. Therefore, the full control of the continent by the colonial authorities provided greater impetus and protection for the Christian missions to carry out their evangelization. These were Missions from the Catholic and Protestant Churches from the home countries of the colonial authorities. In most cases, therefore, the introduction of education served the purpose of the Christian missions as well as that of the colonial authorities which was to create
a little literate and skilled labour to help the colonial administration. Thus, Mart (2011) observed that the colonial governments implemented in the colonies the type of education they had in their homelands abroad. Cogneau (2003) cited several sources to demonstrate that the impact of colonialism was a product of the identity of the colonial powers and the local characteristics of the colonies. He referred, for instance, to the British system of Common Law and Christian Protestantism as well as the French Civil Law and Catholic faith as having had significant impacts on the educational economic models of their respective colonies. Indeed, he argued that the impacts of colonialism on education in Africa persisted till the 1990s:

Even before 1945, the British side had a larger number of secondary schools and universities: "British West Africa was a special case. Primary education, left up to the missionaries, was taught in the vernacular language in keeping with the principles of Indirect Rule... Each territory had several secondary schools and there were three higher education establishments in West Africa alone: Fourah Bay in Sierra Leone (established in 1877), Achimota College in Gold Coast and Yaba Higher College in Lagos (established in 1934). This density was remarkable, especially since the only other teacher training establishments in Black Africa were Liberia College in Monrovia (1833), the William Ponty School in French West Africa, Makerere College in Uganda (1933, formerly a technical college, established as a university in 1939), the Kenya Teacher Training College (1939) and the Overtown Institution in Khondove founded by the Livingstonia Mission in 1894" (Coquery-Vidrovith and Moniot, 1974, pp. 199-200). This generated the emergence of an educated class of junior technicians, primary school teachers and self-employed professionals who were, at the same time, excluded from attaining the power retained by the traditional leaders. (Cogneau, 2003:7-8)

The point made by Cogneau in the above passage is that educational development, including number of educational institutions, enrolments, and quantity of school leavers produced related directly to the character of the colonial powers. The British left much of the education to the Christian missionaries while providing support by promulgating educational ordinances and giving political support. As for the French colonial authority, it took up the education of the people directly and made education free. Therefore, education in the French territories could not expand in comparison with education in the British territories because of cost factors which the French government alone could not provide. Again, the curriculum of the colonial education was British and French curriculum.

As a case study, Fafunwa (1971) also gave account of the education of Ajayi Crowther, the very first African Bishop, south of Sahara (Fafunwa, 1971:7). According to him, the history of higher education in Africa began only with the abolition of slave trade and subsequent resettling of slaves in Freetown, Sierra Leone, in 1787. Ajayi Crowther, a child slave from Nigeria born in 1809 was thus resettled in Freetown in 1822. In 1825 he got converted to Christianity and was baptized. By 1826 he was sent by the Church Missionary Society to England to study and that made him the first Nigerian known to have studied in England. He came back from England to become the first registered student of the Fourah Bay College established in 1827 by the Church Missionary Society to “train ministers, teachers and lay workers of the church” (Fafunwa, 1971:6). He successfully graduated from the College and engaged in missionary activities in West Africa especially Nigeria on behalf of the Church Missionary Society. He went back to England in 1843 for further studies, got ordained as a priest in 1844 and in 1861 consecrated as a Bishop in charge of West Africa. Ultimately, Bishop
Ajayi Crowther played monumental roles in the conversion of the people of Southern Nigeria to Christianity and translation of the Bible and other Christian literature to local languages.

Overall, some of the purposes of colonial education (Enosi 2018:34) were to:

i. Propagate the Christian gospel using the schools and build a virile Christian community;
ii. Train the natives to be literate and able to read the Bible and other Christian literature;
iii. Help in translating the Bible and Christian literature to local languages;
iv. Convince the natives to leave paganism;
v. Train manpower to help in running the schools and also skilled labour especially clerical officers for the colonial administration;
vi. Empower the Church Missions to become self-supporting through technical and practical expertise;
vii. Train a few leaders who would be supportive and protective to the colonialist; and
viii. Initiate the natives into the Western civilization.

Thus, the quantity or content of colonial education was limited to raising “helping-hands” for the Christian missions as evangelists and the colonial administration as clerical officers, artisans and low-class public servants. There was no serious attention paid to developing science and technology which is the pivot of the modern world, or to develop the professionals. Many Africans who were professionals in the colonial days obtained their qualifications from universities located in the Europe, mostly through correspondence courses. Teachers were the most common professions at the time produced by Western education for the school system. However, the teachers did not go beyond the secondary education and teacher training colleges. It was not until the era of political independence that the African countries began in earnest to design the type of education systems they desired for their nations.

5. EDUCATION IN POST-COLONIAL AFRICA

Two related events created an upsurge in the pursuit of Western education following the independence of the African countries. One, the African countries came to value Western education for what it is, that is an indispensable catalyst for development. The social demand for education led to astronomical increase in school enrolment figures, far beyond the capacity of the nascent independent nations to cope with. Two, there was the realization that the goals, curriculum, structures and process of education, including the nature of the educational institutions clearly served the interests of the colonial masters and not the aims and purposes of the independent countries. These and other factors placed education on the “emergency” list of many independent countries. The reform of education and improvement in education delivery became priorities of the independent administrations. Several countries set up Commissions to deal with various aspects of education. At this point the rebuilding of the countries were just beginning in earnest in all spheres of life.

The case study of Nigeria at this point may be illustrative. Just at the point of departure of the colonial administration in Nigeria by 1960, the Ashby Commission, set up in 1959 to review Post-School Certificate and Higher Education in Nigeria submitted its Report (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1960). Throughout the colonial period, there was not a single autonomous university in Nigeria. However, the University College, Ibadan operated since 1948 as an affiliate of the University of London. The first autonomous universities established in Nigeria came as part of the outcome of the Ashby Report in 1960. These were the University of Nigeria
(established 1960) Ahmadu Bello University (1962), Obafemi Awolowo University (1962), University of Lagos (1962) and University of Ibadan which became autonomous in 1962. By 1969, Nigeria convoked an unprecedented Curriculum Conference (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1969) to reform its curriculum across the various levels of the education system. The outcome of the Curriculum Conference was then adopted in 1975, as Nigeria’s very first National Policy on Education (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 2013; Nigerian Educational Research and Development Council, 2007). The Policy defined the National Philosophy of Education, goals of education, educational structure, goals of the various level of education and strategies to achieve all the goals of education stated in the Policy. On 5th December, 1990, Nigeria’s then Head of State inaugurated another Commission (known as the Gray Longe Commission), to review Higher Education in Nigeria and the Report was submitted in 1991 (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1991). By the account of the Commission, Nigeria as at 1997 had 150 universities owned by the Federal, State and private entrepreneurs. Yet, the universities did not have enough space to admit many candidates who desired university education and were qualified for admission. The Commission stated that the university did not have enough resources to expand indefinitely and could not admit more than their capacity in order to maintain quality education.

This challenge faced all new independent African countries and each continuously dealt with various aspects of educational reform in its post-colonial era (Brett, 1973; Busia, 1964; Fafunwa & Aisiku, 1982). Among areas that attracted serious attention for purpose of reform across Africa was the need to integrate indigenous culture in the Western education curriculum and to use local languages (mother tongue) for classroom instruction, at least at the Basic level. Southern African countries tried to integrate and promote ubuntu, their well-known indigenous philosophy of communalism. Tanzania, led by the former President, Julius Nyerere promoted Education for self-reliance. He advocated for education that could “prepare young people for the work they will be called upon to do in the society which exists in Tanzania” (Dodd, 1969; Nyerere, 1968:274). In Kenya, the Ominde Report (1964) and Ndegwa Report (1971) advocated equally called for African socialism and self-reliance. Cameroon embraced the philosophy of Green Revolution with redesigned school curriculum to drive the dream (Ngalim, 2014). Ghana pursued philosophies to adapt its education to the environment, particularly socio-economic and cultural realities (Ghanaian Education Service, 2012; Ministry of Education, Ghana, 2001; National Commission on Culture, Republic of Ghana, 2004; Republic of Ghana, 2008). Mali favoured the “ruralisation” of its education, focusing on creating jobs and aligning education to immediate needs of the Malian society (Ouane, 1995). Post-Apartheid South Africa saw the Government led by the African National Congress championing racial equality and equity in education. The reform redesigned curriculum to integrate indigenous knowledge, needs and languages of South Africa in the formal education system (International Work Group for Indigenous Affairs, 2004; Noyoo, 2007). Mozambique boosted indigenous cultural activities in its curriculum and replaced colonial textbooks with those produced locally. The Gambia introduced the use of mother tongue and later dispensed with it, arguing that it did not work. However, it intensified the integration of other aspects of its indigenous culture in the education system (Ministries of Basic and Secondary Education and Higher Education, Research, Science and Technology, Republic of The Gambia, 2016; Republic of The Gambia, Ministry of Basic and Secondary Education, 2011). The list goes on and on.

Notwithstanding the efforts and political campaigns made since independence by the African countries, the colonial vestiges remained entrenched and not much of the integration of the
indigenous culture in the Western education system has happened after all (UNESCO, 2010). Obanya (2008) in a work titled “Reforming Educational Reforms” argued that educational reforms for integration of cultural assets have been drawn up without adequately understanding the human, logistic, financial and managerial resources required for implementation. Therefore, according to him, the reforms turned out be mere promises by politicians that remained unfulfilled. In a similar work titled, “Education-in-culture and culture-in-education,” he called for a more conscientious integration of the indigenous cultures in the school curriculum. His opinions on the need to integrate culture in the Western education system was shared by many scholars and institutions (Ali, 2012; Gwanfogbe, 2011; Hammersmith, 2007; Katola, 2014; Mazonde, 2001; Muazrui & Levine, 1986; Ukwuoma, 2015; UNESCO (2005a,b; UNESCO 2015a; United Nations, 2008).

Another instance is Ngalim, (2014) who described Cameroon’s fifty year’s post-colonial Anniversary as “Celebrating fifty years of political and not educational sovereignty in Cameroon”. (Mosweunyane, 2013:54) further posited that:

*Education did not start only after the famous Berlin conference of 1884-1885, which was Africa’s undoing in more ways than one. As noted by Blij and Muller (2003) the colonial powers superimposed their domains in the African continent and by the time Africa regained its independence after the late 1950s, it could no longer fully regain its indigenous education. As noted by Margalit (2004) European ideas about politics were inevitably transmitted to the colonial subjects, along with science, religion, economics and literature (p. 38). The superimposition of colonial values on the African continent changed the lifestyle of Africans in many ways, which meant changes also in those things that Africans had to learn.* (Mosweunyane, 2013:54).

A likely impact of the vicissitudes and checkered history of education in Africa is the persisting unimpressive performance of continent in the Western education system when compared with the other regions of the world, and this less-than-required performance has persisted till recent years (African Development Bank Group, 2015; African Development Bank, Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development & United Nations Development Programme, 2016; Amnesty International, 2016; Humphrey, 2015; Institute for Economics and Peace, 2015; Lauwerier & Akkari, 2015; Obanya, 2005; Pigato & Tang, 2015; The Africa-America Institute, 2015a, 2015b; United Nations, 2015a; United Nations Development Programme, 2015; UNESCO, 1995; UNESCO, 2015c; United Nations High Commissioner on Refugees, 2016; World Economic Forum, 2015). Africa is plagued till this day not only in the area of education but also poor socio-economic infrastructure, poverty, disease, high level of illiteracy and out-of-school children, unemployment among school graduates, political tensions, terrorism, and huge number of refugees, among others. These have relationship with the level of educational development. From the 1990s up to as close as 2015 and much near, the available educational statistics provide glimpses into the unfavourable state of education in Africa, relatively speaking. The tables below are excerpts from such statistics.
Table 1: Past, present and projected enrolment at the primary level in Africa

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total</th>
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<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
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<td>67.5</td>
<td>86.1</td>
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<tr>
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<td>78.1</td>
<td>65.3</td>
<td>104.5</td>
<td>57.2</td>
<td>47.3</td>
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UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Africa (1995:15)

Table 2: Past, present and projected enrolment at the secondary level in Africa

<table>
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<th>Year</th>
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<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
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</table>

UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Africa (1995:18)
Table 3: Percentage distribution of enrolment by type of education at secondary level in Africa

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>1980</th>
<th>1988</th>
<th>1990</th>
<th>1992</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General education</td>
<td>86.3</td>
<td>87.0</td>
<td>88.0</td>
<td>88.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher education</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical-vocational education</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>9.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Africa (1995:18)

Table 4: Past, present and projected enrolment at the tertiary level in Africa

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>1543</td>
<td>1126</td>
<td>417</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>2470</td>
<td>17402</td>
<td>730</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>2729</td>
<td>1899</td>
<td>830</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3286</td>
<td>2181</td>
<td>1105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>3994</td>
<td>2651</td>
<td>1343</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

UNESCO Regional Office for Education in Africa (1995:19)

Tables 1-4 are UNESCO (1995) reports regarding actual and projected school enrolments in Africa from 1980-2000. At least, three key points can be observed on the tables: (a) The gross enrolment ratios across the years showed that all the candidates expected to register at the various levels could not do so. In some cases, the gross enrolment ratios even plummeted, such as having a gross enrolment ratio of 79% in 1980 for the primary school level which reduced to 71.1% in 2000 (see table 1). (b) Gender inequality in school enrolment (between boys and girls) persisted at all levels of the education system and across all the years under study. (c) At the secondary education level in Africa, over 80% of the candidates pursued General Education, while a relatively small number enrolled for teacher education and technical-vocational education. This apparent disinterest in teacher education and technical-vocational education has impacted negatively on education as a whole in Africa.
Table 5: Test scores and index of student learning in primary education in selected sub-Saharan African countries, 1996–2009.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>MLA score (MLA scale)</th>
<th>PASEC score (MLA scale)</th>
<th>SACMEQ score (MLA scale)</th>
<th>ASLI score (MLA scale)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Average scores of low-income countries:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benin, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon,</td>
<td>42.9</td>
<td>44.1</td>
<td>49.0</td>
<td>45.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chad, Guinea, Kenya, Lesotho, Malawi,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madagascar, Mozambique, Niger, Nigeria,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senegal, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe, etc</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average scores of middle-income countries:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Botswana, Gabon, Mauritius, Namibia,</td>
<td>54.7</td>
<td>60.2</td>
<td>54.4</td>
<td>54.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seychelles, South Africa, Swaziland</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average scores of sub-Saharan African</td>
<td>44.9</td>
<td>46.2</td>
<td>51.3</td>
<td>47.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>countries (Altogether)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average scores of selected North African</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>countries:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morocco</td>
<td>62.0</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td>62.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tunisia</td>
<td>69.1</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td>n.a.</td>
<td>69.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note:
MLA = Measurement of Learning Achievement.
PASEC = Program for the Analysis of Education Systems of CONFEMEN.
SACMEQ = Southern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality.
ASLI = Africa Student Learning Index.
n.a. = not applicable.
MLA tests students in grade four, PASEC in grade five, and SACMEQ in grade six.
MLA also tests in life skills, but those scores are not used here. All scores are from after 1995.
“Low-income” countries are eligible for lending from the World Bank’s International Development Association (IDA);
“Middle-income” countries are eligible for lending from the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (IBRD) of the World Bank Group.
Table 6: Countries of sub-Saharan Africa, population and illiterate adults, 2008

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Countries of sub-Saharan Africa</th>
<th>Whole population</th>
<th>Adults who are illiterate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Angola</td>
<td>16 557 050</td>
<td>32.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benin</td>
<td>8 759 653</td>
<td>59.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Botswana</td>
<td>1 858 162</td>
<td>17.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burkina Faso</td>
<td>14 358 500</td>
<td>71.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burundi</td>
<td>8 173 070</td>
<td>40.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cameroon</td>
<td>18 174 696</td>
<td>32.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cape Verde</td>
<td>518 566</td>
<td>16.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central African Republic</td>
<td>4 264 804</td>
<td>51.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chad</td>
<td>10 468 177</td>
<td>74.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comoros</td>
<td>818 434</td>
<td>24.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Congo</td>
<td>3 369 299</td>
<td>13.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Côte d’Ivoire</td>
<td>18 914 476</td>
<td>51.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Democratic Republic of Congo</td>
<td>60 643 888</td>
<td>32.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equatorial Guinea</td>
<td>495 640</td>
<td>13.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eritrea</td>
<td>4 692 115</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethiopia</td>
<td>81 020 610</td>
<td>64.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gabon</td>
<td>1 310 818</td>
<td>13.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gambia</td>
<td>1 663 032</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghana</td>
<td>23 008 442</td>
<td>35.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guinea</td>
<td>9 181 338</td>
<td>70.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guinea-Bissau</td>
<td>1 645 528</td>
<td>35.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>36 553 490</td>
<td>26.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesotho</td>
<td>1 994 888</td>
<td>17.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liberia</td>
<td>3 578 922</td>
<td>44.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5 shows level of performance of the primary school pupils across Africa classified according their countries’ level of development. It clearly shows that the less developed countries still have their pupils performing very low. Even the pupils from the relatively more developed African countries have not performed excellently. Finally, table 6 gives a cursory
look at the level of illiteracy across the continent. For instance, some countries such as Mali 76.7%, Chad 74.3%, Burkina Faso 71.3%, Guinea 70.5%, Ethiopia 64.1%, Sierra Leone 61.9%, Benin had 59%, and Senegal 57.4%.

At this junction, and to bring this discourse to a close, a few more current educational statistics could also be cited just to prove that, though significant improvements have been recorded over the years, the overall picture of education development in Africa has not been impressive. For instance, UNESCO Institute for Statistics, UIS (2018) asserts that “One in five children, adolescents and youth is out of school” and there was “no progress in reducing the out-of-school numbers.” It indicated that in the early 2000s, the global figure dropped drastically; however, from 2012 the number reduced only by slightly more than one million per year. Using its 2016 data, UIS (2018) revealed that there are 263 children out-of-school. These out-of-school figures are disaggregated on tables 7 and 8 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 7: Global out-of-school children, adolescents and youth in millions, 2000 and 2016</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper secondary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower secondary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 8: Out of school children by regions of the world, 2018</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Region</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both sexes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe and Northern America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin America and the Caribbean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Asia</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 8 shows that sub-Saharan Africa has 96.6 million out-of-school children, the highest by any region in the world. Besides the out-of-school challenge, UIS (2018) further stated that about 617 million – or six out of ten – children globally fail to attain the minimum proficiency levels for reading and mathematics. It goes further to reveal that “Sub-Saharan Africa has the single largest number – 202 million – of children and adolescents who are not learning. Across the region, nearly nine out of ten children between the ages of about 6 and 14 are not gaining minimum proficiency levels in reading and mathematics” (USI, 2018:1). This signals what Bashir, Lockheed, Ninan & Tan (2018) considered to be a learning crisis. That is not all – on the side of the teachers, UNESCO (2015b) and UIS (2018) provide figures that show that there are also crises in terms of teacher quantity and quality. The teacher gap is so much that it threatens actualization of the SDG4-Education and CESA 16-25. According to UNESCO (2015b) 3.2 million more teachers for primary education and 5.1 million more for junior secondary are needed to achieve SDG4-Education. These figures exclude teachers required to replace those retiring or leaving the service for various reasons. Indeed, even those in the school system assumed to be qualified are not actually qualified as expected. In the estimation of UIS (2016, 2018), a total of 69 million teachers are required globally for basic and secondary education to meet the demands of SDG4-Education. Africa has a huge share of this need for more qualified teachers and for retraining of the existing ones (African Union, 2017; International Labour Organisation, 2016). These ongoing crises in education - in terms of out-of-school children, gender imbalance in school enrolment, teacher education as the least preferred course by candidates, neglect of technical and vocational subjects, poor learning achievements, and severe deficit in teacher quantity and quality, among others - provides the backdrop for the implementation of the CESA 16-25 in Africa would be discussed further in the next section.

6. CESA 16-25: THE DAWN OF A NEW ERA

Having seen the persistent failure of the African continent to achieve its educational goals and targets over the years, the Continental Education Strategy for Africa (CESA) 2016-2025 presents a fresh opportunity to remedy the situation and put the continent on the path of educational development. As stated earlier in this chapter, CESA 16-25 is a medium-term response to SDG4-Education. It encapsulates what the continent is required to attain Goal 4 of
SDG which is to “Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all” by the year 2030 (United Nations, 2015b). The SDG4-Education, however, is far more complex than it ordinarily seems and entails many targets and actions (Khan, 2016; UNESCO, 2015a,b,c,d, 2017; UNESCO Education 2030 Support and Coordination & Partnerships, Cooperation and Research, 2016). Also, as mentioned earlier in this chapter, all the other SDGs hinge directly and indirectly on the achievements of SDG4-Education (UNESCO, 2015b, 2017). Going down memory lane, it is clear that the SDGs and CESA are the peak of the consistent efforts by the international community to get education right, over the years. The crescendo began in 1990 with the World Conference on Education held in Jomtien, Thailand enunciating the “Education for All” (UNESCO, 1995) obligation upon all nations of the world. The World Education Forum was held in Dakar, Senegal by 2000, described by the United Nations as the “first and most important event in education at the dawn of the new century” and “demonstrated a collective commitment to action to achieve the goals and targets of Education for All by 2015” (United Nations, 2019). The United Nations Millennium Summit in 2000 further created the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) for the year 2015, and MDG2 was to achieve universal primary education (United Nations, 2000). The salient features of the international education goals over the years are illustrated in table 9 below.

Table 9: Global education agendas compared: MDG2, EFA and SDG4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Global Education Agendas</th>
<th>MDG2</th>
<th>EFA</th>
<th>SDG4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Scope</strong></td>
<td>Primary Education [children]</td>
<td>Basic Education [children, youth &amp; adults]</td>
<td>Basic Education; Post Basic Education &amp; Training; Lifelong perspective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Geographical coverage</strong></td>
<td>Low-income Countries, Conflict-affected</td>
<td>While universal in intention, in practice it focused on lower-income countries</td>
<td>Universal agenda for all countries regardless of income level and/or development status</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Policy focus</strong></td>
<td>Access to and completion of primary education for all</td>
<td>Access to quality basic education for all</td>
<td>Access to quality basic education for all; + Equitable access to postbasic education &amp; training; + Relevance of learning for both work and ‘global citizenship’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: UNESCO (2017:10)
As reiterated in the last section of this chapter, the outcomes of these series of goals by the global community fell short of expectations, especially for Africa (Majgaard & Mingat, 2012; UNESCO, 2015c). UNESCO was very clear on this when it asserted, thus:

_Education for All 2000-2015: no countries in sub-Saharan Africa reached global education goals:_

Globally, just one third of countries have achieved all of the measurable Education for All (EFA) goals set in 2000. None achieved them in sub-Saharan Africa, and only seven countries in the region achieved even the most watched goal of universal primary enrolment. Sixteen of the twenty lowest ranked countries in progress towards ‘Education for All’ are in sub-Saharan Africa. An extra $22 billion a year is needed on top of already ambitious global government contributions to ensure that the new global education targets being set for the year 2030 are achieved. (UNESCO, 2015c:1)

Consequently, CESA 16-25 has emerged at the continent’s antidote to its gloomy past in education. Box 2 below provides the CESA twelve strategic objectives which is guiding the unfolding efforts to regenerate the education system in Africa. These objectives cover all the key aspects that are overarching and fundamental in order to attain the SDG4-Education in Africa. For the sake of administrative effectiveness, the African Union has delineated the CESA strategic objectives into over fourteen Clusters. These will enable stakeholders throughout the continent to operate within the Clusters that best interest them and where their expertise is most needed. This Book is divided into fifteen parts, according to the Clusters which includes Teacher Development; Information Communication and Technology in Education; Science, Technology and Mathematics Education; Women and Girls/Gender; Higher Education; Education Planning; and Education Financing. Others are Curriculum Development; School Feeding; Peace Education; Culture of Reading; Technical and Vocational Education and Training; Life Skills and Early Childhood Care and Education. The more than forty chapters across the fifteen parts of the book will no doubt provide great insight into what CESA is all about, the triumphs, challenges and the way forward.

**Box 2: The twelve CESA strategic objectives**

1. Revitalize the teaching profession to ensure quality and relevance at all levels of education.
2. Build, rehabilitate, preserve education infrastructure and develop policies that ensure a permanent, healthy and conducive learning environment in all sub-sectors and for all, so as to expand access to quality education.
3. Harness the capacity of ICT to improve access, quality and management of education and training systems.
4. Ensure acquisition of requisite knowledge and skills as well as improved completion rates at all levels and groups through harmonization processes across all levels for national and regional integration.
5. Accelerate processes leading to gender parity and equity.
6. Launch comprehensive and effective literacy programmes across the continent to eradicate the scourge of illiteracy.
7. Strengthen the science and math curricula in youth training and disseminate scientific knowledge and culture in society.
8. Expand TVET opportunities at both secondary and tertiary levels and strengthen linkages between the world of work and education and training systems.
9. Revitalize and expand tertiary education, research and innovation to address continental challenges and promote global competitiveness.
10. Promote peace education and conflict prevention and resolution at all levels of education and for all age groups.
11. Improve management of education system as well build and enhance capacity for data collection, management, analysis, communication, and use.
12. Set up a coalition of stakeholders to facilitate and support activities resulting from the implementation of CESA 16-25.


6. CONCLUSION

The chapter has gleaned the trajectories of education in the past centuries and these have provided the environment and outcome of education in the present day. It has rehearsed the distortion of the indigenous African cultures by slave trade, penetration of Islamic religion, and ultimately, colonialism. Each of these epochs shook the foundation of the cultures and the fabrics of society. The polity, economy, religion, family system and general lifestyle got reorganized, and along with it, the indigenous education system. Today, Africa seems to be a battle ground for the various systems of education – indigenous, Islamic and Western. The outcome of this has not been satisfactory as the continent is unable to meet its obligations regarding the delivery of the various international goals and targets. Indeed, the indigenous politicians and government which took over power at the end of the colonial rule have not relented in giving the education system a push forward. This has come mostly in form of reforms after reforms and investment of a significant portion of the scarce financial resources. However, more is needed to be done.

In order to respond to the latest international education goal (SDG4), the African Union has creatively introduced the CESA to serve as framework for the medium-term responses to SDG4. This framework called CESA is the focus of this book and this chapter only attempt to put in perspective in the struggles towards a better educational outcome in Africa. The success of the continent, especially in education, is very critical to the whole world. Caerus Capital LLC (2019) puts it: “Whether or not we live in Africa, all of our futures will be affected by the success or failure of education on the continent.” Africa is important in the world order not only because of its teeming population but also for its economic potentials. It is also important that political stability, peace and economic prosperity in the continent will add immeasurable degree of peace and prosperity to the world. Hopefully, the implementation of CESA will help the continent to transform its educational system.

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PART 2
TEACHER DEVELOPMENT
2.1

AFRICAN TEACHERS WE WANT: TOWARDS A CONTINENTAL TEACHER MOBILITY FRAMEWORK FOR AFRICA

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ABSTRACT
The Continental Teacher Mobility Protocol stands out as an important milestone for organised teacher movement across the African Continent. The Protocol aims to deal with bi- and multilateral, regular, deliberate, and organized mobility movements in the spirit of sharing human resources where surplus of teachers has been identified. The Protocol further aims to promote teaching professionalism by providing the guiding principles such as roles of the teaching regulatory authorities, continental teacher qualification frameworks and professional standards for teachers. Within the context of the African Union, principles of co-operation and consensus, and within the framework of relevant international and other agreements, the Protocol will also contribute to positive mobility as an element of free movement. In doing so, the protocol seeks to: (1) safeguard and promote the rights and conditions of migrant teachers and education systems in the sending and the receiving countries; (2) promote the sharing and positive benefits which migrant teachers can bring to the sending and the receiving countries within Africa; and (3) subscribe and implement the Protocol maintaining the integrity of national education policies. This chapter outlines the thinking behind the proposed Protocol, its current status, as well as its potential future impact to develop the African teachers we want.

Keywords: Continental, Protocol, Supply and Demand, & Teacher Mobility.

INTRODUCTION
The sharing of teachers as a resource remains a key factor in tackling teacher shortage in the African continent. This ability to share teachers is highly dependent on the ability of African teachers to migrate freely within the continents and would support countries struggling to educate its population and improve the quality of education, teaching and teachers. The rapid
increase of international migration and the associated complexities have made the phenomenon a global priority in relation to international developmental goals. Africa is no different. Our chapter explores an African response to this problem through the development of a Continental Teacher Mobility Protocol (referred to henceforth as the Protocol) (AUC 2019); a response that embraces new solutions made possible through technology only available in the last few years. In this section we set the context wherein the Protocol has been developed.

The African Union (AU) Agenda 2063 (AUC 2015) envisions an integrated, peaceful, prosperous Africa driven by its own citizens, representing a dynamic force in the global arena. This people centred vision presumes that Africans will be appropriately educated, adequately skilled and with desirable values and attitudes for responsible citizenship; highly innovative with entrepreneurial mindsets able to harness opportunities for wealth creation and sustainable development. In this aspiration, education and training is key; and the teacher is at the core of ensuring quality education. It is therefore necessary for Africa to optimise production and development of the teaching corps, while making the most of available resources.

Teachers and teacher development are at the centre and remain Africa’s biggest resource to domesticating and achieving the AU Agenda 2063, Continental Education Strategy for Africa (CESA) 2016-2025 (AUC 2016), United Nations (UN) Sustainable Development Goal 4- Quality Education and the Education 2030 agenda. These goals cannot be achieved without concrete investments in teacher training and development across the continent. However, the continent is currently faced with a huge shortage of teachers. According to UNESCO (UIS 2016), Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) faces acute teacher shortage as the region needs about 6.3 million primary teachers for teachers for primary school (to fill new posts and replace teachers expected to leave) and 10.8 million (7.1 million for new teaching positions and 3.7 million to replace those who have left) must be recruited for secondary schools by 2030. This brings to total shortfall of teachers needed in SSA to 17 million if we are to achieve universal primary and secondary education by 2030.

On the African continent, the Migration Policy Framework for Africa (AU 2006, revised 2017), and the African Common Position on Migration and Development (AU 2016b), both initially published in 2006, offers a broad framework wherein which national, regional and continental migration has been managed and monitored. Within the parameters of social, economic and political development, the international migration intricacies require innovative frameworks and polices that allows evaluation of the real causes, impacts and sustainable solutions, particularly by building synergies between development and migration policies' (United Nations Conference on Trade and Development [UNCTAD], 2018: i). This has led to bilateral agreements between countries for the mobility of teachers and the sharing of teachers as a resource in Africa. Rwanda for instance, established a Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) with Kenya, for the supply of Mathematics, Science, Technical and English language teachers from Kenya. Rwanda also signed agreements with Ugandan Ministry of Education and Sports as well as the Education Service Commission of Uganda to provide training for its teachers (Commonwealth Secretariat and UNESCO IICBA, 2012). The Rwanda-Kenya experience is a reflection of the ongoing bilateral agreements for teacher mobility to address teacher shortage, but on the continental level there is no afro-centric framework that accommodates all African member states and supports the mobility of teachers on the continent.

The Second Decade of Education for Africa (2006-2015) Plan of Action, in addressing the issue of chronic shortage of competent and qualified teachers in Africa, makes reference to the need for emphasis on the mobility of teachers in Africa. The plan of action further recommends
an African arrangement, that is similar to the Commonwealth Teacher Recruitment Protocol (CTRP) that was adopted as early as 2004 (Commonwealth Secretariat), to support the movement of teachers in Africa and bilateral cooperation between African states for the training of teachers. The main aim of the CTRP (2004: 7) has been to:

…balance the rights of teachers to migrate internationally, on a temporary or permanent basis, against the need to protect the integrity of national education systems, and prevent the exploitation of scarce human resources in developing or low-income countries and also safeguard the rights of recruited teachers and conditions relating to their service in the recruiting country.

The need for coordinated teacher mobility in an African context was further emphasised by the study on Teacher Training, Working and Living Conditions (African Union 2017), that recommended a continental teacher mobility protocol managed by the African Union with a view to set up a ‘teachers without borders’ force at the regional and continental level. Collectively, this wide range of African policy instruments, supported by empirical research, have provided the impetus for the Continental Teacher Mobility Protocol (AUC 2018). Importantly, the Protocol takes its cue from the CTRP, as mentioned above, but has been developed with a uniquely African focus, and critically, also a 21st century understanding of the use of technology to realise the Protocol in a form that was not possible when the same work was underway in the Commonwealth. Our chapter provides a brief overview of the draft Protocol that was developed between 2016 and 2018, and at the time of the writing of this chapter, was finding its way through the African Union approval and consultation apparatus.

THE CONTINENTAL TEACHER MOBILITY PROTOCOL
The Protocol, supported by the AU Continental Free Trade Area (CFTA), aims to ensure the orderly and organized mobility of teachers in Africa with emphasis on the rights and duties of home and sending countries, as well as the rights and duties of the teachers, addressing issues of demand and supply of teachers. The Protocol, in its current form, aims to facilitate the sharing of teachers, primarily on an intra-African basis, but not excluding international migration, from surplus to scarce situations with an emphasis on protecting and sustaining the quality and integrity of education systems in Africa (AUC 2018). This section of our chapter provides a high-level summary of the Protocol in its current draft form.

The specific objectives of the Protocol are envisaged as to (Keevy, Kimathi and Adotevi, 2019, adapted from AU 2018):

- Provide a framework for the managed mobility of the teaching corps across African Countries. In particular, the Protocol aims to facilitate teacher mobility from surplus to scarce situations on an intra-African basis, with an emphasis on protecting and sustaining the quality and integrity of education systems in Africa.
- Protect the rights of teachers to migrate internationally, on a temporary or permanent basis, and in particular, to prevent the exploitation of this scarce human resource in both sending and receiving countries. While the application of the Protocol is envisaged mainly within Africa, it is also a normative instrument to be considered when teachers migrate out of, and into, Africa.

The Protocol has been designed to put in place an effective monitoring and evaluation (M&E) framework for teacher supply and demand in Africa. It is envisaged that the ATWW platform will be used as the interface between domestic information management systems, M&E frameworks, host and source countries, regulatory bodies, private recruitment agencies and
most importantly, individual migrant teachers. While the application of the Protocol is envisaged mainly within Africa (intra-African), it is also a normative instrument to be considered when teachers migrate out of, and into, Africa.

The Protocol is structured in the main around the roles, rights and responsibilities of key actors and beneficiaries: the AUC, migrant teacher, source countries, host countries, teacher regulatory authorities, regional economic communities (RECs), African Federation of Teaching Regulatory Authorities (AFTRA), private recruitment agencies, as well as other entities that include Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs), teacher unions, private schools, private training institutes and international agencies (Keevy, Kimathi and Adotevi, 2019).

The Protocol was developed through a consultative process informed by research. This process involved many regional and international roleplayers and contributors, and was championed by the International Institute for Capacity Building in Africa (IICBA) based in Addis Ababa. The authors of this chapter range from ICCBA (Okwaraogoma and Diop), the researchers from JET Education Services involved in the development of the Protocol (Keevy, Kimathi and Adotevi) and who was also closely involved in several activities linked to the CTRP, and one of the peer reviewers (Penson) formerly from the Norwegian Refugee Council. We acknowledge the contributions of many of our colleagues during this process, including researchers and representatives from other international agencies.

In the next section, Penson provides a critical reflection drawing from his own vast experience in this area, and also his involvement as a reviewer during the development of the Protocol.

THE PROTOCOL AS A POLICY TOOL TO MANAGE MIGRATION ACROSS AFRICA

Teacher mobility protocols may have provided an effective framework for the ethical recruitment of teachers across borders, but none has yet to explicitly address the issue of teachers forced to migrate. This is a surprising omission, given that teachers who are displaced are among the most vulnerable of migrant teachers. Protocols have instead implicitly assumed that teachers make the decision to migrate according to a balance of ‘push’ and ‘pull’ factors: when these outweigh reasons to remain, teachers make the rational choice to move where opportunities and benefits are greater. Faced with conflict, insecurity, oppression, or food and livelihood insecurity, however, teachers, along with the general population, may have no real choice but to migrate. This often exposes them to significant personal, emotional and psychological risks, as well as risks to their professional status and ability to provide for themselves.

The lack of recognition of the needs of teachers forced to migrate is also surprising given the sheer number of them. UNHCR (2018) notes that Africa hosts 24.2 million persons of concern, and that that figure is rising. Of these, 6.4 million are refugees. Close to 60 per cent of that population is under 18, and in need of schooling – and therefore teachers. These teachers need to be included in teacher management policy and practice. This is especially so given the shift in refugee strategy from de facto UN management to integration of refugees within national service delivery mechanisms represented by the Global Compact on Refugees (UN, 2018).

It has long been recognised that refugee teachers should therefore be explicitly included in mobility protocols. There have been few specific initiatives exploring the best way to do this, however. One such was the 2011 Commonwealth Research Symposium on Teacher Mobility, Recruitment and Migration. This focused on adapting the learning from the Commonwealth
Teacher Recruitment Protocol to situations where emergencies were more prevalent (Penson, Yonemura, Sesnan, Ochs and Chanda 2011). Recognising that conflict and other emergencies are issues that continue to affect a significant proportion of countries in Africa (as well as elsewhere), and that climate change is likely to increase the numbers forced to migrate, the African Continental Teacher Mobility Protocol explicitly addresses displaced teachers. Although the ACTMP mainly addresses refugees (those crossing an international border), many of these concerns also affect internally displaced persons, and returning refugees.

The Protocol attempts to address three concerns: policy, professional and personal. The policy concern starts from the basis that international law provides refugees with the right to work in the host country on the same basis as other foreigners. However, often refugee teachers are not able to realise this right. Host countries may have ‘encampment’ policies in place that prohibit refugees from leaving designated areas or engaging in paid employment. To resolve this, non-governmental organisations that provide education services in camps sometimes recruit teachers from the refugee communities, providing them with incentives rather than salaries. These incentives are usually lower than the remuneration packages received by national teachers. In addition, because NGOs rely on short-term, project-based humanitarian funding, refugee teachers are often on insecure contracts. These factors increase refugee teachers’ vulnerabilities, while at the same time increasing their dependency on volatile and unpredictable aid.

These vulnerabilities need to be addressed in policy – and many countries are making strides in that direction – but there are also less obvious, day-to-day barriers to the protection of refugee teachers’ rights (Richardson, MacEwan and Naylor 2018). The host country may not recognise refugee teachers’ qualifications. There may be direct or indirect discrimination against refugees – or against certain groups of refugees – in recruitment. Refugee teachers may face higher barriers to promotion, due to discrimination. And language barriers should not be underestimated. Conversely, where a host country does provide a refugee teacher with a qualification, that qualification may not be recognised in the refugee’s home country, stymying return.

Given these vulnerabilities, it is no surprise that many refugee teachers seek alternative occupations – often with NGOs – where they can. This raises the second concern: professional. Qualified and experienced teachers tend to be less available in refugee situations, creating a shortage of teachers for refugee students (Sesnan, Allemano, Ndugga and Said 2013). Not only does this deprive refugee learners of teachers, increasing pupil-teacher ratios, but it has other significant knock-on effects on access and quality. National teachers may not speak the language of refugee learners, making learning difficult, or necessitating the use of mother tongue-speaking classroom assistants. This increases costs while at the same time slowing instruction. Some refugee learners may be reluctant to attend school in a language they do not understand, reducing enrolment and retention. Sometimes, unqualified, inexperienced teachers are drawn from the refugee community to replace the qualified ones who have found jobs elsewhere. Faced with funding constraints, and short-term funding cycles, NGOs struggle to provide the long-term, classroom-based support these teachers need in order to be effective. Instead, the sector tends to provide workshop-based, cascade models of teacher professional development, which have limited effectiveness. This results in reduced learning outcomes (Burns and Lawrie 2015).

The third concern is more personal. Just as displaced learners generally have higher protection needs, so too are refugee teachers in need of greater protection during the period of
displacement. They tend to be more vulnerable to exploitation and abuse, and have fewer resources (material, social, economic and political) available to them than they would have had prior to displacement. It is often recognised that learners have greater need of psychosocial support in emergencies; teachers are often expected to provide this psychosocial support. Learners may have been subject to or witnessed traumatic events, and being in a foreign place without clear routines or a sense of future prospects has an impact on personal well-being. Psychosocial support is rarely offered to teachers, however, even though these things also affect them. This is even though teachers need not only training in psychosocial support, but also to have physical, social, emotional and cognitive well-being themselves in order to offer effective and appropriate support to their learners.

At the heart of the Protocol is the recognition that refugees should have the right to work, and that this can benefit host country and refugee populations as much as regular migration. Inherent in this is the recognition that refugees are entitled to at least the same treatment accorded to other non-nationals. The Protocol therefore explicitly promotes the protection and fair treatment of teachers who are refugees or asylum seekers and who are particularly vulnerable to exploitation. It also encourages African Union Member States to enact policies and strategies that seek to include teachers who are refugees or asylum seekers into national education systems as early as possible and ensure that they are not discriminated against. The Protocol thereby provides a policy framework for the legal integration of refugees, helping to address some of the legal concerns facing refugee teachers.

The Protocol further envisages that refugee teacher management be integrated within the African Teacher We Want platform. Together with movements towards greater international recognition of teaching qualifications, based on emerging equivalence and comparability frameworks, this should provide refugee teachers with a more predictable, long-term, and fair employment environment. In particular, speedy recognition of qualifications, supported by appropriate teacher professional development (where necessary) to align a teacher’s skills and knowledge to the host country curriculum and enable them to master the language of instruction, will enable teachers to access better, longer-term jobs to support themselves while displaced, and facilitate return when the time comes. The platform should also make the job of education in emergencies managers easier, by providing access to a pool of qualified and experienced teachers who can be deployed quickly, according to previously agreed standards. It should also help cross-border programming – of particular importance when refugees are returning.

Together, these first two initiatives should help mitigate the third concern, that of a refugee teacher’s personal well-being. Teacher mobility should be voluntary and fully informed, but where teachers have been forced to migrate by conflict, natural disaster or any other emergency, and are either internally or internationally displaced, such teachers should benefit fully from the Protocol. Having their professionalism respected, their skills utilised, and their knowledge recognised would help teachers as much as teachers would help the education system. Besides the financial benefits of reliable pay commensurate with national pay scales, increasing the predictability and rewards of teaching can also aid a teacher’s recovery from trauma. But displaced teachers also need to be provided with psychosocial support necessary to overcome difficulties they may have experienced, and to help them to cope with demanding living and working conditions.
CONCLUDING COMMENTS

The Protocol has the potential to contribute to improving the status of the teaching profession, the development of reliable national, regional, and possibly even continental teacher management information systems, continental teacher professional standards, qualification frameworks and addressing many of the priorities outlined in CESA 16-25. While it will not be a ‘silver bullet’ that will solve all challenges related to teacher supply and demand in Africa, it undoubtedly sets a new standard in how Africa will approach a problem that has largely been intractable to date.

As the draft Protocol finds its way through the AUC processes in 2019 and 2020, we strongly encourage that a few pilots be undertaken to test the veracity of its design. Such findings can feed into the approval process and further bolster the Protocol. In this regard, we suggest that source countries already supplying teachers to countries on the Continent be included, notably Kenya, Egypt and Senegal.

We encourage governments in Africa to engage meaningfully with the Protocol; to embrace the technology it has integrated in its ‘future proof’ design; and critically, we call on the broader teacher ecosystem in Africa to work with us as we work towards the thoughtful and evidence-based implementation of an African solution for an African challenge. Most importantly, we call on migrant and refugee teachers to demand access to, be informed about, and take ownership for knowing and understanding the benefits of the Protocol, their rights to migrate internationally to not be discriminated against for doing so.

Lastly, we implore migrant teachers to also take up their responsibilities to act professionally and accountably in all their dealings with authorities in both source and host countries; and to inform the relevant authorities in the source and host countries when they migrate internationally with the specific purpose of taking up a teaching position in the host country. Become the champions of this Protocol as you become the African teacher we want.

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MENTORING THE NEWLY EMPLOYED SCIENCE TEACHERS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS FOR EFFECTIVE SERVICE DELIVERY

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ABSTRACT
The gains of mentoring programmes are substantial for both newly employed science teacher and mentor teachers. This has important implications for professional development of mentor and mentee. It is a veritable decision to be made by schools, education departments, universities and school management. The key players in schools, especially the principals need to have an understanding of the gains of mentoring in the school/educational system and that creating a structure that allows inexperienced mentee science teachers to work with expert mentor science teacher teachers, will ultimately benefit the students of both mentee and mentor teachers and the school community at large.

Keywords: Effectiveness, Mentoring, Newly Employed, Science & Science Teachers.

INTRODUCTION
The primal role of science teaching to every nation cannot be overemphasized. From the developed nations, to the developing and down to the underdeveloped, science is critically needed for stability of such nation. In fact, the extent of the scientific level of the citizenry of any nation makes her developed, developing or underdeveloped. Nigeria, as a nation that is developing cannot but do without a proper repositioning in her scientific endeavour, especially her science education.

However, the extent of science practice and science teaching in any nation rests solely on her science teacher. They must be well groomed and coached to effectively deliver on their duties as moulders of the nation’s scientifically inclined citizenry. This duty, the science teacher will
fail, if he is not well grounded for such a herculean task. This is the basis for mentoring of newly employed science teachers in secondary schools for effective service delivery. A walk along previous findings show that science teaching and learning in Nigeria (especially in the secondary schools) is far from reaching her height. Festus and Ekpete (2012) has noted that science have become the hallmark for sustainable development in any national economy but cannot strive ahead without the science subjects like Biology, Chemistry and Physics. These subjects’ teachers must be well repositioned for effective service delivery of their endowed duties – science teachers.

Unfortunately, as noted by Ali, Toriman and Gasim (2014), Biology, Chemistry and Physics, being the basis for every science of a nation have been known to continuously record low students’ enrolment, interest and poor achievement levels in all examinations – both internal and external. In their words, this “has come a persisted public outcry as regards the falling standard of science education” (Ali, Toriman and Gasim, 2014, p. 3). This status cannot be completely divorced from the competency of teachers in these science subjects.

In another consideration, the investigation of students’ attitudes towards studying science has been a substantive feature of the work of the science education research community for the past 30-40 years (Osborne, Simon and Collins in Trumper 2006, p. 1,2). The importance of this investigation is stressed by a persistent decline in post-compulsory high school science enrolment over the last two decades. Students’ increasing reluctance to choose science courses in their final years of secondary education has serious adverse implications for the health of scientific endeavour, but also for the scientific literacy of future generations. The endorsement of positive attitudes to science, scientists, and learning science, which has always been a constituent of science education, is increasingly a subject of concern (Trumper, 2006). While this is a growing concern, one cannot completely deny the primal role of science teachers in this decline.

From the foregoing, the significance of science to the quest of the Nigerian state to be among the science inclined nations of the world is at stake. This quest is expected to bring her to limelight among the advanced nations of the world, but this cannot be the case without a repositioned science citizenry. A scientific citizenry is primarily the product of the science teachers in the secondary schools. It is therefore glaring that while this desire for recognition is quite momentous and critical for every nation, including Nigeria, no nation can reach that height without a repositioned science, technology and industrialization. Suffice it to say that information and communication technologies (which is the brain child of science and technology) enable man as well as nations to timely and efficiently increase their speed of operation, interact in flexible ways, utilize their potentials to become innovative and creative and hence, raise a scientific citizenry (Nwafor and Oka, 2016). The basis of this virile science and technological base depends on three key subjects in the secondary schools – Biology, Chemistry and Physics. The success of the teaching of these key subjects rest on the shoulders of science teachers in South East, Nigeria and the world over.

It is noteworthy that there is a continual injection of new science teachers into the teaching profession, but how well these new teachers will effectively deliver on their duties and make scientific impressions in the minds of the young leaners is another issue of concern. It is therefore on this course that there is the need for schools urgently map out strategies for mentoring of these newly employed science teachers for effective service delivery in the secondary schools. As argued by CIMA (2008), mentoring relates primarily to the
Identification, encouraging and nurturing of potential for the whole person; it can be a long-term relationship, where the goals may change but are always set by the learner (newly employed science teacher). The learner owns both the goals and the process. Feedback comes from within the mentee – the mentor helps them to develop insight and understanding through intrinsic observation, that is, becoming more aware of their own experiences. In this wise, the teaching profession becomes more like a family reunion and less like a workplace. Mentoring is encouraged for a repositioned educational venture.

Research has indicated that although no particular programme or model can be considered more successful than others, however, successful mentoring programmes do have some common characteristics. Daresh (2003, in Nest, 2015) show that mentoring has the following characteristics:

1. It is a powerful device that will help teachers develop new insights into the profession. This is true for experienced or new teachers.
2. It reduces isolation and can build a collegial network among professional colleagues like teachers.
3. It helps move the novice teacher from a level of mere survival to initial success when used with beginning teachers. To experienced teachers, mentoring can be a way for professionals to develop a sense of renewed enthusiasm for their jobs and enhanced commitment for the profession of education.

MENTORING IN TEACHING

Mentoring is the process of taking someone from an undesired point of ineffectiveness to a desired point for effectiveness. The Encarta Dictionary (2008) defines mentoring as someone serving as a guide, counsellor, and teacher for another person, usually in an academic or occupational capacity. They argued that the word originally was applied in Greek mythology. It was applied in the situation where the elderly friend of the hero Odysseus became both a counsellor to Odysseus and a tutor or mentor of his son Telemachus. Additionally, in the Odyssey of Homer, the goddess Athena frequently assumes the form of Mentor when she appears to Odysseus or Telemachus. This character became the basis for the modern use of the word mentor. Accordingly, in modern English the tutor's name has become an eponym for a wise, trustworthy counsellor or teacher. Additionally, as noted by Encyclopaedia Britannica (2014), François de Salignac de la Mothe-Fénelon's Les Aventures de Télémaque (of 1699), which set the fashion for novels and stories about the education of princes or heroes, is about the trials of Telemachus, who is guided by Athena disguised as Mentor. In this fashion, Athena, the goddess as well as the character “Tutor” became the basis for the application of the mentoring in the modern usage.

Generally, modern usage of the mentoring has been given many definitions and explanations by a host of scholars. Richard (2012) showed that mentoring is a one-on-one relationship between a youth and an older, established person, built up over a period of time for the purposes of providing consistent support, guidance and concrete help as the younger person goes through challenging or difficult periods of life or of a profession. In this reasoning, the older science teacher serves as the experienced one who mentors the newly employed science teacher to raise productivity. A school-based mentoring occurs when an older science teacher willingly invests time in the development of a younger or newly employed science teacher in order to raise educational attainment. Ann (2002) defines mentoring as an interaction with another person that catalyses the process of cognition and enable one to achieve more than one could achieve alone within a given period. That is the goal of mentoring – to raise achievement. Mentoring
is a power free, two – way mutually beneficial learning situation where the mentor provides advice, shares knowledge and experiences, and guides another unto discovery of self and accruing productivity.

The quality of the teacher is first determined by his paper qualification, however, certificates have been known to give more “promises” to the educational handlers. Therefore, while paper qualification must serve as the basis for enrolling any teacher into the teaching profession, the pedagogical standard he/she exhibits through experience on the job and demonstrated ability to raise students’ learning must also be of a serious concern to educational handlers. It been earlier noted by Wayne and Young (2003) that teachers’ quality is critical to students’ learning and achievement. Good teachers are those that have a combination of personal attributes, qualification and experience which stand them out for effectiveness. The development of a mentoring relationship between experienced teacher and the newly employed one reinforces confidence in ability to overall growth of the health of science teaching in the south east and Nigeria at large. However, this cannot be the case or seen to be the case without a proper mentoring scheme of the newly employed teachers in the teaching profession.

The importance of benefits to the overall person, school and goal of education makes a critically issue that should not be neglected. Mentoring brings about a total refinement of the new teacher in such a manner that such gets repositioned for the work challenges ahead and a for a successful career life of the newly employed teachers. As presented in the chart below, mentoring is the life-wire of the school’s success.

Fig. 1: Holistic impact of mentoring practice
Source: www.nursing.ucalgary.ca

Mentoring breeds a line of benefits for the newly employed science teacher (mentee), the experienced science teacher (mentee), school, education and the society at large. The following are some of these benefits as stated by CIMA (2008), United States Office of Personnel Management (2008), University of Wolverhampton Business School (2009/10):
Benefits of Mentoring for the Mentor

- Renews their enthusiasm for the role of expert;
- Obtains a greater understanding of the barriers experienced at lower levels of the organization;
- Enhances skills in coaching, counselling, listening, and modelling;
- Develops and practices a more personal style of leadership;
- Demonstrates expertise and shares knowledge, and;
- Increases generational awareness.
- The satisfaction of knowing that they have made a difference to someone else
- The intellectual challenge of working on issues that they do not have direct personal responsibility and that may take them into unfamiliar territory
- An increased skills base and reputation
- A chance for them to re-assess their own views and leadership style
- A chance to discover and work with the talent of the future
- By explaining best practice concepts to others, may help to reinforce them once more for themselves
- An opportunity to share their knowledge, skills and experience
- A chance to challenge and be challenged – mutuality
- Learning new ways to develop others; an integral part of the Managers job

Benefits of Mentoring for the Mentee (Newly Employed Science Teacher)

As a result of having a mentor, the newly employed science teacher:

- Makes a smoother transition into the science-teacher-workforce;
- Furthers his/her development as a professional;
- Gains the capacity to translate values and strategies (learnt theoretically in the school) into productive actions;
- Complements ongoing formal study and/or training and development activities;
- Gains some career development opportunities from mentors;
- Develops new and/or different perspectives about students, fellow teachers and the etching profession;
- Gets assistance with ideas relevant for effective teaching;
- Demonstrates strengths and explores potential, and;
- Increases career networks and receives greater agency exposure.
- Improves competency for effective career in teaching.
The benefits for the school / organisation

- **Easier recruitment and induction of teachers:** Mentoring help new recruits to become accustomed to the work environment more easily. New science teachers become settled more quickly and therefore more productive within a short time.

- **Improved employee motivation:** This is critical for school activities and for students’ achievement.

- **Management of the school’s corporate culture/professional ethics:** Mentoring enables the entire school to have a cooperate culture and stick to it. It also guarantees a better adherence to the ethics of the teaching profession.

- **Improved communications among co-teachers:** Open communication channels, encourage team work and productivity.

- **Staff retention:** Mentoring helps to keep good people, to maintain competitive advantage and for overall wellbeing of the school community.

In light of the foregoing, mentorship remains a tool for developing the pedagogical and content knowledge of newly employed science teachers (Nest, 2012). Accordingly, Nest argued that mentoring plays an important role of continuous professional development programmes in the improvement of the newly employed teachers’ classroom practices and by inference and extension, their learners’ achievements (2012).

**MENTORING AND SCIENCE TEACHER CAREER STAGES**
The teacher of science and in extension, every other teacher passes through certain levels or stages in his career as a teacher. Each of this stage is characterised by special attributes. However, the early stage of the science teacher’s professional life tends to be of great challenge to young teachers. Accordingly, Huberman (2001, in Nest, 2012) argues that teachers’ career stages influence their attitudes and beliefs. The early stages being the great determinant the total career of the science teacher, it is there most important to guide such at the early stage. Huberman (2001 in Nest, 2012) defines and identifies five stages of teachers’ career development from the beginning to their retirement. Every stage being integrated to each other, and the first being the pivot. These career stages are hereunder briefly discussed:

**Career Entry Stage (1-3 years in the profession)**
In this stage, the newly employed science teachers try to survive and discover their profession. Like a toddler, the new world around is a bundle of confusion and difficult to be understood without a guide, so it is with a newly employed teacher in the teaching profession. It is at this very critical stage that rigorous mentoring is every essential in career development. A mishap in this stage will continue to resonate in the life of professional life of the teacher until retirement. Such needs a guide to bring about perfection in the teaching profession.

**Stabilisation Stage (4-6 years in the profession)**
The science teacher, in this stage show their commitment to the profession by both improved teaching, interest in professional bodies and repositioned teaching approaches. This stage will be most effective in the teacher’s professional life of the teacher if he has had a rewarding influence from mentor at the early stage, otherwise, the gains of this period may be less than expected if the early stage was mismanaged. The science teacher needs a little mentoring at this stage to help him stay on track. The mentoring in this stage is far from early stage. In this
stage, mentor should assume more the role of a trusted counsellor and confidant to the mentee (the new science teacher).

**Divergent Stage (8-18 years in the profession)**
In this professional stage of the science teacher, the teacher is now stable and at home in teaching. He learns about himself and develop new methods of teaching. At this stage, he is no longer a newly employed person. He learns also the need to be a mentor to another person, who becomes a greater challenge for him to improve more on self in order to assist the incoming newly employed. In this professional stage, he still has trusted counsellors who are now older but serve more on the capacity of trusted comrades in the profession. The teacher at this stage must also become a good mentor to another newly employed science teacher.

**Second Divergent Stage (19-30 years in the profession)**
This is a tempting period in the teaching profession. As Nest pointed out that some teachers relax in this stage; they assess themselves; assess others; criticise the system, administration, colleagues, etc. A proper early mentoring stage would have taken care of the abnormalities in this stage. A mentored teacher will now see challenges and think of best ways to solve them in his friendly atmosphere while a badly mentored or un-mentored teacher will now be a bane to the profession. This calls for proper mentoring at the early stage to forestall this later development.

**Disengagement (up to 50 years of experience)**
At this professional stage, teachers gradually separate from their profession. As Hien puts it, some other teachers find it a time of bitterness (2009, in Nest, 2012), while others see it as a time of rest after a long meritorious service to humanity – the former applies to teachers who were not mentored in their early professional stage while the latter applies more to the mentored teachers at the early stage, they have come to see the teaching, not just in the light of employment, but as a life time serve that contributes meaningfully to the development of the young minds, the families, the society and the nation at large. In fact, at this stage of profession, children who were once students to them have become more like friends in the society and fellow comrades in the teaching profession.

Mentoring is therefore a necessary tool for both developing the career life of the new teaching and sustaining such interest of the profession until retirement and death. There comes the need for a repositioned mentoring in the career development of the science teachers to bring about effective service delivery that will be both beneficial to the learner, teacher, community and the nation.

**CHALLENGES OF THE NEWLY EMPLOYED SCIENCE TEACHER: THE NEED FOR MENTORING**
The contemporary teaching profession is one with lots of peculiarities that actually make it so distinct from the years past. The quality of the teacher must be much better than that of the previous centuries if the teacher must make indelible inputs in the life of the learners of today. The contemporary teaching environment comes with it unprecedented challenges which must be surmounted for effective growth of the teaching venture. Challenges are pedagogical, social, psychological and otherwise. These challenges are of most concern to the newly employed teacher who must, of necessity deliver on his call. Let us briefly outline some of these challenges the newly employed science teacher must face and be overwhelmed by them, if they be without mentoring:
- **Fitting into the new environment**: Figuring out how to be part of a new work culture can be very frustrating. The newly employed science teacher is lost in this environment without a mentor.

- **Gaining trust from fellow teachers**: Gaining trust of others is a difficult thing for every new teacher in the teaching environment. It takes time to gain the trust of others to follow your ideas. A mentor will serve as the first port of call in filling in this divide.

- **Fear of making mistakes (especially in teaching)**: New teachers are careful not to make any mistake in what they teach and do, however, they make a lot of mistakes in trying to avoid them. Mentors must be there as support in managing these mistakes maturely.

- **Use of instructional materials**: New science teachers often get confused on the right instructional material to use at a given time as well as how to use identified ones effectively. The science practical activities become a herculean task since the laboratory is more like a different world. This creates a vacuum which only an experienced teacher can fill through mentoring.

- **Classroom Control and Management**: A meaningful class control and management is necessary for a rewarding experience in teaching. New teachers are either too loose (in order not to offend any student) or too authoritative (in order not to be looked down upon). The experience teacher creates a thin but sharp line between friendliness and discipline as it relates with his relationship with students

- **Time Management**: A 40-minute teaching period is either too much for nervous new teacher or too small for over confident new teachers. Mentors who serve as moderators have the duty of identifying this and counselling appropriately.

- **Professional Ethics**: Every profession has her ethics. Poor knowledge or understanding of these professional ethics creates a pigeon-holed new science teacher who becomes more of a problem to the school than a solution bringer. It is through the activities of the newly employed teachers that the school will is like to receive complaints and sanctions from the parents, community, supervisory bodies and the society at large. and It is the duty of the school to assign mentors to such newly employed A well-positioned mentoring scheme is prima to curbing these ugly trends among newly employed science teacher for effective adherence to the teaching ethics to bring about the gains of education.

A more permanent solution to the problems above is only possible by mentoring. This is the case because mentoring creates a scenario for tackling the above identified challenges of the newly employed science teacher. Nest (2012) opines that it is clear that implementing a mentorship programme in any organisation or school has benefits for participating individuals as well as the organisation or school itself. Huling and Resta (2001, Nest, 2012), points out these roles that mentoring will play in huddling the aforementioned challenges of the newly employed science teacher:

- **Professional competency**: Mentors benefit by applying cognitive coaching skills with their mentees such as listening, asking inquisitive questions, providing non-judgmental feedback which will be of general benefit in handling the aforementioned challenges.

- **Reflective Practice**: This provides mentors with opportunities to validate the experience they have gained over the years. These are then communicated to the newly employed teacher for an effective teaching experience.
• **Renewal of commitment**: Mentees and mentors’ commitment to the teaching profession is strengthened in the mentoring process.

• **Psychological Benefits**: Mentoring enhances the self-esteem and feelings of empowerment of both the mentors and the mentee. This is good for the overall growth of the science education.

• **Collaboration**: Collegial interaction strengthens relationships and competencies of teachers in the teaching profession.

• **Contribution to School Leadership**: Mentor training and experiences can build mentors’ capacity for leadership through structured professional development including training and experience in classroom observation and coaching skills.

It has also been contended by Wang and Paine (2001 in Nest, 2012) that mentoring, as assisted performance, benefit teachers in constructing a professional practice. The authors explored the possibilities and challenges of mentoring as an assisted performance as a tool to reform classroom practice in a study. In their study, they assumed that mentoring has significant potential and benefits to support teacher learning because it is consistent with two important tenets from sociocultural perspectives of learning: (a) All knowledge, and theories are situated in and grow out of the contexts of their use. In other words, mentoring occurs in the context of teaching, close to the classroom (or even in it). (b) With the support of an experienced person [mentor], working in a mentee’s zone of proximal development, teachers can learn to perform beyond their independent performance level.

**OBSTACLES TO MENTORING**
Mentoring, though it is very beneficial to both mentor and mentee, yet there are obstacles militating against its success. Stewart (2004 in Nest, 2012) has identified obstacles or concerns of mentor teachers that could undermine the quality of a mentoring programme. The following are four basic obstacles of mentoring programme:

• Lack of time for meetings and classroom visits.

• Other responsibilities interfering with mentor responsibilities.

• Mismatch between the mentor and the mentee teacher, concerning the teaching assignments and teaching ideology.

• Lack of managerial support.

It is hoped that with proper time management, harmonious relationship and full managerial support; the above obstacles of mentoring can be overcome for a productive mentoring practice in schools.

**CONCLUSION**
Mentoring practice is fundamental in teaching and learning. It is a well-known fact that mentoring is a powerful device that will help teachers develop new insights into the profession and as such, become better in their service delivery in the teaching and learning process. Mentoring programmes are both beneficial to experienced or new teachers as it reduces isolation and can build a collegial network among professional colleagues like teachers. More so, mentoring programmes help to move the novice teacher from a level of mere survival to initial success when used with beginning teachers.
The gains of mentoring are already to be highly positive and productive as it does not only benefit the newly employed science teacher but also the old teachers and the school at large. The experienced teachers utilise this medium to develop their professionalism as the cultivate a sense of renewed enthusiasm for their jobs and enhanced commitment for the profession of education. The new teacher is enlightened and guided and the teaching grows. The school on her part benefits from the stability in teaching achieved through cordial relationships and improved teacher delivery. Mentoring must therefore be taken as a serious activity to bring about the needed benefits it brings in the educational venture.

RECOMMENDATIONS

• Newly employed science teachers should make themselves available for mentoring exercises as they are very beneficial for social stability of schools.
• Acceptance of employment by new teachers should carry the acceptance to work under a mentor for a stipulated period of time for proper integration into the science teaching.
• The schools should put plans rolling to set up mentoring programmes in the school and map out strategies to ensure that these programmes are taken seriously.
• School administrators should see the need to instil the attitude of mentoring in all staff so as to foster growth of the teachers in the different levels. This can be achieved when mentoring programmes and mapped out and made a school programme for all.
• Mentors and mentees should understand that their role as teachers places the future of the nations in their hands and as such, must work together as a team to promote common best practices in the teaching and learning venture.
• The government should, as a matter of urgency direct, through the Ministries of Education that mentoring programmes should be enshrined in all schools so that the gaps between the experienced teacher and the inexperienced may be filled up.

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FORMATION CONTINUE DES ENSEIGNANTS DU DÉGRÉ INITIAL
UN LEVIER DE LA QUALITÉ DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT EN RDC.

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RÉSUMÉ
Généralement, tout système éducatif poursuit entre autres objectifs, la formation des compétences nouvelles qui constitue un important investissement en capital humain et l’utilisation des compétences ainsi créées pour accroître la production des biens et services dans l’économie. Le développement d’un pays passe forcément par plusieurs catégories de performances dont la formation de la population détient le monopole des secrets tout en étant l’une des priorités pour renforcer les chances de réussite d’un pays au cours de son processus de développement. Si la science est la source du savoir, c’est l’enseignement qui diffuse ce savoir et en rend possible l’application aux tâches pratiques de la production économique. Raison pour laquelle, en République Démocratique du Congo Bien que beaucoup d’efforts ont été faits dans le secteur éducatif en terme de quantité, le défi de qualité de l’enseignement reste toujours à relever au regard de compétences des enseignants du niveau initial. Beaucoup reste à faire en ce qui concerne l’amélioration des méthodes d’enseignement à la faveur des pratiques innovantes, de l’emploi de nouveaux outils didactiques et de nouvelles méthodes pédagogiques ainsi que le renforcement de la professionnalisation des formateurs locaux. D’où le besoin de renforcer les capacités des enseignants par une formation continue axée sur les pratiques les plus efficaces, c’est-à-dire celles qui aident les élèves à réaliser le plus efficacement possible les apprentissages souhaités.

INTRODUCTION
Il n’est un secret pour personne, la situation de l’enseignement en République Démocratique du Congo est nettement en retard, pour ne prendre que l’indice du développement du capital humain et le besoin le plus grand d’un personnel qualifié en enseignement initial. L’évaluation des progrès accomplis par le pays dans la réalisation des objectifs de l’éducation pour tous (EPT) tels que fixés au sommet de Dakar de 2000, cinq ans après, indique un accroissement impressionnant de taux de scolarisation, d’alphabétisation et d’achèvement mais reconnaît qu’il reste à améliorer la qualité de l’enseignement. Mini plan (2015).

L’UNESCO (2003-2004), fait état de l’existence dans nombreux pays Africains en développement, de programmes squelettiques de formation initiale, de l’incapacité de plusieurs enseignants à résoudre certains problèmes pédagogiques et à briser le plafonnement des rendements scolaires à un niveau jugé inacceptable.

A cet effet, il suffit de lire les recommandations issues du vingt unième (21ème) sommet de la francophonie de Bucarest (2006), sous l’impulsion des chefs d’Etats et des Gouvernements, ayant conduit l’Agence Universitaire (AUF) et à l’Organisation de la Francophonie(OIF) à développer l’initiative francophone pour soutenir les politiques nationales de modernisation des
systèmes éducatifs des pays membres, pour confirmer cette nécessité. Djibo F.(2010), le dit d'ailleurs : les efforts consentis à l'éducation pour tous (EPT) se traduisent par une augmentation de la construction des nouvelles classes et surtout du nombre de nouveaux enseignants, mais il reste encore beaucoup à faire, quant à la qualité des enseignements .

D'après le rapport du Ministère du plan(2015) de la RD Congo, il s'observe des progrès considérables en matière de l'éducation dans le pays principalement en ce qui concerne les mesures et les programmes à haut impact mis en œuvre, l'augmentation importante de l'offre de service..., toutefois des efforts devront être poursuivis et orientés vers l'amélioration de la qualité de l'enseignement et du renforcement de la gouvernance du secteur.

De ce qui précède, il se fait observer, selon la même source (2000) qu'en République Démocratique du Congo, les effectifs d'élèves ne cessent d'augmenter pendant que les moyens alloués au secteur éducatif sont entrain de baisser, les élèves du primaire estimés à 1.8millions en 1967/1968 ont atteint 3.9millions en 1978/1979 et4.9millions en 1992/1993. Le système éducatif congolais n'est plus efficace. Son rendement est médiocre et se dégrade continuellement. Il va sans dire à ce sujet que les ressources du secteur éducatif, comme celles de tous les autres secteurs sociaux du pays ont été affectés par la crise de l'administration publique , comme le dit le Ministère de la Fonction Publique(2015), la démotivation s'est généralisée dans le rang des agents et fonctionnaires à la suite d'un salaire marginal, d'une sécurité sociale et des soins de santé si délabrés d'une part et d'autre part, les textes légaux et réglementaires de recrutement et d'avancement en grade n'était plus appliquées pendant la deuxième république, tandis que la formation et le perfectionnement du personnel devenaient négligés. De ce fait, il s'observe dans le secteur de l'éducation une criante inadéquation entre les besoins de formation et les programmes d'études à l'école. En ce siècle, fort est de constater que certains enseignants recourent encore à des vieilles notes pour élaborer les prévisions des matières. (E.C. MUDERWA 2008). En outre, il est important de faire remarquer à ce jour la non existence d'école de formation des enseignants du primaire en République Démocratique Congo. Partant de ce constat, nous émettons l'hypothèse selon laquelle, la formation continue des enseignants du niveau initial de l'enseignement favoriserait l'amélioration de la qualité de l'enseignement en République Démocratique du Congo. Ce dont nous visons atteindre comme objectif de renforcer les capacités des enseignants par une formation continue axée sur les pratiques les plus efficaces. C'est-à-dire celles qui aident les élèves à réaliser le plus efficacement possible les apprentissages souhaités.

Pour y parvenir, nous envisageons l’usage d’une démarche expérimentale, consistant à mettre sur pied un échantillon représentatif d'enseignants soumis à cette formation professionnelle à courte durée, mais aussi à faible coût. Il faut aussi mettre l'accent sur les pratiques pédagogiques centrées sur les élèves et le travail en groupe, dont les performances (mesurée en terme du rendement scolaire des élèves) seront évaluées comparativement à un groupe B n’ayant pas bénéficié de la formation. L'analyse des données nous conduira à l'utilisation du pourcentage du chi-carré de K. Pearson, comme technique. La réalisation de ce travail est articulée autour de deux chapitres, hormis l'introduction et la conclusion.

Le premier chapitre traite de considérations sur la formation continue des enseignants. Nous y parlerons de la définition de concepts évoqués, de l’état de lieu de la formation des enseignants du niveau initial en République Démocratique du Congo et de quelques travaux antérieurs réalisés ; Le deuxième chapitre est consacré au lien entre la formation continue des enseignants et le rendement de l'enseignement. Dans ce dernier, nous abordons les points relatifs à la Fonction et l'avantage de la formation continue pour l'enseignant, au déclenchant de la formation continue dans la gestion du personnel enseignants, aux Compétences à
construire dans la formation continue ainsi que des principes à mettre en œuvre dans la formation continue.

I: CONSIDÉRATIONS THÉORIQUES

I.1. Définition des concepts

I.1.1. Formation Continue
Par formation continue on sous entend, une formation axée aux salariés souhaitant parfaire leur formation professionnelle ou aux demandeurs d'emploi désireux de renforcer leurs compétences professionnelles durant leur vie active.

I.1.2. Formation professionnelle
La formation professionnelle est un processus d'apprentissage qui permet à un individu d'acquérir le savoir, le savoir-faire et le savoir être constitué des aptitudes et des capacités nécessaires à l'exercice d'un métier ou d'une activité professionnelle.

I.1.3. Formation professionnelle continue
La formation professionnelle continue ; c'est le type de formation permettant à un salarié d'acquérir des nouvelles compétences durant sa vie active, pour le retour ou le maintien dans l'emploi ainsi que pour sécuriser ou optimiser son parcours professionnel.

I.2. État de lieu de la formation continue en République Démocratique du Congo
La République Démocratique Congo (R.D.C), longtemps engagée dans le processus de la croissance économique et du développement, se trouve à cette ère de la mondialisation considérée parmi les pays pauvres. Cela prouve le paradoxe eu égard aux diverses potentialités que regorge le pays. Bien qu'universellement reconnu comme inaliénable, le droit à l’éducation de qualité n'est malheureusement pas encore assuré à tous, et surtout aux citoyens des couches sociales démunies en R.D.C. Il se vit à son sein une crise sociopolitique et économique qui a affaibli l'Etat, le rendant incapable de remplir ses responsabilités dans divers domaines dont celui de l'éducation qui nous intéresse dans le cadre de ce travail.

Avec une superficie de 2 345 409 km2, un environnement naturel qui gêne considérablement les conditions de circulation et de communication, une population estimée à 63 millions d’habitants, inégalement répartie sur le territoire, (69,6% de la population en milieu rural, contre 30,4% en milieu urbain), sans oublier une grande diversité culturelle et linguistique, la RDC se trouve confrontée au défi de devoir satisfaire d'énormes besoins en éducation de populations nombreuses, diverses et dispersées dans des zones souvent difficilement accessibles.

Du point de vue de sa finalité et de ses objectifs, l’éducation constitue un élément central de la stratégie de développement en RDC. La finalité qui lui est officiellement assignée est de "former des hommes et des femmes compétents, imprégnés des valeurs humaines, morales, spirituelles, culturelles, civiques et artisans créatifs d’une nouvelle société congolaise, démocratique, solidaire, prospère et pacifique". L’amélioration de l’accès à une éducation de qualité constituait déjà l’un des objectifs prioritaires du document de stratégie de croissance et de réduction de la pauvreté (DSCRP) 2006-2010 ; et elle est rappelée avec force dans le programme intérimaire de l’Éducation (PIE) de novembre 2011. La gratuité et le caractère obligatoire de l’enseignement primaire sont du reste inscrit dans la Constitution (art. 43). Mais
Compte tenu des difficultés que connaît le pays depuis plus de deux décennies son système éducatif est loin de prétendre atteindre cette finalité.

Du point de vue de connaissances ; le système éducatif congolais hérité de la colonisation, est donc importé et inadéquat, il mérite d’être réformé en profondeur, afin de l'adapter aux besoins de développement du pays (tous les secteurs), en tenant compte des réalités du pays. Les programmes devront être conçus, au niveau secondaire et universitaire en fonction des besoins du marché d'emploi tant national qu'international ;

En ce qui concerne ses sorties ; comme nous l’avons dit dans l’introduction, si un grand nombre de diplômés d'université, généralement bien formés, a fait son apparition depuis l'indépendance, cela n’est plus le cas aujourd'hui. Nul n’est besoin ici de démontrer le niveau trop bas de l'enseignement au Congo, à tous les niveaux! Encore moins le niveau des diplômés congolais de cycle secondaire appelés à devenir enseignants du niveau primaire. Que peut-on attendre d'un diplômé formé dans des conditions inappropriées (manque de matériel didactique, infrastructures scolaires délabrées, classes surpeuplées et mal équipées, enseignants sous-payés et misérables, bibliothèques inexistantes ou presque, etc.)?

C’est pourquoi la stratégie 2016-2025 du MEPSP s’efforce de "considérer la situation actuelle dans la perspective de la reconstruction afin que les actions d’aujourd’hui préparent les réformes nécessaires à un avenir de progrès". La formation continue des enseignants et personnels d’encadrement fait partie des principales réformes du secteur préconisées par le programme, travers "La réforme de la formation professionnelle continue des enseignants et encadreurs pédagogiques à travers l’organisation d’un dispositif qui s’implante au niveau de chaque école, la création et le fonctionnement de cellules pédagogiques ainsi que le renforcement de l’encadrement pédagogique"

1.3. Quelques travaux antérieurs sur la formation continue des enseignants et le rendement scolaire des élèves.


Selon l’ UNESCO (2005) le rôle de la formation initiale des enseignants est sujet à débats depuis la fin des années 1990, Il est aussi vrai qu’au cours de ce débat, la présence, l’attitude et l’investissement de l’enseignant (qui dépendent de leur coté de nombreuses variables tels que leur condition de vie, de travail, leur motivation etc.) sont autant d’autres facteurs influent également sur la qualité de l’enseignement, mesurée en terme des résultats de leurs élèves, le nombre de paramètre à prendre en compte , leur poids , respectifs et leurs interaction rendent difficile l’établissement d’un lien clair entre la formation des enseignants et leur qualité.

Les études menées aux Etats Unis démontrent que la formation initiale a un effet très faible, voire non significatif sur le résultat des élèves ( Ruvkin, Hanushek et Kain , 2005).

Néanmoins, dans le contexte des pays d’Afrique subsahariens ; deux travaux ont été réalisés par le programme d'analyse des systèmes éducatifs (PASEC, 2003) précisément en Guinée, sur la formation initiale des enseignants, visant à comparer deux mille enseignants dont certains avaient reçu deux ans de formation initiale dite traditionnelle axé majoritairement sur
des compétences académiques et théoriques menant à un diplôme conférant le statut d’enseignants suivi par une prise de fonction officielle et d’autres uniquement une année de formation mettant l’accent sur les pratiques pédagogiques centrées sur les élèves et le travail en groupe. Recrutés (enseignants de deux groupes) à l’issue de leur formation comme fonctionnaires, l’étude a montré que les enseignants ayant participé à la formation professionnelle obtenaient de meilleurs résultats (mesuré à travers le résultat de leurs élèves). Une étude récente réalisée dans 7 pays d’Afrique australe a montré que certains instituteurs enseignant les mathématiques n’avaient que les connaissances de base en arithmétique et obtenaient en fait des scores inférieurs à ceux des élèves aux mêmes tests (Unesco, 2004, p21).

Dans une synthèse des études réalisées dans les pays membres du ROCARE (Réseau Ouest et Centre Africain de Recherche en Éducation) avant même l’apparition de ces nouveaux types d’enseignants, MACLURE,… (1997) notait déjà que plusieurs enseignants ne maîtrisaient visiblement pas les programmes d’études, même si certaines connaissances étaient maîtrisées, elles étaient souvent transmises de façon doctrinaire, c’est-à-dire, un enseignement magistral de contenu incompréhensible pour la majorité des élèves et couronné par une évaluation sous forme de récitation irréfléchie.

Une autre étude est celle menée par FRANCIS, D.(2010) sur l’impact de la formation continue des enseignants sur la réussite scolaire : regard critique sur le cas du Burkina Faso à la Faculté des études supérieures de l’Université Laval au Québec. Dans le cadre de sa thèse de doctorat en psycho pédagogie. L’auteur a adopté et adapté le modèle de formation continue proposé par (Guskey 2001) en restructurant en six composantes : les politiques éducatives qui émanent de l’administration, les pratiques auxquelles se livre l’enseignant dans sa classe, les connaissances et les habiletés qui ont été apprises lors des activités de formation, la nature de ces activités de formation organisées par l’équipe d’encadrement ou par les écoles elles-mêmes, les motifs qui poussent les enseignants à y participer et les soutiens organisationnels nécessaires à la réalisation de ces différentes étapes. À la lumière de ces six composantes, l’enquête, réalisée à l’aide d’entrevues non directives, de lectures de la documentation officielle et de quelques observations occasionnelles, lui a permis de produire des descriptions ethnométhodologiques contrastées de deux groupes de circonscriptions dont l’un présentait des écoles avec de forts taux de réussite scolaire et l’autre des écoles avec de faibles taux. Après une analyse intersites des matrices de comparaison afin de faire ressortir les différences significatives, il a pu extraire plusieurs facteurs qui semblaient rendre efficaces les composantes de la formation continue de son échantillon. Afin de lui assurer de la pertinence de tels facteurs et pour éprouver la fiabilité de ces résultats, il a cherché à les confirmer ou à les infirmer en le comparant aux données de la revue de recherche de la formation continue et des écoles efficaces. Cette comparaison lui a permis de conforter l’efficacité de plusieurs facteurs.

Dans ses conclusions, il a relevé qu’au Burkina Faso, l’amélioration de la formation continue des enseignants du primaire repose sur une normalisation des indices de réussite, sur la maîtrise préalable d’une langue d’enseignement, sur des pratiques pédagogiques orientées par la pédagogie de sous-groupes et par l’enseignement explicite, sur des enseignants ayant un niveau élevé de connaissance de la matière, des processus d’apprentissage et des méthodologies appropriées, sur des activités de formation pratique, intrasites et curriculocentriques dont le suivi est assuré par des enseignants spécialisés, sur des stratégies de motivation axées sur la proximisation et enfin sur des soutiens multi sources avec une attention particulière accordée aux enseignantes.
Par ailleurs, il est bien connu que trois théories entrent en discussion par les chercheurs en éducation, en ce qui concerne l’explication des inégalités des rendements scolaires des élèves. Il s’agit notamment : 1. de la théorie liée aux facteurs sociaux qui expliquent les différences de rendement scolaire par l’origine sociale de l’élève ; 2. La théorie liée aux facteurs individuels des élèves, qui assigne caractéristiques individuelles des élèves la responsabilité de leurs résultats scolaires et 3. La théorie liée aux facteurs scolaires pour laquelle l’école elle-même influencerait le rendement scolaire plus que toutes les autres variables tant sociales qu’individuelle.

En outre, les recherches menées sur la variable milieu familiale, relèvent qu’en plus d’être une variable difficilement maniable et peu fiable, le milieu familial n’est pas ainsi déterminant du niveau de résultat scolaire dans les pays en voie développement que dans les sociétés industrielles (Lawson- Body 1993. P.43).

La leçon tirée de l’analyse de ces travaux, nous a conduite à orienter cette étude dans la théorie des facteurs scolaires en prenant comme variable la professionnalisation des enseignants des enseignants du niveau initial comme levier à la qualité de l’enseignement en République Démocratique du Congo, nous inspirant du modèle de DANIELE H. (2017)

II LIEN ENTRE LA FORMATION CONTINUE DES ENSEIGNANTS ET LE RENDEMENT DE L’ENSEIGNEMENT

2.1. Linaires
Il n’est concevable dans aucun État qui aspire avoir des enseignements de qualité de négliger la formation pédagogique des enseignants. Pour (Georges (1974,p.18) « cette formation aidera l’enseignant à offrir un enseignement de qualité qui fait valoir ses effets pendant longtemps car « les maîtres formés aujourd’hui entreront dans une carrière , pendant les 35 ans ils auront devant eux des enfants dont les chances de vie se poursuivront pendant au moins cinquante années ». En effet, la façon dont les maîtres seront formés aujourd’hui fera sentir son influence après le milieu de siècles prochains. Par ailleurs, il sied de faire rappeler que la plupart de pays qui ont répondu à l’appel de l’UNESCO sur la formation initiale des enseignants et qui ont essentiellement axé leurs reformes éducatives sur celle-ci en ont l’arme indispensable pour relever le niveau de la qualité de leur systèmes éducatifs. De ce fait, il va sans dire que les enseignements d’un enseignants performant et compétent produiront des résultats qualificatifs dont les bénéficiaires seront les élèves. Ces acquisitions qualificatives seront mises à profit par les élèves qui les transmettront plus tard à d’autres enfants, car les connaissances bien acquises perdureront.

2.2. Avantage et nécessité de la formation continue
Depuis toujours, l’enseignement exige continuellement une remise en cause de ses acquis antérieurs et une mise à niveau permanente des connaissances pour ne pas être dépassé par les événements. On dit souvent que "l’enseignant qui ne se cultive plus doit cesser d’enseigner, face à l’évolution des connaissances et surtout des méthodes d’enseignement". Curieusement, parler de « formation tout au long de la vie » est de nos jours une banalité et pourtant, au moment où cette formation se conçoit comme un devoir qui s’impose à chacun, tout au moins dans sa dimension de développement professionnel, il n’est pas illégitime de s’interroger sur les bénéfices attendus de cette dynamique largement véhiculée par le discours dominants, et de considérer la place spécifique de la formation continue des enseignants dans
le développement des compétences professionnelles. Plus que jamais, dans le contexte actuel la formation continue des enseignants devra être considérée comme un investissement et non un coût. Ainsi donc, la formation continue, contribue fortement au développement des compétences professionnelles de l’enseignant. Au vu des multiples reformes dans le secteur de l’éducation et face à des progrès rapides de la science, il urge que les rencontres soient initiées entre les enseignants pour les aider à se mettre en phase et leur permettre d’acquirir des nouvelles compétences leur facilitant la mise en œuvre efficace et efficient des programmes d’études.

2.3. Déclenchant de la formation
Il est essentiel de noter que la responsabilité de certifier et de former les enseignants à leur métier incombe du pouvoir organisateur de l'éducation qui est l'État. L’éducation nationale doit former les enseignants et ne pas seulement les recruter. L’état a la responsabilité d’organiser la formation des enseignants autour de trois pôles de connaissances qui délimitent le contour d’une professionnalité globale :
- Le premier pôle est constitué par les connaissances relatives aux identités disciplinaires ;
- Le deuxième pôle est constitué par les connaissances relatives au système éducatif ;
- Le troisième pôle, par les connaissances relatives à la gestion des apprentissages.

De ce fait, le point de départ de la formation continue porte sur l'évaluation des acquis des enseignants. C’est ainsi qu'il est recommandé à tout établissement d’enseignement qui se veut prospère de se livrer à deux exercices pour la cause :
- Celui d’examiner les compétences ou de chercher à y construire et donc, si certaines compétences professionnelles relèvent plus particulièrement de la formation continue et
- Celui de se demander quels principes et conditions respecter pour favoriser une telle construction.

2.4. Types de Compétences à Développer dans la Formation Continue
Plusieurs modèles qui ont été mentionnés utilisent divers processus pour leur mise en œuvre une fois les besoins de formation identifiés. Le processus est une structuration de l’activité d’apprentissage de l’enseignant en vue de développer les compétences que nécessitent les situations identifiées par les auteurs de la formation. Judicieuse utilisation en situation de formation continue, leur pertinence selon le contexte, leur organisation dans la mise en œuvre, les appuis dont ils pourraient bénéficier, leur influence réelle sur les élèves, sur les enseignants, sur les États et sur les régions selon leur niveau d’efficacité. Concernant ce travail, nous nous inspirons du modèle de DANIELE .H(2017) à cause de son caractère permettant de faire plusieurs classements de formation continue:

D’une approche plus individuelle à une approche plus institutionnelle, d’une approche déficit à une approche growth (Guskey et Huberman, 1995a). Dans le Déficit Model, l’idée principale est de mettre à jour certaines compétences absentes pour pouvoir les développer selon des situations particulières. Cette mise à jour peut être faite par l’administration, par les programmes d’évaluation ou par les chercheurs. Selon GUSKEY, (2000), plusieurs études montrent que les enseignants ne peuvent être totalement conscients de tous leurs besoins. Ils ne savent pas toujours que certaines lacunes influencent négativement les résultats scolaires. Il
faut donc les soumettre à des mises à niveau ou à des mises à jour ou les encourager fortement à le faire

2.4.1. Les compétences du praticien réflexif
On considère actuellement qu’un bon enseignant doit posséder des compétences de réflexivité c’est dire qu’il réfléchit, en amont, au moment de la préparation, comme en aval, après l’action qu’il fait. Deviennent un praticien « réflexif » lorsque son activité intellectuelle, au – delà de la simple prévision ou observation, se fonde sur une analyse instrumentée par des outils conceptuels ; qu’il peut se référer à des théories permettant de dépasser l’empirique ou le cas par cas, et qui donnent sens, c’est – à dire à la fois signification, à l’ensemble de son action pédagogique.

2.4.2. Les compétences de l’enseignant savant”.
Les compétences professionnelles plus traditionnellement reconnues pour l’enseignant sont Par exemple de la maîtrise des savoirs, on considère qu’avant tout, l’enseignant doit être “ savant ”. Puisque nul ne contestera la nécessité que l’enseignant en sache un peu plus que ses élèves, il faut lui permettre d’accéder à un bon niveau de connaissances disciplinaires - et, en ce qui concerne les professeurs des écoles, l’éventail des disciplines est très large - et de connaissances interdisciplinaires. Que l’enseignant doit ensuite se montrer capable de transformer ces savoirs de type universitaire en savoirs enseigner implique de plus une maîtrise de la didactique de la ou des discipline(s). Mais à côté de ces savoirs liés aux disciplines, l’enseignant a également besoin de savoirs transversaux, que ce soit ceux qui viennent des sciences humaines et sociales et qu’il lui faut appliquer à la situation éducative, que ce soit les savoirs directement issus de la pratique et qui auront été formalisés et diffusés par des chercheurs.

2.4.3 Les compétences de l’enseignant « technicien »
Outre les deux types de compétences recensées jusqu’à présent, on peut trouver des compétences comparables à celles d’un “ technicien ”. L’enseignant “ technicien ” sait que son métier passe par une série de gestes professionnels, de gestes qui peuvent être décomposés en unités distinctes, voire en très petites unités. L’activité de l’enseignant est alors envisagée selon les mille et une facettes qu’elle constituent, qu’elles soient liées aux connaissances, aux habiletés, ou aux attitudes et l’on peut établir une liste très longue d’items qui constitueraient la spécificité du bon enseignant. Cette conception est du reste, dans une certaine mesure, à la base du référentiel du professeur des écoles en fin de formation initiale, ou encore à l’origine de nombreuses grilles d’évaluation, fondées sur le principe de l’accumulation de micro-compétences.

2.4.4. Les compétences de l’enseignant « artisan »
Un quatrième bloc de compétences professionnelles assimile l’enseignant à un “ artisan ”. L’enseignant “ artisan ”, à la différence du précédent, a une vision générale de ce qu’il fait. L’important pour lui, c’est l’action globale, envisagée comme un ensemble rigoureusement charpenté. L’enseignant “ artisan ” fonctionne donc selon des scénarios, ou, dira-t-on, à l’aide de fiches techniques, où un certain nombre d’actes sont répertoriés dans un ordre précis et immuable.

Il peut être intéressant de faire de ces scénarios des objets de formation. D’abord parce que, en proposant aux stagiaires des productions de cette nature, on élargit pour eux l’éventail des
possibilités, on donne des exemples d’autres activités ou d’autres procédures que celles qu’ils connaissent. Ensuite, parce que l’on peut supposer également que cette découverte va permettre la réflexion, la comparaison et va pousser l’enseignant à plus et mieux analyser ses propres pratiques. Mais cette activité se fera d’autant plus aisément qu’elle sera accompagnée par le formateur et par le groupe.

Troisièmement, parce que partir de fiches, de recettes, permet de travailler sur la méthodologie ; “ décortiquer ” une fiche incite à voir pour quoi elle a été montée, comment elle l’a été et avec quelle efficacité. Et en travaillant sur la méthodologie, on facilite le transfert vers des activités autonomes. Enfin, donner une fiche en début de stage procure un sentiment de satisfaction chez les stagiaires qui attendent du concret et une aide pratique. Le formateur devient d’autant plus libre pour ce qu’il considère comme le vrai travail et qui reste à venir.

2.4.5. Les compétences de l’enseignant acteur social
Le cinquième groupe de compétences professionnelles concerne le statut de l’enseignant. L’enseignant n’est plus seul dans sa classe, il doit maintenant et plus que jamais être capable de montrer des compétences liées à son rôle social. Il fait partie d’une équipe d’enseignants dans l’établissement, avec laquelle il doit travailler à élaborer des projets, collaborer pour les échanges de service ou les décloisonnements, réfléchir au suivi des élèves dans la durée, dans et hors la classe. Cette même capacité à travailler en équipe, il doit aussi la démontrer en dehors de l’école, dans la circonscription ou le bassin, Ou au-delà, dans un cadre plus large encore.

Acteur social, l’enseignant l’est également dans ses relations avec les parents, partenaires à part entière de l’action éducative. Conscient que l’enfant ne peut être envisagé que dans sa globalité, il sait travailler étroitement avec les parents, entretenir avec eux une relation professionnelle, les plaçant sur un pied d’égalité, mais dans un rôle différent.
Quant à l’environnement social, il est compris au sens large : sont concernés les partenaires “naturels ” de l’école, la justice et la police par exemple, mais aussi tous les acteurs culturels ou économiques, vers lesquels l’enseignant se tourne pour éviter que l’école ne soit un monde clos replié sur lui-même, pour ouvrir les élèves au monde qui les entoure.

2.4.6. Les compétences liées à la “ personne ” de l’enseignant
Quelle que soit l’importance du rôle social de l’enseignant, il convient de ne jamais oublier que l’enseignant est un individu, ce qui n’est facilement reconnu ni par l’institution ni par les membres qui la composent. On aborde assez peu tout ce qui est signe de l’émergence de la personne et pourtant, certaines compétences personnelles sont utiles dans le métier. La toute première, c’est la compétence de communication, qui passe par l’empathie, la capacité à entrer en relation avec les autres, tous les autres : dans la classe avec les élèves, avec chaque élève en particulier, avec les collègues, avec les parents d’élèves, etc. C’est dire que l’enseignant doit maîtriser des formes multiples de communication. Une autre compétence à développer, c’est le contrôle des affects. Face à un élève qui l’émeut ou qui l’irrite, face à une classe qui le surprend, aux parents qui l’agressent, l’enseignant doit contrôler ses émotions et rester maître de lui-même pour rester maître de la situation professionnelle.

Une dernière compétence liée à la personne concerne l’engagement. On peut faire son travail d’enseignant avec assiduité et ponctualité, sans plus. Mais l’institution attend davantage ! Elle attend un engagement qui remplisse complètement le rôle professionnel. En particulier,
l’enseignant doit montrer le goût d’apprendre, dans l’immédiateté de sa formation tout autant qu’à moyen et long terme. Il doit montrer le désir d’une réelle formation tout au long de la vie. Au terme de cette première partie, on constate que toutes les compétences répertoriées comme constitutives de l’enseignant professionnel " peuvent faire l’objet de la formation continue, mais qu’elles le sont à des degrés divers en fonction des situations et des enseignants eux-mêmes. A ce dernier volet, vient s’ajouter la déontologie professionnelle qui devra amener l’enseignant à se doter d’une personnalité et d’une conscience.

2.5. Les Principles à Mettre en Ceuvre dans la Formation Continue

Une fois déterminés les éventuels objets d’étude, il reste à dégager quelques principes à respecter pour rendre la formation continue efficace. On en dénombra quatre, qui peuvent être examinés à deux niveaux, celui du dispositif de formation et celui des actions particulières. De chacun de ces principes, découleront des modalités de formation appropriées, mais qui peuvent parfois se recouper. Loin d’y regretter des répétitions, on y verra plutôt l’expression d’une cohérence interne dans la conception générale de la formation

2.5.1. La responsabilité des enseignants en formation

Le premier principe est celui de la responsabilité des enseignants en formation. Formation d’adultes, la formation continue des enseignants doit rendre les stagiaires réellement acteurs, au point de leur faire prendre en charge leur propre formation ; on hésite alors à parler de " formés ", la forme passive de l’expression ne rendant pas le rôle des participants. Les responsabiliser, c’est : - leur donner l’initiative d’un certain nombre d’actions leur permettre - distinction entre formation continue et pilotage - d’être à l’origine de leur formation, en choisissant personnellement, dans le catalogue départemental ou académique, les actions qu’ils vont suivre, ou même en trouvant une formation qui convienne à leurs veux et/ou à leurs besoins en dehors de cette offre institutionnelle;

- leur permettre de négocier a priori les contenus et les modalités - au minimum de les connaître, pour pouvoir les refuser s’ils ne correspondent pas à ce qui est souhaité ;

- leur permettre de négocier les contenus et les modalités également au moment même de la formation, grâce à une série de régulations opérées par un formateur constamment à l’écoute ; leur permettre de s’évaluer dans la pratique quotidienne comme au moment du stage, pour faciliter la prise de conscience de besoins et des progrès réalisés.

Responsabiliser les enseignants revient à penser un dispositif mixte, qui, à côté des offres répondant aux besoins du pilotage, laisse une place importante aux demandes, qui sont la trace du désir et de la nécessité ressentie de formation.

2.5.2 Inscription de la formation dans l’histoire des enseignants.

Le deuxième grand principe qui peut guider l’élaboration de dispositifs ou d’actions particulières consiste à inscrire la formation dans l’histoire des enseignants. C’est déjà vrai en formation initiale, parce que les stagiaires ont été élèves et, en tant qu’élèves, ont vécu une expérience de relations pédagogiques qui les a durablement marqués. En formation continue, à ce passé d’élèves, s’ajoute un passé d’enseignant dont on ne peut faire table rase. Cette histoire, qui est celle de leurs pratiques personnelles ou de leur rencontre avec celles d’autrui, n’est pas toujours explicite ; elle constitue pourtant un terreau fertile de représentations bien installées sur la profession enseignante. Il importe donc de donner aux enseignants en formation les moyens d’expliciter, de verbaliser, à l’oral ou à l’écrit.
La première action consiste sans doute à mettre en place des dispositifs d’observation. Prendre l’habitude d’observer autrui, pour ensuite savoir s’observer, permet en effet de comprendre sa pratique et d’y réfléchir. Des dispositifs d’observation mutuelle pourraient donc être un bon point de départ, mais, outre la difficulté à les installer dans le temps contraint de la formation continue, ils présentent l’inconvénient d’une certaine violence psychologique qui n’est pas supportable par tous. De sorte que la vidéo scopie semble souvent préférable, principalement dans sa dimension “hétéro scopie”, observation difféérée d’autrui par le biais des enregistrements vidéo; peu importe d’ailleurs qu’il s’agisse d’enregistrements d’enseignants “experts” ou de grands débutants.

2.5.3. Ancrage dans la pratique
Le troisième principe est d’ancrer la formation dans la pratique. Parce que les stagiaires ont peu de temps et qu’ils veulent rapidement rendre leur pratique professionnelle plus efficace auprès des élèves. On retrouve pour ce principe une modalité déjà abordée à propos du principe précédent : le point de départ de la formation est une ou des pratique(s), qu’il s’agit d’observer, puis d’analyser dans des dispositifs adaptés. Ancrer la formation dans la pratique, c’est aussi relier étroitement l’objectif d’apprentissage à l’exercice de la profession.
On veillera également à ce que la transformation induite par la formation puisse être traduite pendant le stage en termes concrets et observables, pour faciliter la prise de conscience du changement et accélérer le transfert vers la pratique effective. Comme avec les élèves, on peut fixer des objectifs opérationnels, dont on vérifiera à l’aide de critères matériels qu’ils sont ou non atteints. C’est important pour que l’enseignant s’évalue et se situe personnellement, mais aussi pour qu’il considère la formation continue comme un vecteur de progrès : l’engagement futur dans la formation en dépend.

L’ancrage dans la pratique passe souvent par l’élaboration d’un projet de production. Si, par exemple, au terme de la formation, l’enseignant a enrichi une banque d’outils pédagogiques, s’il repart avec une progression dans un domaine qu’il maîtrisait peu, s’il a produit pour son école des documents d’évaluation, il y aura véritablement centration sur la pratique, ce qui permettra de constater aisément le bénéfice retiré.
Enfin, pour rester dans le concret, on peut mettre en place des dispositifs qui valorisent les savoirs d’expériences, ceux qui sont issus de la pratique. Tout dispositif de recherche-action-formation est réflexion, théorisation et expérimentation sur des pratiques : on s’efforce de décrire des gestes professionnels, d’en comprendre les fondements, d’extraire du quotidien des faits, des idées, des principes d’action que l’on relie à des théories de références pour leur donner sens, les formaliser et les diffuser ; pour susciter également une démarche expérimentale grâce à un retour sur le terrain, comme le permettent les dispositifs en plusieurs sessions. Si l’on veut que la formation soit ancrée dans la pratique, il faut qu’à un moment donné, le discours entendu ou produit pendant le stage puisse être mis en œuvre concrètement sur le terrain, que l’on puisse ensuite revenir pour en discuter et échanger avec ceux qui l’ont construit.

2.5.4. La socialisation professionnelle
Le dernier principe de mise en œuvre de la formation continue, c’est de favoriser la socialisation professionnelle. Être enseignant ne signifie pas seulement exercer dans sa classe mais aussi travailler, apprendre et vivre avec d’autres, apprendre et vivre avec d’autres. Modalité évoquée précédemment est efficace également pour ce principe d’action : articuler les projets individuels avec le projet collectif de formation correspond à un double objectif de responsabilisation et de socialisation. Mais, favoriser la socialisation, c’est également:
permettre aussi à chaque stagiaire, au moment de la formation, de comprendre que le
groupe lui a apporté et que chacun a apporté au groupe ; qu’il y a eu un échange réel et
que chacun a eu un rôle à jouer pour le plus grand bénéfice de tous;
travailler avec d’autres, comme on l’a vu plus haut lorsqu’il s’agissait de définir les
compétences de l’enseignant acteur social, travailler avec l’extérieur, en réseau et en
 partenariat, que ce soit avec d’autres enseignants, avec les parents, les partenaires
habituels de l’école ou la société civile en général ; - reconnaître une responsabilité
collective d’auto-évaluation, sans attendre qu’une évaluation externe soit pratiquée. Ce
qui implique que le groupe se donne les moyens de travailler ensemble - formés et
formateur - au suivi, à la régulation et à l’évaluation de ce que l’on fait.

Si l’on veut faire prendre conscience au groupe des bénéfices réciproques, deux méthodes
couvent être privilégiées et combinées. La première est de mettre en place un partage
d’expériences et des échanges de toutes sortes, notamment des échanges de documents, qui
rendent les apports mutuels visibles et durables. La deuxième est de faire des pauses
métodologiques - comme dirait Philippe Mérieux - c’est-à-dire de s’arrêter, de réfléchir, de
mener une activité de métacognition sur ce que l’on vient de faire, de construire, de s’apporter
mutuellement.

Le deuxième axe de socialisation, qui concerne l’ouverture vers l’extérieur, oblige le formateur
t d’apporter le recours à l’extérieur. L’environnement de formation fait par conséquent une place
importante à la documentation, sous forme papier ou numérique, accessible sur place ou à
distance. Dans le même esprit, la recherche d’interlocuteurs extérieurs, personnalités-ressources
ponctuelles ou partenaires habituels, leur accueil dans le groupe ou leur rencontre sur leur lieu
de travail ou de vie, sont autant de moyens de créer un environnement ouvert.

Enfin le troisième axe, celui de l’auto-évaluation, suppose que le groupe se dote d’outils et
s’accorde des moments pour évaluer et réguler en cours de stage et à la fin du stage. Plus
intéressant encore et supposant un investissement plus grand, l’évaluation des productions du
groupe peut intervenir au moment de l’expérimentation dans les classes ou dans un suivi à long
terme, ce qui suppose que le dispositif en donne la disponibilité aux enseignants en formation.
Si l’on veut récapituler rapidement les quatre grands principes de formation et les modalités
qui en découlent, on peut les envisager, dans le tableau de la page suivante, du point de vue de
l’institution, du point de vue des formés et de celui des formateurs.

CONCLUSION
Dans le cadre de ce travail intitulé, formation continue des enseignants du degré initial, un
levier pour la qualité des enseignants en République Démocratique du Congo, nous avons
démontré la nécessité ainsi que l’avantage du renforcement des capacités des enseignants de la
formation initiale en République Démocratique du Congo, afin de relever la qualité de
l’enseignement.

Il est clairement établi que la République Démocratique du Congo quoi qu’ayant fourni d’effort
en ce qui concerne le nombre croissant d’établissements scolaires d’une part, et d’autre part,
se recherchant dans la mise en évidence de la scolarité obligatoire à l’enseignement initiale, il
lui reste à franchir le seuil de la qualité de celui qui passe par la remise à niveau des
enseignants au travers la formation continue répondant aux exigences de la qualité.
Nous avons de ce fait proposé un modèle de type de formation dont le point de départ porterait sur trois pôles de connaissance : le premier sera composé des connaissances relatives aux identités disciplinaires ; le deuxième des connaissances relatives au système éducatif et le troisième des connaissances relatives à la gestion des apprentissages.

La recension des écrits sur l’amélioration de la qualité de l’enseignement, nous ayant indiqué le lien entre la formation continue et le rendement scolaire des élèves dans nombreux pays africains, nous proposons la mise sur pied des stratégies d’amélioration des méthodes d’enseignement traditionnel, essentiellement expéditif, dominé par l’enseignant, reléguant les élèves à un rôle passif, réduisant leur activité en classe à la mémorisation de données, à réciter à l’enseignant, et facilitant surtout l’acquisition d’habilités de niveau taxonomique inférieur par celles qui favorisent de pratiques innovantes, de l’emploi de nouveaux outils didactiques et de nouvelles méthodes pédagogiques. Cette révision ne peut être envisageable que par le renforcement des capacités des acteurs pédagogiques qui sont les enseignants au cours d’une formation continue au regard des modalités préconisant le développement des compétences d’enseignant réflexif, avancé, artisan, technicien, acteur social et épris d’une éthique ainsi que d’une dose de déontologie professionnelle.

Au regard de ce qui précède, nous n’avons pas la prétention d’attribuer le monopole de l’explication des inégalités des rendements scolaires la seule variable formation continue, ni d’avoir épuisé cette enquête, à la vue des facteurs temps et moyens financier qu’imposent une telle recherche dite expérimentale. Cependant, nous lésions une ouverture à tout chercheur qui souhaiterait aborder la question, de continuer avec les investigations sur base une expérimentation.

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2.4

ESSENCE OF ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE: COUNSELLING FOR EFFECTIVE MENTORING

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ABSTRACT
Excellent performance at any stage in life is paramount to great achievement and good success at all levels of human endeavours including scholastic attainment. High academic performance requires thorough progressive guidance, adequate preparations through constant supervisions and mentoring from significant others which include but not limited to the learners, the teachers, school administrators, counselling psychologists and concerned parents. However, some learners are fraught with low academic performance and therefore would perform abysmally low. The low academic performance could be due to many factors. Internal factors within learners and external factors which could be positively managed to increase or activate high academic performance in the learners. This study therefore seeks to establish the synergy between the internal and external factors through effective mentoring to activate high academic performance in learners.

Keywords: Academic Performance, Administrators, Counselling, Effective Mentoring, & School Counsellors.

INTRODUCTION
Outstanding scholastic performance at any level of academic pursuit requires thorough progressive guidance, adequate preparations through constant supervisions and mentoring from significant others which include but not limited to the learners, the teachers, school administrators, counselling psychologists and concerned parents. The level of success students accomplish in academic evaluation has far-reaching implications for students’ personal, developmental and professional lives. Student academic success has an immediate influence on a student’s academic self-esteem and self-efficacy, persistence in more study, and perseverance in complex learning. Success in schooling experiences also ultimately impacts students’ post educational experiences, such as career choice, personal income and level of accomplishment, the progression and nature of participation in community life as well. Thus, the experience a student has in the schooling from primary to secondary, to tertiary or higher school education and beyond, impact significantly on the course of that student’s life: career wise, social-economy wise as well as personal lifestyle enhancement and societal involvement and empowerment.
Academic performance refers to outcome, result or achievement of education as a result of learning within a period of time. The learning outcome also shows the scope of knowledge a student has acquired or that a learner has accomplished specific goals that were the focus of activities in instructional environments. There are many determinants responsible for a student’s success in academic pursuit. These pivots for success in a learner's life start from the home, the parenting style, parental involvement and support, social economic support available, the immediate environment of the learner, the school, the teachers, peers influence, the learners ability interest and attitude towards learning, level of cognitive ability: memory and retention, affective disposition such as increased in intrinsic motivation towards learning and achievement, the internal working mechanism of the learner for instance, determination and level or preparedness for academic success are some of the major factors influencing academic performance.

Concern has been raised about poor academic performance of many students in schools, especially at the secondary/high school major examinations and abysmal performance of many undergraduates at post-secondary education.

This paper will therefore discuss the following sub-headings within the framework of the title (figure 1 below): What is Academic Performance? Importance/Fundamental Essence of Academic Performance, Factors Affecting Academic Performance, Counselling, Mentoring, Essence of academic performance Counselling and Counselling Blocks for Effective Mentoring in Academic Performance.

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE

Counselling for Effective Mentoring in Academic Performance

ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE

Academic performance is a many-sided sequence of intellectual endeavors which results from assessment of students cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains of learning. Academic performance represents achievement outcomes or learning outcome that indicate the extent to which an individual learner has accomplished specific goals that were the focus of activities in an instructional environment, specifically in primary to high school, college, and university.
School systems mostly define cognitive goals that either apply across multiple subject areas (for instance, critical thinking) or include the acquisition of knowledge and understanding in a specific intellectual domain (for instance, numeracy, literacy, science, history). Therefore, academic performance should be considered to be a multifaceted construct that comprises different domains of learning. Because the construct of academic performance is very wide-ranging and covers a broad variety of educational outcomes, the definition of academic performance depends on the indicators used to measure it. Among the many criteria that indicate academic performance, there are very general indicators such as procedural and declarative knowledge acquired in an educational system, more curricular-based criteria such as grades or performance on an educational performance test, and cumulative indicators of academic performance such as educational degrees and certificates. All criteria have in common that they represent intellectual endeavors and thus, more or less, mirror the intellectual capacity of a learner.

Globally, academic performance plays an important role in every person’s life. Richardson, Michelle, Abraham and Bond (2012) averred that academic performance is measured by the GPA (grade point average) for university undergraduates or by standardized assessments designed for selection purpose such as the SAT (Scholastic Assessment Test) WASCE (West Africa School Certificate Examination) these examinations determine whether a student will have the opportunity to continue his or her education at a university level or other higher institutions of learning. Therefore, academic performance defines whether one can take part in higher education, and based on the educational degrees one attains, influences one’s vocational career after education. Besides the relevance for an individual, academic performance is of utmost importance for the wealth of a nation and its prosperity. The strong association between a society level of academic performance and positive socioeconomic development is one reason for conducting international studies on academic performance, such as PISA (Programme for International Student Assessment), administered by the OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development) (Richardson, Michelle, Abraham & Bond, 2012). The exploration of academic performance has led to numerous empirical studies and fundamental progress such as the development of the first intelligence test by Binet-Simon (1905-1908), where intelligence behavior is being measured as general mental ability of individuals and intelligence testing are classified and not measured. This could be seen in the introductory textbook by Woolfolk, (2007) provided theoretical and empirical insight into the determinants of academic performance and its assessment. However, as academic performance is a broad topic, several textbooks have concentrated mainly on selected aspects of academic performance, such as enhancing academic performance or specific predictors of academic performance.

Also, a thorough, short, and informative overview of academic performance is provided in Spinath (2012). Spinath articulated the importance of academic performance with regard to different perspectives (such as for individuals and societies, as well as psychological and educational research). This is an early synthesis of existing research on the educational effects of the time but it still influences current research such as investigations of predictors of academic performance in some of the large-scale academic performance assessment studies (for instance, Programme for International Student Assessment, PISA) (Walberg, 1986). Walberg (1986) discussed the relevance of research syntheses (such as reviews and meta-analyses) as an initial point for the improvement of educational processes. In a recent study, Hattie (2009) provided an overview of the empirical findings on academic performance by distinguishing between individual, home, and scholastic determinants of academic performance.
performance according to theoretical assumptions. However, Spinath (2012) argued that it is more appropriate to speak of “predictors” instead of determinants of academic performance because the mostly cross-sectional nature of the underlying research does not allow causal conclusions to be drawn.

Large-scale scholastic performance assessments such as PISA (OECD, 2010) averred an overview of the current state of research on academic performance, as these studies have investigated established predictors of academic performance on an international level. Furthermore, these studies, for the first time, have enabled nations to compare their educational systems with other nations and to evaluate them on this basis. However, it should be mentioned critically that this approach may, to some degree, overestimate the practical significance of differences between the countries. Moreover, the studies have increased the amount of attention paid to the role of family background and the educational system in the development of students’ academic performance. The quality of teaching, in particular, has been emphasized as a predictor of student performance. Altogether, there are valuable cross-sectional studies investigating many predictors of learners’ academic performance.

FUNDAMENTAL ESSENCE OF ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE
Essentially, academic performance plays significant importance in the life of the students, stakeholders and the society at large. This will be discussed briefly in the following subheadings:

Academic Performance and Achievement
Excellent Academic accomplishment has long been recognized as one of the important goals of education globally. It is also a notable datum that one of the essential needs for the student, in general sense, is the need for achievement and when this need is rendered impossible, various forms of maladjustment are probable consequences. A learner who has failed to make adequate progress in scholastic pursuit has a propensity to cultivate certain types of unacceptable behaviour which could impair both the learner and the community at large.

Academic Performance and Efficacy
Academic success has significant bearing on a student’s self-confidence, enthusiasm, and doggedness in further quest for higher education. Poor academic performance or high failure rates may result in unacceptable levels of attrition.

Students’ academic performance is essential for the development of self-efficacy of the learner as this enhances his self-presentation, developed esteem for greater achievement in the world of work, which invariably has a direct impact in increasing the economy of the society and the nation at large. The more students perform well academically, the better their self-esteem and worth is improved to attempt greater achievements especially in career building; this impacts the society positively to be more developed, well-disciplined and more economically endowed.

Academic performance and decolonised instructional strategies
Knowledge acquired through learning comes with the sensitivity to the student’s self-determination and personal choice. Most learners will be willing to increase effort on academic performance when the curriculum incorporates indigenous knowledge areas which they can readily identify with. These familiar knowledge areas stimulate learners cognitive, affective and motor skills. Fataar (2018) said in a study that “decolonising education is based on the inclusion of all knowledge forms bequeathed to humanity including African, indigenous, Arab-Islamic, Chinese, Hindu, Indo-American, Asiatic, and Western knowledge forms. This all-
inclusive approach to knowledge is based on an inter-cultural understanding of multiple and heterodox forms of being human. All knowledge forms have to be brought into play in intercultural education that promotes a type of epistemic openness to the knowledge of all human beings. This approach would seek to undermine knowledge parochialism, which is the idea that one’s own knowledge system is superior and thus sufficient for complex living. The call is for schools, colleges, and universities to cultivate respect for people and their cultural and knowledge systems (Fataar, 2018). These institutions should make available to their students’ knowledge across the widest possible human spectrum. University curricula should work across the various knowledge and science systems to establish dialogical platforms about actual and potential futures” (Fataar, 2018).

In this chapter, the researchers strongly believe that the outcome of education and schooling is the ability of the learners to apply better ways of doing things, demonstration of sound reasoning ability, creativity and innovative contributions to better self and the society; acquisition of profound knowledge that could propel the individual ahead in life and add value to his ‘environment’ at large.

When academic curricula across all levels of education practices indigenous knowledge inclusive curriculums for instance, most students acquire comparative advantage in application of knowledge, this will have a great effect in most learners’ academic performance abilities, because, practically the system of instructional delivery will help the learners to relate a foreign knowledge in his/her own indigenous understanding. These researchers believe, ought to be the subject of urgent deliberation in policy circles, among curriculum workers, learning materials and textbook designers, and, most importantly, among educators globally.

ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE, PEDAGOGY EFFICACY AND TEACHING STRATEGIES

Students’ academic performance success has significant bearing on teachers’ self-confidence and teaching efficacy. The learners’ performance depicts a major feedback for the teachers’ on one hand and on the other hands represent contributory efforts on the parts of the teachers that had at one time or the other taught the students. Much of the outcome of a learner’s academic performance also has a significant joint effect on the school as part of the learning environment or world of learning of the students; this effect may positively boost the public image of the institution or thump the school’s sense of propriety.

Academic performance and impact on learner’s significant others

Conversely, and most importantly, a student’s successful academic performance has a great effect on the learner’s immediate significant family especially the parents, who will express fulfilment for the learners performance which gives them a sense of gratification for all resources spent wisely. Inversely, the case of a student’s failure will also fill the significant others with a sense of defeat and the feeling of wasted effort and resources. Hence, the successful academic performance of a learner’s scholastic pursuit has overall significant effect on the learner, the teacher, the school, the home, and the society at large.

Factors Affecting Academic Performance

Academic performance is influenced by a number of factors active within and outside the learner. Educators and researchers have long been interested in identifying and understanding the variables that contribute to academic excellence (Farooq, Chaudhry, Shafiq & Berhanu 2011); (Hijazi & Naqvi, 2006) identify demographic, socio-economic, family and school factors as variables contributing to students’ academic performance. Hafiz, Tehsin, Malik, Muhammad and Muhammad (2013) categorized other factors which influence academic
performance into parental involvement, gender three types, namely, intellectual, emotional and environmental factors.

In a study carried out in Georgia by Turashvili and Japaridze (2012), psychological well-being was seen as one of the major determinants of academic performance. In the opinion of Ajila and Olutola (2007), the home has a great influence on the students’ psychological, emotional, social and economic state. In the state of the home affects the individual since the parents are the first socializing agents in an individual’s life. This is because the family background and context of a child affect his reaction to life situations and his level of performance.

In his own submission, Salami (2010), said emotional intelligence, self-efficacy, and psychological well-being (happiness, life satisfaction) are important resources for enhancing students’ learning, success and quality in education.

Likewise, Hughes, Lauder, Robinson, Simiyu, Watson, Strathdee, and Hamlin (1999) highlighted the most important conclusions from qualitative research on factors related to academic performance in schools, these he classifies into: (i) teachers are critical resources to students learning and performance; (ii) the composition of the student body matters, as the facilitate robust and healthy competition among learners which gives an individual student immediate feedback to a learning and academic performance; (iii) schools make a difference, and (iv) physical facilities, class size, curriculum, instructional strategies and other resources influence student learning and academic performance.

External Factors influencing the Learners’ Academic Performance
The external factors are subsumed under mentoring. Effects of mentoring on learners’ academic performance cannot be over emphasized. Mentoring is the process whereby a senior or well experienced individual is consigned directly or indirectly to act as an advisor, counsellor, or guide to a junior individual (Oredein, 2003). The factors identified under the mentoring sub-heading are inclusive, but they are not limited to the following:

A. Home Factors
Parenting styles, parental involvement, social economic status, parent educational background, emotional and psychological climate of the home etc. Primarily, family has obligation to socialize children for making them productive members of society. The more the parents are involved in the process of instilling academic training to their children, the more the children potential to excel in their academic career and to become the productive and responsible members of the society.

B. School Factors
School factors includes; learning environment, school location, school climate, peer pressure, physical facilities such as building laboratories, health facilities, library and library collection, class size, school learning culture, school curriculum, school connectedness, school conveniences, state of the arts facilities for example Internet library, among others.

Students spend most hours of the day within the school learning environment, it is expected therefore, that such an environment will be learners friendly and all the facilities available should stimulate students to enjoy learning. These will hopefully and eventually enhance students’ academic performance.

C. Teacher Factors
Teachers’ pedagogy skills and teaching strategies, teachers’ self-efficacy, teachers - students’ relationship, teachers’ emotional self-efficacy, teachers cognitive efficacy teachers commitment and motivation, teachers continuous training and retraining to mention few. Teachers are a very major and essential resource of students’ academic performance. The combine efforts of many instructors and competent pedagogy skills and strategies contribute a great deal to the concerted effort of the learner in his or her overall academic performance.

**Internal Factors influencing the Learners’ Academic Performance**

The factors identified under each sub-heading are all inclusive but are not limited to the following:

**Learner Factors**

1. Demographic variables: gender, age, ethnicity, race etc. all the demographic variables mentioned above contribute to the learners academic efficacy in one way or the other, all these jointly impact on the academic performance of the student.
2. Cognitive Factors: intelligence quotient, intellectual capability, mental health etc. These factors are influence by the learner’s memory and brain power. The ability of a learner to assimilate, accommodate, and process large amount of information, apply, synthesize, utilize information to get the desired results are all function of cognitive factors which are major determinants of academic performance.
3. Affective Factors: interest and learning readiness, individual differences, attitudes and belief, perception and academic orientation, emotional disposition learning styles, etc. when an individuals
4. Motor Skills: physical health

**Consequences of Poor Academic Performance** (PAP)

The need for achievement and academic success is the very uppermost desire of the learners including many stakeholders in the life of the learners. When this need is rendered impossible, various forms of maladjustment are probable consequences. A learner who has failed to make adequate progress in scholastic pursuit has a propensity to cultivate certain types of unacceptable behaviour which could impair both the learner and the community at large. Poor academic performance has debilitating effect on the life of the student’s psychological, social and economic outcomes which impact on the progress of the community as a whole.

Poor academic performance (PAP) can be described as an academic achievement below expectation for a student’s age, level, cognitive skills, and knowledge acquisition. PAP could occur from many possible causes. These probable factors comprise:

**External Factors such as:**
- Physical and social environment,
- School facilities and school environment,
- Educational resources,
- Teachers’ pedagogy skills and strategies of delivery,
- Social economy status and Educational background of parents, to mention few

**Internal Factors such as:**
- Learner's genetic inheritance,
- Intelligence,
- Readiness and interest,
- Aptitudes and talents,
Learning ability to mention few

No matter the cause or causes of PAP consequences include psychological distress (low self-esteem, discouragement). Social and economic anguish (in not meeting up and derive satisfaction from all resources put together). Academic failure reduces a student’s self-confidence, weakens enthusiasm, and renders the learners unenergetic in pursuit of further quest for higher education. Poor academic performance or high failure rates may result in unacceptable levels of attrition both on the part of the learners and the society.

Successful academic performance is essential for the development of self-efficacy but where academic failure is recurrent, the learner develops distorted view of self, self-presentation will be negatively affected, and low self-esteem will plague the student resulting into lack of motivation for greater achievement in the world of work, which invariably has a direct impact on the societal economy at large.

The more students perform abysmally academically, the more their self-esteem and worth is negatively and grossly affected. Consequently, distressing further efforts at greater achievements especially in career building; this impacts the society negatively; hampering intellectual growth, social development which might lead to economic meltdown.

Students’ academic failure has significant bearing on teachers’ service confidence and teaching efficacy because the learners’ poor academic performance is a negative feedback for the teachers’ on one hand and on the other hand, affect the school as part of the learning environment negatively. Failure as a performance affects the image of the institution of learning or thumps the school’s sense of propriety.

Equally, and most importantly, a student’s poor academic performance has a great effect on the learner’s immediate family especially the parents, who will experience a form of discouragement for the learners’ performance which gives them a sense of un-fulfilment for all resources invested on the academic course. Also, a student’s failure will fill the significant others with a sense of defeat and the feeling of wasted effort and resources. Hence, the overall academic performance of a learner’s scholastic pursuit has overall significant effect on the learner, the teacher, the school, the home, and the society at large either positively or negatively.

**Counselling**

Counselling is described as variety of active strategies, procedures used in assisting an individual student in solving problems which arise in various aspect of his life especially in attaining success in academic performance or in assisting him to maximize his overall personal development so that he could be more effective, satisfied, and more useful to self, others, and in the society which he lives (Akinade, 2012). As a practice, counselling combines many forms of services to humanity globally including educational, vocational, psychosocial and personal information that are preventative, curative, restructuring and generative in nature. Psychologists apply counselling as a constructive practice for helping anybody regardless of the age, including children, adolescents, and adults. People of all races and different walks of life in families, marriages, industries, non-governmental establishments and government institutions, especially educational institutions such as elementary schools, secondary schools, colleges, universities, have utilized the benefits of educational counselling services and
therapies for individual and collective self-growth, self-restructuring and self-development (Killian, 2018).

Educational psychologists apply counselling strategies in educational settings such as elementary schools, secondary schools, colleges, universities to enhance academic performance at the various educational levels. Educational psychologists and school counsellors provide the needed platform for individual students or group of students to rediscover themselves, make positive choices among various available options for best and optimum academic attainment in life. These are achieved through applications of many counselling strategies focused on constant trainings and retraining of significant others in the learners’ lives including parents, educators, teachers, and school administrative teams.

**Mentoring**

Mentoring is a dynamic interaction between a more knowledgeable person (mentor) and a less knowledgeable person (mentee) that raises the mentee to the pedestal of high and positive achievement as an overall learning outcome. It is defined as support and encouragement given to a person to manage his/her own learning in order that they may maximize their skills, improve their performance and become the person they want to be. Anderson and Shannon (1988); Oredein (2003) averred that mentoring relationship is a nurturing process in which a more skilled or experienced person (parent, teacher, school counsellor or counselling psychologist) serving as a role model, teaches, sponsors, encourages, counsels and befriends or supports a less skilled or less experienced person /pupil/learner/student. Mentoring involves more than advising; it develops from an extended relationship in which both the mentor and student focus on the student’s academic, career, and personal growth. Many mentoring relationships extend well beyond graduate school and continue throughout the student’s career. According to the National Council of Graduate Schools and the National Institutes of Health, mentors are:

- **Advisors**, who have career experience and are willing to share their knowledge,
- **Supporters**, who provide emotional and moral encouragement,
- **Tutors**, who give specific feedback on one’s performance,
- **Supervisors**, who monitor their students’ academic and professional progress,
- **Trainers**, who teach students about professional responsibility,
- **Sponsors**, who are sources of information about opportunities and assist students in obtaining them, and
- **Role models**, who exhibit the qualities and ethical values that academics should posses (NIH, 1999; Zelditch, 2001).

**Essence of Academic Performance Counselling**

Outstanding academic performance is vital to a learner’s academic accomplishments as well as overall life attainment in scholastic pursuit. Almost every learner wishes to have good academic success. Parents, Schools, Teachers are among the most powerful influences in facilitating learners’ successful academic performance process. When all these significant stakeholders in the students’ lives exhibit and implement their responsibilities and role functions as required in the learners lives, then learners only have to concentrate in maximizing all available resources externally and internally to attain efficient academic accomplishment.

The student life is getting complex daily. Counselling is needed to help the students for optimum academic performance and adequate adjustment in the varied life situations. Need analysis of the students in the schools shows the need of Guidance and counselling services, in
the education, vocation, and social, and health, moral, personal, and especially academic performance of learners. Counselling programme needs to be introduced in our schools including primary schools, secondary schools, colleges and universities to meet the varied needs of the educational system, administration, and learner’s academic challenges (Nayak, 1997).

**Academic Performance Counselling helps students attain the following:**

i. Help in the total development of the students cognitive, affective and psycho motive skills in learning.

ii. Counseling helps the students to have a better self-understanding and proper adjustment to self, academic demands and the society.

iii. Develop of proper motivation and clarification of goals.

iv. Total development of the student necessitates that individual differences among them are expected, accepted, understood, and planned for.

v. To help students in the proper choices of courses and placement.

vi. To help students in the proper choice of careers

vii. To help the students in their vocational development

viii. To develop readiness for choices and changes to face new challenges

ix. To minimize the mismatching between education and employment and help in the efficient use of manpower.

x. To motivate the learners for independence study habits, skills and techniques.

xi. Counselling service is needed to help students deal effectively with problem solving, critical thinking skills and application of knowledge in practice for better academic performance.

xii. To help students in checking wastage of time necessary for studying.

xiii. To assist students to maintain routine of allocated time for study and avoid stagnation

xiv. To identify and help students in need of special help. There are such students as the gifted, the backward, and the handicapped who need special opportunities. They need special attention and opportunities especially in the area of academic work.

xv. To ensure the proper utilization of time spent outside the classrooms. The manner in which students spend their non-class hours clearly affects their success in achieving both academic competence and personal development of all types. A positive direction to students should be provided by influencing how they can use those non-class hours.

xvi. To help in tackling problems arising out of students population explosion

xvii. To check migration to prevent brain drain

xviii. To make up for the deficiencies of home.

xix. To minimize the incidence of indiscipline and examination malpractices. Majority of the students lack a sense of direction, a sense of purpose and a sense of fulfillment. This category of students may indulge in destructive activities, which lead to social damage and loss. Adequate guidance and counseling facilities is the only answer to help and guide the learners to worthwhile channels and help them realize the goals of optimum academic development (Nayak, 1997).
Parental involvement in academic performance is very crucial in many aspects. Parental involvement includes; regular support with finance, good nutrition and balanced diet for sound health. Also, the regular motivation and encouragement of the learners in studying (fig. 2 above) is vital.

CONCLUSION
Students success in academic performance has overall significant impact on the learners academic self-efficacy, on teachers’ self-confidence and teaching efficacy on one hand and on the other hands represent contributory efforts on the parts of the teachers that had at one time or the other taught the students. Much of the outcome of a learner’s academic performance also has a significant joint effect on the school as part of the learning environment or world of learning of the students; this effect may positively boost the public image of the institution or thump the school’s sense of propriety.

Conversely, and most importantly, a student’s successful academic performance has a great effect on the learner’s immediate significant family especially the parents or guardians, who will express fulfilment for the learners performance which gives them a sense of gratification for all resources used wisely. Inversely, the case of a student’s failure will also fill the
significant others with a sense of defeat and the feeling of wasted effort and resources. Hence, the successful academic performance of a learner’s scholastic pursuit has overall significant effect on the learner, the teacher, the school, the home, and the society at large.

Students’ academic performance requires a joint effort and necessary commitment for all stakeholders, therefore:

1. Parental effective involvement in academic mentoring, financial provision and physical as well as emotional support is highly necessary.
2. The school environment, climate, structure, academic resources should all be tailored to meet the demands and academic requirements of the students.
3. Teachers as facilitators of academic processes should improve on pedagogy skills and strategies progressively, have unconditional positive regard for self and their students.
4. Students should be consistently positive that they can actualize successful academic performance; this should be backed up with positive attitude towards learning. Establish study routines, good rapport with parents’ teachers, and peers.
5. The society should complement the individual and collective roles of all stakeholders in the education of the learners in every capacity useful for man and his environment.

REFERENCES


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2.5

THE USE OF BERNSTEIN WORK IN ANALYSING TEACHER EDUCATORS’ PROFESSIONAL KNOWLEDGE AND PRACTICE IN A MED PROGRAMME

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ABSTRACT
The on-going and unresolved issue of poor quality and performance of schooling in Tanzania created the impetus for a study focused on teacher education. The quality of teaching in schools is seen as being linked to the quality of teacher education by university-based teacher educators. To become a teacher educator in Tanzania one needs to have a Master of Education (MEd) degree. This Chapter describes how I worked with Bernstein’s concepts of classification in analysing the curriculum components of the MEd programme to generate insights for understanding how the programme’s courses (singulars) are recontextualised as a region of professional teaching knowledge and practice for teacher educators. I conclude the chapter with an argument that the MEd programme needs to be developed sufficiently from a strong relation of appropriate disciplinary courses to recontextualise and construct a form of professional knowledge that enables the development of teacher educator professional practice.

Keywords: Bernstein, Master of Education Programme, Professional Knowledge, Professional Practice & Teacher Educator.

INTRODUCTION
The poor performance of school education in Tanzania has been on-going situation since independence (URT, MoEC, 2000; HakiElimu, 2007; Dennis & Stahley, 2012). It is been argued that upgrading teacher quality would be the best investment a country could make to improve the educational attainment of school children (URT, 2001; OECD, 2005; HakiElimu, 2009). With such research argument, many concerns have been raised in Tanzania around the professionalism of school teachers (HakiElimu, 2008; Kanisi, 2012; Dladla & Moon, 2013; Fidelis, 2013). However, research also shows that the quality of school teachers’ professionalism is linked to the quality of training by their teacher educators (Liston, Borko & Whitcomb, 2008; Goodwin & Kosnik, 2013). Yet, compared to teachers, teacher educators, and their respective teacher education, receive relatively little attention in Tanzania.

There is a paucity of research on the education of teacher educators. A study by Chambulila (2013), on Bachelor of Education programmes that prepare school teachers in Tanzania raises a concern about the effectiveness of the professional development of teacher educators who teach these programmes. Of significance to this study is the finding that teacher education of
school teachers has ‘underqualified personnel and ineffective professional development strategies in terms of its teacher educators’ (Chambulila, 2013, p. 114; see also URT. MoEC, 2001).

Chambulila’s study raises questions pertinent to the quality of teacher educators and their training. A Master of Education (MEd) is a formal professional development programme in Tanzania that serves to prepare teacher educators. In this chapter, I describe how I worked with Bernstein’s concepts of classification in analysing the curriculum components of the MEd programme in Kilimanjaro University (KU) (pseudonym) in Tanzania. I first describe teacher educators’ roles and then establish a structure of education for teacher educators which ensures a reasonable balance between academic content and pedagogical knowledge for teacher teaching based on the literature. I then describe curriculum structure of the MEd programme and work with Bernstein’s concepts to generate insights of understanding how the programme’s courses are recontextualised as a region of professional teaching knowledge and practice. I end the chapter with an argument that the MEd programme needs to be developed sufficiently from a strong relation of appropriate disciplinary courses. I hope that this argument will inspire expert teacher educators to recontextualise and construct MEd professional knowledge that enables the development of teacher educators with quality professional practice for quality school teachers and school education.

TEACHER EDUCATORS’ ROLES: PROFESSIONAL PRACTICE
Teacher educators in Tanzania are people, in teacher colleges or university education faculties, who educate students teachers enrolled in teacher education programmes. Normally these teacher educators were once school teachers. This may suggest that being teacher would make them good teacher educators. However, there is evidence that the requirements for teaching teachers are different to those for teaching pupils (Loughran, 2014). Literature argues that, although there are similarities in teaching children and teaching teachers, there are many important ways in which the two kinds of teaching differ. School teaching experience alone cannot be the sole or primary basis for teacher teaching and one’s expertise, as a teacher, does not necessarily translate into expertise as a teacher of teachers (Berry, 2009; Williams & Ritter, 2010; Field, 2012).

Teacher educators have a ‘double commitment’ role as they are not only responsible for teaching school teachers, but, indirectly, also for teaching of their future pupils (Ben-Peretz, Kleeman, Reichenberg & Shimon, 2010, p. 118). They have to demonstrate the ability to cope simultaneously with teaching and training student teachers to teach (Ben-Peretz et al., 2010). In this way, the knowledge required by the teacher educators, in many ways, is far more extensive than that required of school teachers (Berry, 2009; Swennen, Shagrir & Cooper, 2009).

Besides teaching student teachers, teacher educators’ roles in university education faculties are more ‘complex’ as they include heavy teaching loads, large classes, teaching for long hours, working with adult learners, pressure to engage in research, supervising student teachers, curriculum design and collaboration with other faculties (Swennen, et al., 2009, p. 93). Hence, the beginning teacher educators, who are good school teachers, become novices in their new profession. Thus, it is necessary to pay careful attention to what teacher educators need to know to enable them to meet the complex demands of preparing teachers.
TEACHER EDUCATORS’ NEEDS: PROFESSIONAL KNOWLEDGE
In spite of the fact that teacher educators are responsible for the quality of school teachers and school children, preparation of them and development of their knowledge of teaching teachers is an area that receives scant attention in teacher education research. One reason being that knowledge of teaching teachers has not been valued as a form of specialised expertise within academia compared with other disciplinary fields such as educational management (Lunenberg & Hamilton, 2008) and has been generally taken for granted as non-problematic (Murray, Swennen & Shagrir, 2009; Field, 2012).

Researchers, who have published studies on the way they became expert teacher educators, disagree that knowledge and practice of teaching teachers is not challenging (see Wood & Borg, 2010; Williams, Ritter & Bullock, 2012). Berry (2009) confesses that: “as a beginning teacher educator, I soon came to learn that the professional knowledge I had developed in my former role as a high school teacher was limited in terms of enacting a pedagogy of teacher education” (p. 310). Williams and Ritter (2010) talked of a teacher educator who had approximately 25 years’ experience of teaching in primary schools in Australia. This teacher educator, although she taught for four years in a casual tutoring position in teacher education programmes while undertaking her doctoral studies, did not feel that she had developed a strong identity as a teacher educator (pp. 78-79). It is hence argued that, a process of being a teacher educator must include the requisite training and building of a body of specific knowledge to grant teacher educators an understanding of teaching that goes beyond that of being a good teacher, and involves knowing and being able to articulate the ‘what’ and the ‘how’ of teaching (McKeon & Harrison, 2010, p. 26).

The ‘what’ of teacher educators: academic content knowledge
The academic content knowledge, or theoretical knowledge, which includes personal knowledge, contextual knowledge, sociological knowledge, social knowledge and research knowledge, form the ‘what’ of teacher educators (Goodwin & Kosnik, 2013, p. 338). In terms of personal knowledge, Murray and Male (2005) argue that teacher educators enter the profession with many implicit theories about what it means to teach. They bring particular knowledge, experience, beliefs and values to their new role, developed primarily through their interactions in schools (Berry, 2009). Owing to that, teacher educators require formal preparation which includes ‘restructuring their cognitive maps with reformed and/or new understandings’ (Richardson, as quoted by Goodwin & Kosnik, 2013, p. 339), as ‘a process of re-constructing a professional identity’ (Bullock & Christou, as quoted by Goodwin & Kosnik, 2013, p. 339). Through self-study, self-analysis and self-reflection, novice teacher educators can critically unearth the beliefs, (mis)conceptions, attitudes, assumptions, and biases embedded in their personal histories (Goodwin & Kosnik, 2013, p. 339).

Sociological knowledge is seen as important for teacher educators; it equips them with knowledge of diversity, cultural relevance, and social justice. These are essential for teacher educators if they are to prepare prospective teachers to deal with equity and diversity issues in their classrooms. Furthermore, if teachers are expected to create classroom environments in which cooperation, democratic group processes and conflict resolution are valued, then teacher educators need social knowledge to understand and model these processes in teacher education programmes (Goodwin & Kosnik, 2013).

Teacher educators also need contextual knowledge for understanding students, schools, and society. This includes knowledge of the physical environments of schools and classrooms as well as the student teachers, including for example, who they are as adult learners and how
their histories and personal narratives shape the ways in which they perceive, define and do teaching (Goodwin & Kosnik, 2013). It also includes knowledge gained through research, which presumes knowledge of how to do research (p. 340).

As indicated earlier, many teacher educators have been former teachers in schools, or tutors in teacher colleges. In both cases, they have to be acquainted with the demands of higher education, including research. Research courses in education programmes for teacher educators are supposed to equip novice teacher educators with three areas of knowledge and skills. They provide the knowledge of research approaches, theories, methods and methodology; the skills of designing and doing research including using software in analysis and current tools in data collection; and the skills of supervising student teachers’ research papers and independent studies (Murray et al., 2009; Patrizio, Ballock & McNary, 2011). Zeichner (2005) offers cautions on the lack of research knowledge in the education of teacher educators. He contends that it inhibits them from seeing their practice in new ways that challenge their prevailing perceptions. It also impedes them from knowing what has been learned by teacher educators in other programmes about particular aspects of teacher education such as instructional strategies (pp. 122-123). In other words, theoretical knowledge helps teacher educators perform better in their profession when it is based on knowledge of research.

The ‘how’ of teacher educators: pedagogical knowledge
As ‘teacher education involves teaching about pedagogy’ (McKeon & Harrison, 2010, p. 26), it has been argued that teacher educators are in need of a more comprehensive pedagogical knowledge of teacher education (Swinnen & van der Klink, 2009). Loughran (2007) adds that ‘doing teaching to student teachers requires deep and well-conceptualised understanding of pedagogy that are developed, articulated, critiqued and refined in the crucible of practice itself’ (p. 14).

Goodwin and Kosnik (2013) mention the pedagogical knowledge of teacher educators as involving teaching methods, pedagogical content knowledge, disciplinary knowledge and curriculum design, all of which must be included in their preparation programmes (p. 340). However, the overarching problem, as identified by Ball (2000), is the fact that the predominant conceptualisation and organisation of teacher educator programmes tends to fragment practice. This presents a challenge to individual teacher educators in terms of incorporating academic content knowledge and pedagogy into their work. Yet pedagogical knowledge, including pedagogical content knowledge, is more frequently found to influence teaching performance. It exerts even stronger effects on teaching and learning than that of theoretical knowledge.

Shulman (1987) describes pedagogical content knowledge as a special knowledge because ‘it identifies the distinctive bodies of knowledge for teaching. It represents the blending of content and pedagogy into an understanding of how particular topics, problems, or issues are organized, represented, and adapted to the diverse interests and abilities of learners, and presented for instruction’ (p. 8). Thus, a focus on pedagogical content knowledge is to make pedagogical content knowledge understandable to students.

MEd CURRICULUM STRUCTURE
The MEd programme in the Kilimanjaro University (KU) is a two-year postgraduate programme. The key components of its curriculum include programme rationale; general and specific objectives; structure of the programme; admission qualifications; methods of instructions; curriculum courses and their objectives, topics, teaching methods, assessment and references.
According to the curriculum document the MEd programme was established to train educationalists including lecturers and administrators needed to cater for the expansion of schools and other education institutions in the country (MEd curriculum document, 2009, p. 1). The programme was also established to absorb a mass of qualified bachelor of education applicants who could not enrol in Master of Education degree due to the limited space in the only two existed programmes. Because of this, the university claimed the assurance of getting enough applicants for this MEd programme (p. 2). The programme was however closed only after four academic years due to lack of applicants. Both the MEd curriculum document and the 2012/2015 KU Prospectus provide similar general and specific objectives of the programme as stated below:

General objective of the MEd programme is to produce Master of Education graduates equipped with improved quality of professional skills who could be deployed in various fields of education. Graduates of the MEd degree programme would have opportunities in secondary schools as school heads, teachers training colleges as tutors, or college principals and in universities as assistant lecturers in relevant education courses (MEd curriculum document, 2009, p. 2; KU Prospectus, 2012/2015, p. 57).

Specific objectives of the MEd programme are:
- To enable students to broaden and deepen their professional knowledge and skills so that after completing the programme they should be conversant with current professional issues, be able to use research and observation findings in order to keep abreast with other emerging education issues.
- To equip students with knowledge and theories, skills and tools of teaching and learning so that they should develop a philosophy of education for their advancement.
- To train education experts in different areas of specialization to contribute towards reducing shortage of high level human resource in the education industry.
- To equip the students with skills and knowledge to enable them to do research, plan, design and develop education curricula targeting different audiences and levels, to work as tutors of teachers’ training colleges, assistant lecturers in education courses in universities and in other sub-sectors of the ministry of education and vocational training (MEd curriculum document, 2009, 2-3; KU Prospectus, 2012/2015, p. 58).

Structurally, the MEd programme is composed of three course work semesters and one semester to write a dissertation. The curriculum consists of eleven core and nine elective courses from which students choose one to study in each of the three course work semesters (see Table 1). Students are supposed to study four core courses in each of the first two semesters, and three core courses in the third semester (MEd curriculum document, 2009, p. 4).
Table 1: MEd courses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year 1</th>
<th>Year 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Semester I</td>
<td>Semester II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Core courses</strong></td>
<td><strong>Electives</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum planning, theory, design and development</td>
<td>Professional ethics for educators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparative education</td>
<td>History and philosophy of education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research methodology</td>
<td>Special education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Test construction, measurement, educational statistics and evaluation</td>
<td>Sociology of education</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: MEd curriculum document (2009, pp. 8-9).

**BERNSTEIN’S CLASSIFICATION CONCEPTS: CLASSIFICATION OF MEd**

Bernstein uses the concept *classification* to describe the basic structure of a curriculum. Classification refers to ‘the degree of boundary maintenance between contents’ (Sadovnik, 1991, p. 52). It is concerned with the insulation or boundaries between curricular categories (areas of knowledge and subjects or courses) (Bernstein, 2000; see also Beck & Young, 2005; Middleton, 2008). Classification can either be weak (C-) or strong (C+). The strength of the boundary maintains the identity, the distinctive voice and specialisation of the category (Bernstein, 2000). Subjects or courses with weak classification have less specialised identities, voices and discourses (p. 7).
Classification, in a programme, refers to the degree of separateness of the knowledge within the MEd programme. It is concerned with boundaries between the programme courses. A strongly classified programme has more clearly bounded courses, with fewer relationships between them, and so would maintain the disciplinary identity and specialisation of each course. Alternatively, a weakly classified programme would be one that emphasises integration, or weaker boundaries between courses, and between topics within specific courses.

**MEd multiple specialisations: Multiple disciplinary and general education courses**

Bernstein contends that the classification relationship between the identity and specialisation of the categories (courses) is not simply structural. He claims that the form taken by educational practices – that is, their degree of specificity, the extent to which practices are specialized to categories – depends entirely upon the professional relation between these categories. He maintains that if categories of either agents or discourses are specialised, then each category necessarily has its own specific identity and specific boundaries (Bernstein, 1990, p. 23; see also Beck & Young, 2005). According to the MEd curriculum document, the programme’s main objectives include training teacher educators, namely teacher college tutors and university assistant lecturers who teach education courses to school teachers. However, the programme also aims to produce other categories of agents such as school heads, examination officials, educational planners and administrators. Hence, the programme consists of a collection of multiple disciplinary courses (Table 2); its aim is to have multiple specialisations.

These multiple disciplinary courses have their own specific identity and specific boundaries. When incorporated into the MEd programme, each brings its own specific specialisation that aims to produce specific categories of agents. Adult education, for example, is a course that intends to produce trainers to teach youths and adults who did not receive education in the appropriate school age. They are strongly classified (C+) courses, with clearly bounded specialisations. Their degree of specificity limits integration and the professional relation to teacher educators’ knowledge and practices.

**Table 2: MEd multiple disciplinary and general education courses**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Multiple disciplinary courses</th>
<th>General education courses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Educational policy and planning</td>
<td>1. Comparative education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Adult education</td>
<td>2. Contemporary education issues in East Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Management of education and school administration.</td>
<td>3. History and philosophy of education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Special education</td>
<td>4. Gender development and education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Economics of education</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Environmental education</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: MEd curriculum document (2009, pp. 8-9)*

In addition to the multiple disciplinary courses, the programme also consists of several general education courses as shown in Table 2. It seems that the inclusion of some of them is to add courses in the programme. Their inclusion is questioned as they denote the accumulation and repetition of courses and topics inconsiderate of their relevance to teacher educator profession that the programme intends to develop. In other words, padding the programme.

The History and Philosophy of Education course, for example, contains topics such as meaning of philosophy; studies of philosophers like Plato and Aristotle; branches of philosophy; and application of knowledge of philosophy when making lesson plans (MEd curriculum document 2009, 25-26). These bachelor of education topics are relevant for what is taught to school
teachers. The MEd entry qualification is to possess a bachelor degree in education which means that these postgraduate students have already learned these topics. This implies the accumulation and repetition of irrelevant knowledge for teacher educators.

The repetition of topics is also shown between Comparative education and Contemporary Education Issues in East Africa courses. The latter is composed of topics that are also taught in the Comparative education course. Contemporary Education Issues in East Africa is a course that is concerned with education systems in Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania, comparing their quality of education, quality of curriculum, teachers and others (MEd curriculum document, 2009, 48-49). The Comparative education course also has topics on the similarities and difference in education systems in different countries of the world and within East African. It discusses the advantages and disadvantage of different education systems, particularly in relation to the context of East Africa and Tanzania (14). In other words, Contemporary Education Issues in East Africa is a repetition of topics in the Comparative Education course.

In addition to accumulation and repetition, these general education courses, like the multiple disciplinary courses, are strongly classified (C+) courses. The difference between these courses is that the latter relate to their disciplines, whereas the former are not directly related to any of the specialities that the MEd programme intend to produce. This means they are more strongly classified (C++). This concurs with one of the participant’s statement about the nature of this MEd programme: ‘it is like an undergraduate programme with so many different courses’ (interview, 10 February, 2015).

**Boundaries between MEd courses**

 Bernstein argues that the specialty of each category, for example, teacher educator, educational administrator, school inspector, is created, maintained and reproduced only if the relations between the categories are preserved. The insulation or boundaries between the categories should be preserved. He adds that it is the insulation between the categories which creates a space in which a category can become specific (Bernstein, 2000).

Basically, insulation or boundaries are the critical point for definition of the courses and hence of knowledge and practice of a particular specialisation. For example, according to the curriculum, the Test Construction, Measurement, Educational Statistics and Evaluation course in Table 1 is supposed to develop examination officials and should remain insulated to create that specialisation. Literature reveals that evaluation is included in the role of teacher educators (Swennen, et al., 2009). The question that arises here is: how do the courses in this programme influence the structuring of the teacher educators’ professional practices if their insulation needs to be preserved for other specialisations? To put it another way, if the insulations of courses need to be preserved for other specialisations, the programme becomes strongly classified (C+). The ability of this programme to develop quality teacher educators is then narrowed.

**Boundaries within and between MEd course topics**

Classification further provides a theoretical language for explaining the relationship between topics within a specific course. Topics within a course may be treated individually or may be related to each other. In this way, it is possible to have a weak classification within-course where topics within a course are integrated or a strong classification within-course where topics are treated separately. For example, qualitative and quantitative research topics in the Research Methodology course, though they are different approaches, are taught together within each of the course topics. This creates weak classification within-course (C-) due to topics integration.
and hence results into achievement of knowledge and skills on mixed research methods to students. The findings also reveal that both approaches are taught by the same lecturer, further show the lecturer’s ability to teach students how to use both approaches in research.

The relationship between the topics in different courses in the MEd programme is among the issues described using Bernstein classification concepts. A course is categorised as it has weak or strong across-course classification if its topics are integrated or bounded, respectively. A course such as Educational Policy and Planning which contain topics such as policy making, policy analysis and evaluation, and aspects that affect educational planning, intends to develop its own specific categories of agents, policy makers and educational planners, for example. This course shows weak relation to other courses and hence represents strong across-course classification (C+) due to its strongly bounded topics. That is to say while courses in the MEd programme are strongly classified, the knowledge within and between courses is also strongly bounded, with little relation to each other and to the teacher educator professional knowledge and practice. The findings from the analysis of the topics in different MEd courses led to the discussion on how much these courses characterise teacher educators’ professional knowledge and practice. A discussion on whether these courses are relevant singulars to incorporate in a region of teacher educator is presented.

Singulars and regions
Bernstein’s classification concepts also allow for another useful way of categorising the courses or subjects in the programme, namely, singulars and regions. He uses singulars and regions as a way of classifying disciplines (Bernstein, 2000). Singulars, in Bernstein’s words:

are knowledge structures whose creators have appropriated a space to give themselves a unique name, a specialised discrete discourse with its own intellectual field of texts, practices, rules of entry, examinations, licences to practice, distribution of rewards and punishments (2000, p. 52).

Bernstein refers to discrete discourses such as chemistry, physics, sociology and psychology as singulars (2000, p. 9). They are similar to the courses in the MEd programme for example Sociology of Education and Psychology of Human Growth and Development. He argues that these singulars address only themselves. They are disciplines with strong classification, producing a discourse which is only about themselves. They are protected by strong boundaries and hierarchies, and oriented to their own development (see also Middleton 2008; Beck and Young 2005 on similar descriptions).

Bernstein talks of a singular boundary not being always ‘a prison of the past but a tension point which condenses the past yet opens the possibilities of the future’ (Bernstein & Solomon, 1999, p. 273). He speaks about changes undergone by singulars from being previously strongly classified disciplines to developing a ‘regionalisation of knowledge’ in a certain professional field (Bernstein, 2000, p. 9). Regionalisation, according to Bernstein, is the recontextualising of singulars to create a region. Medicine is an example of a region. It has recontextualised singulars such as biology and chemistry into a professional field of practice, which is medicine. Thus, the disciplines of biology and chemistry are selected and appropriated to form part of the region of medicine to meet the requirements of professional medicine work (Hordern, 2016). Thus, for a MEd programme to be a region, a professional field of practice for teacher educators, the regionalisation of knowledge should be realised by recontextualising appropriately selected singulars. As a region, the programme needs to face inwards towards its singulars and the knowledge they make possible and outwards towards practice-orientated
competences necessary for the professional tasks of teacher educators. Thus, a region is seen as having inherent boundary weaknesses of singular classification, building knowledge relations between them, and faces both ways: inwards towards singulars and outwards to the field of practice (Bernstein, 2000; Hordern, 2016).

As indicated, the MEd programme aims to produce graduates of different specialisations. In attempting to develop these specialisations, the programme draws on multiple strongly classified courses that construct clear boundaries between themselves and other singulars. Hence the focus is implicitly on developing the regionalisation of knowledge for the professional practice of teacher educators. These singulars construct distinct, highly calibrated and specialised disciplinary identities, which entail both the possession of specialised knowledge and specialised dispositions to certain forms of conduct regarding their own disciplinary matters (Muller & Young, 2014, p. 131). Thus, education administrators, for instance, are not only distinct from each other (e.g. a school headmaster is different from a college principle), but also especially distinct from education planners or school inspectors and teacher educators. This means that a singular, Management of Education and School Administration, for example, has limited relation to Educational Policy and Planning (Table 2), and is entirely insulated from teacher educators’ preparation courses such as Design and Development of Teaching Materials (Table 3). Yet this one programme aims to produce all these specialisations, and more (MEd curriculum document, 2009, pp. 2-3). This is also the same for general education courses, Gender Development and Education, for example. As described above, these are more strongly classified courses because they are not directly related to any singular in the programme. Knowledge of these courses has little relation with teacher educator knowledge and practice.

The problem is that when these singulars are brought into a region, they remain singulars, and students therefore struggle to move between these strongly bounded courses and the more integrated professional field of practice. The reason for this being that, these courses come to the region with different underlying goals. To put it another way, they do not become weakly classified by just adding them in the programme. The Management of Education and School Administration course in Table 1, for example, according to the description of the course in the course outline, has been taken from the management programme called Master of Education Management (MEM). The course, according to its objectives, is intended for postgraduate students in the area of educational management. It is being offered in the MEd programme the way it is in its original MEM programme, aiming to develop specialisations such as school heads and educational managers. Its content and topics such as management theories and qualities of effective school leadership, have limited relation to teacher educator’s professional knowledge and practices. The knowledge is strongly classified (C+). This illustrates that moving from being a singular on its own, to being part of a region does not change the insulation of the course.

With such singulars of the MEd, the recontextualisation process within the programme becomes increasingly complex (Hordern, 2016) resulting in weak regionalisation of teacher educator professional knowledge. The MEd programme, therefore, constructs a weak region for teacher educators’ professional practice (Figure 1), due to the weak relations between its singulars.
Bernstein talks of the strength of the professional identity as depending on the strength of relation caused by the classificatory weakness of singulars within the region (Bernstein & Solomon, 1999; Beck & Young, 2005). Thus, to become a stronger region for teacher educator education, the MEd programme needs to develop sufficiently strong relations between the knowledge within its singulars to construct a form of professional education that enables the development of professional identity and practice for teacher educators. For this to happen, recontextualisation of appropriate and sufficient singulars incorporating the ‘what’, and the ‘how’ of teacher educator knowledge and practice, is essential. However, the analysis of the MEd curriculum revealed that the programme has few essential courses for teacher educators’ preparation. It lacks large parts of the knowledge domain of the ‘what’ and the ‘how’ of teacher educators, the academic content and the pedagogical knowledge discussed in the literature. Table 3 shows a few courses that carry the teacher educator’s essential knowledge base.

Table 3 MEd teacher educators’ preparation courses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The ‘what’ and the ‘how’ of teacher education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1) Research methodology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) Curriculum planning, theory, design and development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) Educational Psychology, theories and principle of teaching and learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4) Instructional technology in education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) Sociology of education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(6) Information technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(7) Psychology of human growth and development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(8) Design and development of teaching materials</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Classification of MEd course objectives
Objectives of the MEd courses are among the curriculum components that were examined using Bernstein classification concepts. The objectives of courses were strongly or weakly classified, depending on the extent to which they relate to the discipline of that course, *strongly classified* objectives (C+); or refer to the main programme goal of developing teacher educator, *weakly classified* (C+) objectives. Some of the courses of the MEd programme, for instance, Test Construction, Measurement, Educational Statistics and Evaluation, though labelled as being a course for a specific specialisation, examination officials, it has objectives referring to broader programme goals. Other courses, Economics of Education, for example, have strong classified objectives. Their objectives refer to students to acquire knowledge and skills of those specific disciplines.

Recontextualising principles
As mentioned above, the MEd programme, with its multiple disciplinary and general education singulars, form weak region for the professional field of teacher educators. The most important reason for this is the lack of recontextualising principles. They are the principles that construct the new discourses and ideological bias that underlie the recontextualisation process (Bernstein, 2000, p. 9). These principles, during the curriculum design, guide which singulars are to be selected and what knowledge, within the singular, is to be produced to create an intended professional field of practice. The recontextualisation process is driven by these principles that guide the selection, relocation as well as refocusing, and relating appropriate knowledge of the singulars to meet the needs of a field of professional practice (Hordern, 2016, p. 429). In this way the knowledge introduced from the singulars, in a region, is reordered, reinterpreted and categorised according to recontextualising principles. Or what Hordern (2016) calls ‘organising and validating’ principles that align forms of knowledge to create an order in that particular region (6; Bernstein 2000). The absence of these means a struggle over what is deemed worth knowing for the profession, how the knowledge should be organised and taught, by whom, and to what level of proficiency (Singh, 2015).

CONCLUSION
This chapter contribute to the under-researched discussion about the knowledge of the MEd programmes that train teacher educators in Tanzania, since their quality is linked to the quality of school teachers and school education. Bernstein’s classification provided key concepts to account for the MEd curriculum courses selected to recontextualised into professional practice of teacher educators. One of the arguments in this chapter is that, the knowledge structure of the region depends on its sources of knowledge: *the relation of singulars outside of their boundaries*. I also argued that, a region needs to maintain its authority over its knowledge base, a lack of which lead to unresponsiveness to its professional education and practice. It is my hope that this chapter will inspire expert teacher educators to rethink and consider ways in which a region maintains its strength. That is, by recontextualise appropriate singulars that relate to the intended professional practice under appropriate recontextualising principles.
REFERENCES


CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF TEACHERS: 
THE CASE OF NATIONAL TEACHERS INSTITUTE KADUNA 
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ABSTRACT 
This study assessed the processes employed in the Continuing Professional Development (CPD) of Teachers in National Teachers Institute (NTI) Kaduna, Nigeria. Two research questions and two hypotheses were formulated to achieve the objectives of the study. From two-sets of population consisting of 525 facilitators and 7,144 students, 55 facilitators and 320 students were sampled through stratified and simple random sampling techniques. Data was collected with the use of a modified four-point Likert-type structured questionnaire. Mean scores were used to analyze data collected for the research questions, while t-test statistics was used to test the hypotheses of the study. The findings revealed that the instructional processes and feedback mechanisms employed in NTI for CPD of teachers were effective in urban study centres, while it was ineffective in rural centres. The findings further revealed that facilitators felt that the learning environment for CPD of teachers was adequate, while students reported that it was inadequate. The study recommends the need for government, regulatory agencies and the management of NTI to provide pragmatic policy enablers that will enhance the effectiveness of the instructional processes in rural study centres and learning environment for CPD of teachers in NTI Kaduna should be adequately enhanced. 

Keywords: Continuing Professional Teacher Development, Instructional Process, Learning Environment & Study Centres.

INTRODUCTION 
Globally in both developed and developing economies, every government tries to ensure that education as a social service is adequately provided for its citizens by putting in place sound education policies and programmes. This is because the quality of human resources available in a country greatly determines the overall development and wellbeing of all other aspects of the economy of that country. The quality of human resources is equally dependent on the quality of education and teachers available in a country. Teacher education is an aspect of general education which is concerned with the whole processes involved in the act or art of acquiring knowledge and skills in teaching profession. According to Umar (2005), teacher education involves the provision of professional education and specialized training within a
specific period for the preparation of individuals who intend to develop and nurture the young ones into responsible and productive citizens.

Teaching is a veritable field that requires correct identification of indices of developments in the society at all times. This responsibility makes it imperative that teachers be an embodiment of a constant search for updated knowledge in various fields of life. Teaching is a very demanding job that requires in-depth knowledge of subject content, age-specific pedagogy and many varied skills such as patience, leadership and creativity.

Within the last two decades, the world has witnessed tremendous changes driven by Information and Communication Technology which is permeating every aspect of societal life (Partnership for 21st Century, 2009). With all the successes recorded in the implementation of Education for All (EFA) goals and the education related goals of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) in Nigeria, the education system is still grappling with problems such as student explosion, inadequate facilities and inadequate qualified teachers. The effects of globalization have equally impacted on the education system. As a result of these developments the education system in most African countries particularly in Nigeria were inundated with various challenges that require continuing professional development (CPD) of teachers.

The Nigerian education system has been highly criticized by stakeholders with respect to its quality following the abysmal poor performances of students in various externally and internally conducted examinations at various levels particularly at the West African School Certificate Examination (WASCE) and the National Examination Council (NECO). To this end, government tried to strengthen the process of teacher preparation through various reforms. Among these reforms were the introduction of open and distance learning (ODL) and sandwich programmes for the continuing development of serving teachers and new entrants into the teaching profession to meet the set standards by the Teachers Regulatory Council of Nigeria (TRCN). The National Teachers Institute (NTI) Kaduna and Institutes of Education in Nigerian Universities were specifically set up for this purpose.

In spite of the efforts being made by Nigerian government to increase the quantity and quality of teacher production and enhance the knowledge base and skills of teachers through ODL, it is arguable whether the goal for which the NTI was set up is being achieved. Scholars have argued on the quality of the products of teachers who go through these processes. Okebukola (2014) stated that 60% of the poor quality teachers in the secondary school system are trained through sandwich/part-time programs. Contrary to this view, Borishade (2006) argued that the sandwich degree program is achieving virtually all its stated objectives such as encouraging continuous academic growth of serving teachers, improve their productivity and competencies and the quality or products of sandwich program were found not to be different from the quality and product of full-time regular degree program.

Similarly, the NTI as a distance learning institution came under severe criticism by the former Executive Secretary of Universal Basic Education Commission and the former Executive Secretary of the National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE) as reported by Bashir (2016) and Ezeh (2016) respectively for its poor implementation of teacher development programme in Nigeria. It is however arguable if these perceptions are in line with the current realities on ground. Notably, the CPD of teachers are specifically focused on key areas such as the mastery of curriculum content; pedagogy, classroom management; etc. Given these perceptions on the continuing professional development of teachers in Nigeria, it becomes
imperative to assess the issue concerning the effectiveness of the instructional processes and the adequacy of the learning environment available for the implementation of teacher preparation programme using NTI Kaduna as a case study.

It is against this background therefore that this paper assessed the continuing professional development of teachers through distance learning in NTI Kaduna state. This paper is therefore divided into six sections. The first section gives the introduction and rational for the study. The second section discusses the theoretical issues in continuing professional development of teachers through institutions of distance learning (NTI); the third section presents the methodology while the fourth section presents the results. The fifth section discusses the findings while the sixth section makes recommendations.

THEORETICAL ISSUES

Continuing Professional Development of Teachers

The concept of continuing education has been expressed in various ways by many scholars. Tahir (2000) described Continuing Education as that subset of adult education that seeks to positively link the needs and aspirations of individuals with educational activities, for development of their potentialities and for the socioeconomic and political development of a nation state. Continuing Professional Development (CPD) refers to the process of tracking and documenting the skills, knowledge and experience that one gains both formally and informally as one works beyond any initial training. CPD embraces the idea that individuals aim for continuous improvement in their professional skills and knowledge beyond the basic training initially required to carry out the job.

Teaching and learning international survey (OECD, 2009) viewed professional development as a body of systematic activities to prepare teachers for their job including initial training, induction courses, in-service training and professional development within school settings. Emphasizing the importance of CPD, Barber & Mourshe (2007), stated that in high performing systems, ten percent of working time is used for CPD however, the problem in developing countries is that teacher CPD is either absent or happens rarely and in an ad hoc way. It is pertinent to state that in most top-performing and industrialized countries such as Singapore, Japan, China and South Korea to mention a few, teacher preparation and CPD are given great attention by government and regulatory bodies (Obasi 2016).

The experiences of these top performing countries suggest that three things matter most: i) getting the right people to become teachers, ii) developing them into effective instructors, and iii) ensuring that the system is able to deliver the best possible instructions for every child. In all these industrialized nations, great emphasis is often placed in the quality of new entrants, curriculum content, pedagogical skills, teaching practice, certification and licensing process. The top-performing school systems consistently attract more able people into teaching profession, leading to better student outcomes. They do this by making entry to teacher training highly selective, developing effective processes for selecting the right applicants to become teachers, and paying good starting compensation. Above all, the role and support of government and commitment of education agencies contribute to the success of teacher training programs in these countries (Obasi 2016).

The issue of teacher development and training is receiving more attention globally due to the dynamics in the socio-economic development of many nations. The emergence of the Information communication Technology has indeed introduced a paradigm shift in virtually all
aspects of human endeavors and particularly in the education sector. The increase in demand for basic education in Nigeria as a result of the introduction of Universal Basic Education programme necessitated the introduction of teacher education via the distance learning mode. The increase in the demand for education in developing economies, and the conviction that education is a vehicle that drives the development of a nation’s economy, governments are placing emphasis on the quality of education given to teachers in their training institutions. Nwokeocha (2013) described teacher education as the totality of deliberately designed programmes and exposure meant to turn individuals into teachers and sustain them throughout their career as professionals.

The goal of teacher education in Nigeria includes, among others, the encouragement of the spirit of enquiry and creativity in teachers and providing them with the intellectual and professional background that will be adequate for their assignments and also make them adaptable to changing situations (FME 2013). Section 5B (item 96) of the policy noted that teacher education shall continue to take cognizance of changes in the methodology and curriculum and that teachers be regularly exposed to innovations in their profession. By the policy stipulations therefore, the professional training of teachers is two-fold: pre-service and in-service trainings. To implement this, certain institutions are charged with the responsibility of providing professional training for teachers particularly for the secondary and primary levels.

In order to ensure high quality of education in Nigeria, the Federal government established the Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN) by Decree 31 of 1993, as an agency of the Federal Ministry of Education. However, the council became operational by June 2000. The TRCN Act is the greatest gift bequeathed to the Nigerian teachers by government. Conscious of the challenges posed before the council with regards to ensuring quality education and professionalization of teaching in Nigeria, the TRCN has raised awareness about the critical importance of continuous professional development of teachers and equally mounted and supported capacity building programmes for teachers. Notably among these programmes is the Mandatory Continuing Professional Development (MCPD). There are basically, three categories of programmes of the MCPD namely; (a) TRCN teachers capacity building programmes; (b) annual conference of registered teachers and (c) other stakeholders’ seminar and workshop programmes recognized by TRCN. The MCPD has ten specific objectives that help in the promotion and provision of quality teachers (TRCN 2010).

**NTI and Continuing professional development of teachers**
The National Teachers’ Institute (NTI), Kaduna, was established by the Federal Government of Nigeria in 1976. The Institute’s enabling legislation, Act No. 7 of 1978, charged NTI Kaduna, among other things to provide courses of instruction leading to the development, up-grading, and certification of teachers as specified in the relevant syllabus using distance education techniques. It is an institution meant to train teachers through the "Distance Learning System” This was done in the wake of the Universal Primary Education (U.P.E) project. The NTI offers many courses related to teaching and awards NCE (National Certificate in Education) and TC II (Teacher's Certificate 2), previously it was TC I which was later upgraded to TC 2. There was also a felt need to do this outside the conventional institutions so that practicing teachers could upgrade themselves educationally while remaining on their jobs.
Like any other distance learning institution, NTI courses are offered predominantly through the print media. Efforts were made to further disseminate instruction with the aid of an FM radio station donated by the Commonwealth of Learning. Tutorials were also organized at study centres, which are scattered all over the country. NTI offers tutorial facilitation which is carried out via face-to-face by part-time appointed facilitators at their study centers located across the country. NTI remains a key institute in the production of professional and functional, intermediate and lower level teaching workforce needed for the nation’s educational system (FME 2002).

**Instructional Process and Learning Environment in CPD of teachers**

The immediate consequence of poor learning outcome in any educational endeavor is easily attributable to unqualified instructors, poor course material design and faulty instructional delivery process. Researches show that most distance courses have poor instructional design (Fatma, 2002; Pierrakeas C, Xenos, M; Panagiotakopoulos, C & Vergidis, D. 2004), which can adversely frustrate learners and affect learning outcomes. Vergids & Penagiotakoulos (2002) in their study at Greek Open University reported that 20% of the respondents noted that instructional materials were poorly designed to the extent that they were difficult or extremely difficult to use, suggesting that, consequently learners especially beginners may get confused and frustrated. Accordingly, poor quality of educational materials is reported in previous studies as an important factor leading to student drop-out (Galusha, 1998; Woodrow, 1996).

Distance education materials should ‘talk’ to students in the absence of the lecturers regardless of where students find themselves during their study period (Moore, 2005). The demand therefore is that, the learner must receive the learning material in a manner that will engage her/him and with which the learner can interact creatively.

Further, Senanayake and Dadigamuwa (2005) at the Open University of Sri Lanka cited “unhelpful” course information, lack of direction and dissatisfaction with tutorials and tutors as some of the instructional challenges faced by students. Lack of direction by the teachers has proved to be one of the major factors contributing to students’ dilemma. Because there is no frequent contact with teachers, students have trouble in self-evaluation (Keegan, 1996). Moreover, in Sikwibele and Mungoo’s (2009) study of Botswana, students cited instructional related issues such as too difficult course assignments, unclear direction of assignments and unhelpful classrooms. Aderinoye (2001) in Nigeria found lack of facilitator/tutor contact with the learners significantly affecting the learners’ rate of retention and failure in their distance learning programme. Similarly, in Uganda inadequate expertise in instruction was reflected in the lack of quality instruction, the lack of quality distance learning materials and the lack of student support (Basaza, N., Milman, B., & Wright, C.R. 2010).

Unqualified instructors, insufficient and unequal distribution of course materials in any distance learning institution can constitute major problems at study centres. For instructional process to be effective in any distance learning programme such as the NTI, Beaudoin (1990) stated that it has to have in-built activities which according to him should involve:

- coaching students throughout the learning process;
- focusing on the instructional process in addition to the educational content;
- encouraging student to be active learner, designing and guiding experiences and activities; and
- providing explanations, references and reinforcement. This notwithstanding, the goal to overcome the time and distance issues involved in distance learning requires the use of various forms of technology in the delivery process. The overall institutional support is therefore of utmost importance.
Fatma (2002) & Pierrakeas & Xenos, (2004) noted in their study that the immediate consequence of unqualified instructors is poor course material design. Most distance courses have poor instructional design, which can adversely frustrate learners and affect learning process and outcomes. Keegan (1996) & Moore, (2005) from their studies showed that distance education materials should ‘talk’ to students in the absence of the lecturers regardless of where students find themselves during their study period. The demand therefore is that, the learner must receive the learning material in a manner that will engage her/him and with which the learner can interact creatively. Lack of direction by the teachers has proved to be one of the major factors contributing to students’ dilemma. Because there is no frequent contact with teachers, students have trouble in self-evaluation. Aderinoye (2001) in Nigeria found lack of facilitator/tutor contact with the learners significantly affecting the learners’ rate of retention and failure in their distance learning programme.

The provision of a conducive and adequate learning environment in distance learning programme for CPD of teachers need not be overemphasized. Most learners in the CPD programme are regarded as adults and as such, the learning environment must be such that will provide social, psychological and physical comfort for adult learners. According to Alias & Rahman (nd), the learning environment needs to be supported with various support elements. They defined learning support elements as the elements in a learning environment that aid the development of new knowledge, skills and attitudes when the individual interacts with information and the environment. From the foregoing, it is therefore obvious that the quality of instructional process and learning environment in either a distance learning or conventional institution would impact either positively or negatively on the academic performances of students.

METHODOLOGY
The study made use of a descriptive survey design. The population of the study comprised of all the final year student teachers and facilitators in all National Teachers Institute study centres in Kaduna State. There are a total number of 7144 final year student teachers and 525 facilitators in the four programmes in all the 20 study centres in NTI Kaduna. Stratified and simple random sampling techniques were employed for the selection of 320 students and 55 facilitators for the study. A questionnaire designed along a modified four-point Likert scale was the major instrument for data collection.

Analysis of data involved both descriptive and inferential statistical tools. Mean scores were used to analyze the fundamental research questions, while the t-test was used for testing the hypotheses examined by the study. Analysis of data was organized within the framework of the key research questions. The questions are (a) how effective are the instructional process and feedback mechanism employed in teacher preparation in urban and rural study centres in NTI Kaduna? (b) how adequate are the learning environment available for the implementation of teacher preparation programme in NTI study centres in Kaduna? Two corresponding hypotheses based on the above questions were tested.

RESULTS
Research Question One:
How effective are the instructional process and feedback mechanism employed in teacher preparation in NTI urban and rural study centres?
Table 1: Effectiveness of the instructional process and feedback mechanism employed in Teacher preparation in NTI urban and rural study centres.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>urban/rural students</th>
<th>Response Categories</th>
<th>Sum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

\[ \text{Grand mean} = \frac{\text{Urban}}{\text{Rural}} = \frac{2.99}{2.07} = \frac{\text{Effective}}{\text{Ineffective}} \]

**Result interpretation:**
The table above present’s results on the effectiveness of the instructional process and feedback mechanism employed in teacher preparation in NTI urban and rural study centres Kaduna State. The results indicated that while students from the urban areas believed that the instructional process and feedback mechanism were effective with a grand mean of 2.99 while those from rural study centres said it is ineffective with a grand mean of 2.07. Urban study centre students were of the opinion that all items were effective except item 6 while the rural study centre students were of the opinion that all items 1 to 6 were ineffective.

**Test of Hypotheses**

*Test of hypothesis on the effectiveness of the instructional and feedback mechanisms employed in teacher preparation programme in NTI urban and rural study centres Kaduna.*

\[ H_{01}: \text{There is no significant difference in the mean ratings of urban and rural students regarding the effectiveness of the instructional and feedback mechanisms employed in teacher preparation programme in NTI, Kaduna} \]
Table 2: ANOVA result on effectiveness of the instructional and feedback mechanisms employed in urban and rural study centres in NTI Kaduna.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of variation</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>117345.554</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>39115.185</td>
<td>23.134</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>534273.344</td>
<td>316</td>
<td>1690.73843</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>651618.898</td>
<td>319</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Remark: $f_{cal} = 23.13$, $f_{0.05, 3, 316} = 12.94$, since $f_{cal} > f_{0.05, 3, 316}$ and $p$ – value = 0.00, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Interpretation:
The ANOVA table provided above indicates that; there is a significant difference in the mean ratings of students in the programmes regarding the effectiveness of the instructional and feedback mechanisms employed in teacher preparation programme in urban and rural study centres in NTI, Kaduna, because $(f_{cal} = 23.13$, $f_{0.05, 3, 318} = 12.94$ and $p$ – value = 0.00). This decision was taken due to the fact that the calculated $f$ of 23.14 was greater than the critical $f$ value of 12.94 at 0.05 level of significant with 3, 318 degree of freedom and for $p$ – value of 0.00 was less than 0.05.

Research Question Two:
How adequate are the learning environment available for the implementation of teacher preparation programme in NTI study centres in Kaduna?

Table 3: Adequacy of the learning environment available for the implementation of teacher preparation programme in NTI study centers in Kaduna

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Item summaries</th>
<th>categories</th>
<th>Response Categories</th>
<th>$\sum$</th>
<th>$\bar{x}$</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>The conduciveness of classroom environment</td>
<td>Facilitator</td>
<td>VA</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>2.71</td>
<td>Adequate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>2.21</td>
<td>Inadequate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>The illumination of classrooms</td>
<td>Facilitator</td>
<td>IA</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>Adequate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>VIA</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>Adequate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>The chalkboards are clear and the writing of the instructors visible</td>
<td>Facilitator</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>Adequate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>IA</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>Adequate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>The teaching-learning equipment available for the facilitators</td>
<td>Facilitator</td>
<td>IA</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>Adequate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>VIA</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>Adequate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Appropriateness of learning materials available</td>
<td>Facilitator</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>Inadequate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>IA</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>Inadequate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>The size of classrooms for the number of students</td>
<td>Facilitator</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>Adequate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>IA</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>Adequate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>The seating arrangements for the students</td>
<td>Facilitator</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>Adequate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>IA</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>Adequate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Grand mean $= \frac{\text{Facilitator}}{\text{Students}} = \frac{2.74}{2.47} = 2.74$, Adequate
**Result interpretation:**
The table above presents the adequacy of the learning environment available for the implementation of teacher preparation programme in NTI study centers in Kaduna. The results showed that while the facilitators rated the learning environment available for the implementation of teacher preparation programme as adequate, the students had a contrary opinion that the learning environment was inadequate. However, only items 8, 9, and 13 were considered adequate by students with mean scores of 3.05, 3.06, and 3.04 respectively.

**Test of Hypothesis**

**Test of hypothesis on the adequacy of the learning environments available for implementing teacher preparation programmes in NTI, Kaduna state.**

\( H_0: \) There is no significance difference in the mean ratings of students and facilitators regarding the adequacy of the learning environments available for implementing teacher preparation programmes in NTI, Kaduna.

Table 4: \( t \) – test result of students and facilitators regarding the adequacy of the learning environments available for implementing teacher preparation programmes in NTI, Kaduna

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. dev.</th>
<th>( t ) - test</th>
<th>( t )-critical</th>
<th>d.f.</th>
<th>P – Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>320</td>
<td>2.47</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>1.96</td>
<td>373</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facilitators</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**DECISION RULE:** Reject \( H_0 \) if \( t_{cal} > t_{critical} \) or if \( p\)-value < 0.05

**Result Interpretation:**
The study found that facilitators had a significantly higher mean rating of the learning environments available for implementing teacher preparation programmes in NTI, Kaduna (2.74 ± 0.97) compared to the students (2.47 ± 0.89). The mean difference = 0.27, \( t(373) = 2.89 \) is greater than the \( t \)-critical = 1.96 and \( p = 0.00 \) is greater than the level of significance = 0.05. The null hypothesis was rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis, and the conclusion reached is that; there is a significance difference in the mean ratings of students and facilitators regarding the adequacy of the learning environments available for implementing teacher preparation programmes in NTI, Kaduna. This decision was taken because the calculated \( t \) – test of 2.89 was greater than the level of significant = 1.96 and the \( p \) – value < 0.05 at 373 degree of freedom (d.f).

**DISCUSSION**
The findings on research question one revealed that the instructional process and feedback mechanism employed at NTI Kaduna is effective in urban study centres with a mean score of 2.99 while it is ineffective in rural centres with a mean score of 2.07. The result of the hypothesis revealed a significant difference in the mean ratings of students in both urban and rural centres. The reason for the effectiveness of the instructional process of CPD in NTI urban study centres might not be far from the fact that educational facilities/resources in urban centres seem to be generally better than what obtains in rural areas. However, students in urban centres are of the view that despite the effectiveness of the instructional process, the feedback is generally ineffective.

This finding collaborates that of Obasi & Akuchie (2014) which revealed that instructional process in National Open University of Nigeria (NOUN) is effective. Though the quality of
assessment and feedback mechanism employed was rated high, however, the ANOVA result indicated there was a significant difference in the quality of assessment and feedback mechanism across the five schools in NOUN. In a similar vein, Obasi & Nwakeire (2015) found out that the evaluation and feedback mechanism in the sandwich degree programmes of University of NigeriaNsukka and University of Abuja were effective. It is obvious therefore that the effectiveness of the instructional process at NTI, and NOUN’s distance learning programme could largely be attributed to the adequate consideration given to the delivery mode of the courses because of the characteristics of both the learners and the programme.

Distance learning courses are not like traditional face-to-face courses. They require different media, delivery methods, course designing, evaluation methods and learner support structures (COL 1999). Learner assessment is central to every instructional process. For assessment to be meaningful and useful to the learner, it requires quality feedback. As Srivathsan (2009) rightly pointed out, a critical requirement in any good education system is the regular feedback it should provide to learners while engaging them in well-designed learning activities and tests. Chetwynd and Dobbyn (2011) equally affirmed that in higher education, there is general agreement on the crucial role of assessment and the feedback students are given on it. It is important to state that the provision of feedback to distance learning students is particularly important because students have opportunities to ask for clarification on assignments or comments about assignments.

The findings of this study with regards to adequacy of learning environment shows that while the facilitators agreed that the learning environment was adequate the students said it was inadequate. The null hypothesis was however rejected as there was a significant difference in the mean ratings of the facilitators and students. It seems the facilitators’ views might not be unconnected with a bid to protect their jobs, the students on the other hand might be presenting reality on ground since they are the ones who experience and interact more with the environment. The finding supports the views of Alias & Rahman (nd), who argued that the learning environment needs to be supported with various support elements. It could mean that the learning environment at NTI is not adequately supported with these elements. It is worthy to note that the adequacy of learning environment is a pre-requisite for the effectiveness of facilitators, the high performance of students and the overall institutional performance.

**CONCLUSION / RECOMMENDATIONS**

Continuous training of teachers through in-service courses can be seen as a potential towards creating adaptive skills in the 21st century. Constant changes in our environment require adoption of new skills necessary for dealing with the new opportunities and challenges. It goes therefore to say that it is imperative for Nigeria and other developing economies that are facing a multitude of challenges to place more emphasis on the development of a formidable teaching workforce through effective management of teacher training institutions. The NTI as a distance training intuition specifically assigned this responsibility should ensure effective and efficient management of instructional processes and provide very adequate learning environment for learners both at the urban and rural study centres, bearing in mind that geographical factors can impact on teaching learning processes to a very large extent.
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LA FORMATION CONTINUE DES ENSEIGNANTS EN PSYCHOLOGIE POUR UNE ÉDUCATION INCLUSIVE DES ENFANTS EN SITUATION DE HANDICAP ET UN INVESTISSEMENT DANS L’AGENDA 2063

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RÉSUMÉ

Pour atteindre cet objectif en République Démocratique du Congo, il a été préconisé, outre la prise en charge des frais scolaires par l’État, l’application de l’approche inclusive dans le système scolaire et la réforme de la formation initiale et continue des enseignants.

Avec l’approche inclusive des enfants en situation de handicap dans les classes ordinaires, les enseignants devraient être formés autrement dans les disciplines de base, notamment en psychologie, afin de leur permettre d’accueillir, d’accepter et d’accompagner cette catégorie d’enfants dans un environnement pédagogique marqué par la diversité.

En application de cette nouvelle approche éducative, cette étude a eu pour objectif de proposer un contenu éducatif novateur pour la formation continue des enseignants du niveau primaire en psychologie afin de produire des ressources humaines appelées à devenir des agents de changement pour le développement durable du pays et du continent, comme envisagé dans l’Agenda 2063.

Mots Clés: Agenda 2063, Contenu Éducatif, Éducation Inclusive, Enfant en Situation de Handicap & Formation Continue.

INTRODUCTION
1. Problématique
Il est universellement reconnu que, pour des raisons diverses, notamment le sexe, l’origine, la race, l’appartenance ethnique, le niveau socio-économique, la langue, la religion, le parcours ou le handicap, beaucoup d’enfants à travers le monde en général, et en République Démocratique du Congo en particulier, sont exposés à la marginalisation, à la discrimination, aux inégalités et à l’exclusion face à leurs droits fondamentaux, dont celui de l’éducation. Leur exclusion du système scolaire les prive également de toute possibilité de participation véritable et efficiente à la vie économique, sociale, politique et culturelle dans leurs communautés.

D’après l’UNESCO (2003), 113 millions d’enfants en âge d’être scolarisés dans le primaire ne vont pas à l’école. Quatre-vingt-dix pour cent d’entre eux vivent dans des pays à revenu faible ou intermédiaire et plus de 80% de ces enfants vivent en Afrique. Parmi ceux qui sont effectivement inscrits dans l’enseignement primaire, un grand nombre quitte l’école avant d’avoir achevé le cycle d’études primaires.

En République Démocratique du Congo, RDC en sigle, les données statistiques issues de l’enquête nationale sur la situation des enfants et adolescents en dehors de l’école (EADE 2012), font état de 6.699.099 enfants dont l’âge se situe de 3 à 5 ans, et de 7.375.875 enfants et adolescents de la tranche d’âge de 5 à 17 ans qui seraient exclus du système scolaire, soit un écart de 279.717 sujets par rapport aux données de l’enquête MICS 2010 qui les avaient évalués à 7.655.592 cas (MINEPSP, 2012). Les résultats de l’EADE 2012 révèlent également que 1,3% des enfants de 5-17 ans, soit un effectif absolu de 299.998 enfants, vit avec un handicap

Au-delà de toutes ces considérations, il y a une catégorie plurielle d’enfants qui est regroupée sous les concepts d’Enfants avec Handicap ou en Difficultés d’Adaptation ou d’Apprentissage – EHDAA – qui se recrute au sein de classes ordinaires et souvent sujettes à l’exclusion.

Au regard des besoins éducationnels ressentis par ces enfants et jeunes marginalisés et exclus du système scolaire en RDC, notamment ceux avec handicap, des institutions scolaires et professionnelles spécialisées existent, notamment à Kinshasa, mais elles ne sont pas accessibles à tous. Leur implantation, principalement dans les centres urbains, renforce l’exclusion de ceux qui sont en milieux ruraux. Leurs programmes, souvent spécifiques à une catégorie d’enfants, consolident la discrimination des uns et des autres. D’où la nécessité d’une remise en question des politiques et stratégies destinées à répondre aux besoins éducatifs spéciaux ressentis par ces enfants qui, en dépit de leur vulnérabilité, disposent des potentialités et font partie des ressources humaines capables de contribuer au développement national et continental.


Dans une dimension internationale, ces objectifs sont présentés sous forme des cibles parmi les 17 Objectifs de Développement Durable en matière d’éducation. En effet, les représentants de 193 pays réunis le 25 septembre 2015 au siège des Nations Unies à New York ont mis en exergue la nécessité de « garantir une éducation de qualité, sans exclusion, équitable, avec possibilités d’apprentissage pour tous tout au long de la vie, et de mettre fin aux disparités des sexes dans ce domaine, de promouvoir l’égalité d’accès des personnes vulnérables, y compris...
celles avec handicap, à tous les niveaux d’enseignement et de formation professionnelle ». Telle est aussi l’aspiration exprimée par l’Union Africaine dans l’Agenda 2063 d’éliminer « toutes les formes d’inégalité, d’exploitation, de marginalisation et de discrimination systématiques…pour une Afrique dont le développement est axé sur les populations et qui s’appuie sur le potentiel de ses populations,…». (www.globalpartnership.org).

Nous pouvons ainsi déduire qu’en matière d’éducation, la RDC est déjà engagée à investir dans l’éducation pendant la période de 2016-2025 pour la mise en œuvre de la stratégie continentale en Afrique, conformément aux aspirations de l’Agenda 2063. Parmi les nouveaux mécanismes à mettre en place pour réussir cette approche éducative figure la réforme des programmes de formation initiale des enseignants, notamment en psychologie.

Face à l’état du programme de formation initiale en psychologie pour l’enseignant ordinaire du cycle primaire qui ne prévoit aucun contenu sur l’enfant en situation de handicap, la question fondamentale qui nous préoccupe dans cette étude est de savoir : quel est le contenu éducatif envisageable pour renforcer l’équipement mental de l’enseignant congolais afin qu’il soit capable d’accueillir, d’accepter et d’accompagner les enfants en situation de handicap dans une classe ordinaire réunissant les enfants dits valides au niveau primaire?

2. Hypothèses
En réponse à notre question fondamentale, dans la réalisation de cette étude, nous partons de l’hypothèse selon laquelle le contenu défini dans le programme de psychologie actuellement en usage dans la formation initiale des enseignants du primaire serait insuffisant pour les rendre capables de connaître et de comprendre le fonctionnement mental et les comportements associés aux structures psychiques des enfants en situation de handicap, considérés individuellement, en groupé ou en situation d’apprentissage avec les valides en milieu scolaire ordinaire. Dans ce contexte, ils ne sauraient répondre aux besoins éducatifs spéciaux de ces enfants et gérer une classe inclusive. Ces enseignants, dont l’engagement au développement professionnel par l’auto-évaluation, la formation et l’innovation constitue une des compétences générales de base (MINEPSP, 2013), auraient besoin d’acquérir des nouveaux savoirs en psychologie par la formation continue en vue de renforcer leur équipement mental et les rendre capables d’accueillir, d’accepter et d’accompagner les enfants en situation de handicap dans leurs classes et contribuer ainsi à l’accomplissement des aspirations exprimées dans l’Agenda 2063.

3. Objectif poursuivi
Face au besoin défini dans l’Agenda 2063 concernant la « revitalisation de la profession enseignante pour en assurer la qualité, la pertinence et l’adéquation à tous les niveaux d’éducation »(www.adeanet.org.), l’objectif global poursuivi dans cette recherche est de proposer un contenu éducatif novateur en psychologie pour rendre les enseignants capables d’accueillir, d’accepter et d’accompagner les enfants en situation de handicap dans le processus d’apprentissage.

4. Approche méthodologique
Pour atteindre cet objectif, nous avons choisi d’utiliser un dispositif méthodologique contenant la méthode d’enquête sur terrain, réalisée sur base de la technique d’entretien en focus group en vue d’une collecte des données qualitatives recueillies sous forme d’avis, d’opinions ou de perceptions liées à l’expérience professionnelle de chaque participant. Ainsi, en 5 rencontres, nous avons fait participer au processus de collecte des données 45 personnes, soit 9 sujets par
province éducationnelle. Il s’agissait des bénéficiaires directs dudit programme que sont les enseignants diplômés d’État des humanités pédagogiques. Pour les bénéficiaires indirects, nous avons retenus les enseignants spécialisés du primaire, les Inspecteurs du niveau primaire, les Directeurs des écoles primaires, les Préfets des Études des écoles organisant la section pédagogique, ainsi que les Professeurs de Psychopédagogie, les gestionnaires des institutions d’enseignement spécial et les membres des associations des personnes vivant avec handicap ; soit 9 catégories socio-professionnelles de notre population d’étude, dont le degré d’ancienneté varie de 5 à 10 ans. Nous avons aussi utilisé la technique d’analyse documentaire.

5. **Justification et Intérêt pratique de l’étude**

Les résultats de cette étude pourront servir de référence aux décideurs en ce qui concerne le programme de psychologie en vue de former des enseignants inclusifs.

Ce contenu prépare l’enseignant à l’accueil, à l’acceptation, à la reconnaissance et au respect de l’enfant avec handicap en tant qu’être humain capable de réussir en milieu scolaire aux côtés des valides et de contribuer au développement national et continental.

Pour les enfants exclus du système scolaire en RDC, spécialement ceux avec handicap, cette étude constitue un mécanisme de promotion en faveur de l’application, par l’État, du principe d’égalité des chances en matière d’apprentissage scolaire. Elle stimule également le sentiment d’espoir aux parents des enfants avec handicap quant à la possibilité de scolarisation de leurs enfants dans les mêmes conditions que les valides. Les enfants qui, en raison d’un handicap, ne fréquentent pas l’école ordinaire, souffrent d’un sentiment de marginalisation et, dans bien des cas, d’exclusion. Surmonter ce véritable handicap social est une épreuve qui s’ajoute à leurs difficultés propres (NICOLI, 1988).

6. **Délimitation de la recherche**

Nous avons choisi d’effectuer notre étude dans la Ville-Province de Kinshasa où la situation de scolarisation des enfants et adolescents avec handicap est aussi préoccupante. En choisissant la Ville de Kinshasa, nous étions inspiré par l’expérience de HANDICAP INTERNATIONAL qui, ayant constaté que plusieurs enfants congolais en situation de handicap étaient privés, non seulement du droit à l’éducation, mais aussi celui d’apprendre ensemble avec les autres enfants dits valides, en dépit de la diversité de leurs conditions, a initié, depuis 2007, des actions au travers de quelques projets sur l’éducation inclusive visant à appuyer le pays dans la construction d’un système éducatif réellement inclusif. Cet organisme s’est investi à sensibiliser les communautés, renforcer les compétences des enseignants, améliorer l’accessibilité physique des infrastructures et plaider en faveur de l’éducation des enfants en situation de handicap dans le cadre du projet « Accès à une éducation de qualité pour les enfants en situation de handicap à Kinshasa » (www.handicapinternational.be, para. 3).

7. **Canevas de l’étude**

Outre l’introduction et la conclusion, cette étude est présentée en quatre principaux axes, à savoir : la définition des concepts de base, les obstacles à l’inclusion scolaire des enfants en situation de handicap, le contenu de la formation initiale en psychologie pour les enseignants destinés au cycle primaire et la présentation des résultats.

1. **DÉFINITION DES CONCEPTS**
Pour éviter toute autre interprétation, nous avons estimé nécessaire de définir les concepts ci-après : éducation inclusive et enfant en situation de handicap.

1.1 Éducation inclusive
Selon ZAY (2012), l’éducation inclusive est un processus qui permet de garantir l’égalité des droits et des chances à l’éducation pour les enfants vivant avec handicap et les enfants vulnérables. Ce processus a pour but l’accès, la participation et la réalisation d’une éducation pour tous.

Tony BOOTH et Mel AINSCOW (2002) affirment que l’inclusion concerne l’éducation de tous les élèves et non seulement ceux qui ont des limitations fonctionnelles ou qui sont perçus comme ayant des « besoins éducatifs spéciaux ».

De son côté, l’UNESCO (2016) rapporte que l’éducation inclusive est fondée sur le droit de tous à une éducation de qualité qui réponde aux besoins d’apprentissage essentiels et enrichisse l’existence des apprenants. Axée en particulier sur les groupes vulnérables et défavorisés, elle s’efforce de développer pleinement le potentiel de chaque individu. Le but ultime de l’éducation de qualité inclusive est d’en finir avec toute forme de discrimination et de favoriser la cohésion sociale.


L’approche inclusive suppose donc une remise en question des normes existantes ou déjà établies en vue de faciliter l’adaptation à la personne différente. C’est dans cet ordre d’idées que THOMAZET (2008) conclut : « Il appartient donc à l’école de mettre en œuvre des situations d’enseignement/apprentissage susceptibles de rejoindre tous les enfants et adolescents, quels que soient leurs besoins ».

Dans cette étude, l’accent mis sur les enfants en situation de handicap constitue avant tout un indicateur qui démontre, une fois de plus, que cette catégorie d’enfants est l’une des marginalisées du système éducatif de la RDC. Elle est par conséquent concernée par l’approche inclusive dans la lutte qu’entend mener les décideurs politiques contre les discriminations et les inégalités en matière d’éducation scolaire pour ouvrir l’accès à l’éducation aux groupes vulnérables et défavorisés de l’enseignement national que sont : les filles et les femmes, les orphelins, les déplacés, les pygmées, les enfants dont l’âge est supérieur à la norme fixée par la réglementation scolaire, les indigents et les personnes vivant avec handicap (Loi-cadre n°14/004 du 11 février 2014 de l’enseignement national, art.33).

La vision de réaliser l’inclusion scolaire de ces enfants crée la nécessité et l’urgence d’une culture et d’un renforcement des nouveaux savoirs, savoir-faire, savoir-être et savoir-vivre dans les paradigmes des enseignants pendant leur formation initiale et continue, notamment en psychologie.
1.2 Enfants en situation de handicap (ESH)

Quant au handicap, le Dictionnaire de la langue française, Encyclopédie et Noms propres (1989), le définit en termes de « ce qui défavorise, met en position d’infériorité ». Le handicap signifie également une « déficience corporelle, mentale ou psychique présumée durable » qui empêche la personne « d’accomplir les actes de la vie quotidienne, d’entretenir des contacts sociaux, de se mouvoir, de suivre une formation, de se perfectionner ou d’exercer une activité professionnelle, ou la gêne dans l’accomplissement de ces activités ».


Dans le domaine de la santé, souligne-t-elle, la déficience est liée à l’organe ou à la fonction. Elle correspond à toute perte de substance ou altération d’une fonction ou d’une structure psychologique, physiologique ou anatomique. C’est ainsi qu’on rencontre des enfants avec des déficiences physiques, mentales, visuelles, intellectuelles, auditives, motrices et celles de la parole.

Quant à l’incapacité, elle est définie par rapport à l’activité de l’individu. En effet, l’incapacité correspond à toute réduction (résultant d’une déficience) partielle ou totale de la capacité d’accomplir une activité d’une façon ou dans les limites considérées comme normales pour un être humain.

Enfin, le désavantage est consécutif aux rôles sociaux censés être joués par l’individu. C’est le préjudice qui résulte de sa déficience ou de son incapacité et qui limite ou interdit l’accomplissement d’un rôle considéré comme normal compte tenu de l’âge, du sexe et des facteurs socio-culturels.

L’enfant avec handicap ne se trouve donc qu’en situation de désavantage. Si l’environnement ne le perçoit que par rapport à sa déficience ou son incapacité, il serait impossible de se rendre compte de son potentiel humain actif, mais non exploité. Il faut plutôt agir positivement de façon à changer sa situation. Car, comme tous les autres enfants, les enfants avec handicap sont dans un processus de développement, chacun avec ses besoins ordinaires et spécifiques. Les enfants en situation de handicap ont également besoin d’explorer le monde et d’y trouver des opportunités d’adaptation pour leur épanouissement et leur participation au progrès de la communauté. HALLET Virginie (2006) affirme que ces enfants attendent de leur environnement des stimuli qui éveillent le reste de leurs capacités sensorielles, motrices, intellectuelles, affectives et sociales pour développer le reste de leur potentiel humain.

Parmi les causes qui sont à la base du foisonnement d’enfants avec handicap, relevons : - les troubles génétiques, les maladies (telles que la poliomyélite et la méningite), la
malnutrition, le manque d’hygiène et des soins, la guerre et la pauvreté. Quant aux conséquences du handicap des enfants, citons, à titre indicatif : l’exclusion sociale, l’isolement, la marginalisation, la discrimination, les mauvaises perceptions sociales et les violences.

Par conséquent, l’inclusion des enfants avec handicap en classe ordinaire aux côtés des valides constitue un mécanisme qui renforce la confiance, le sentiment de reconnaissance et l’idéal d’une vie meilleure en eux. La possibilité de coexister avec les autres recrée et affermit l’image de soi de l’enfant avec handicap. Cela suppose une connaissance mutuelle des enfants valides et ceux avec handicap, une reconnaissance mutuelle de leurs limites et de leurs possibilités par leurs formateurs.

II. OBSTACLES A L’INCLUSION SCOLAIRE DES ENFANTS VIVANT AVEC HANDICAP EN RÉPUBLIQUE DÉMOCRATIQUE DU CONGO

Il importe de souligner que la représentation du handicap et la manière dont il est perçu par le public, les décideurs et les personnes handicapées elles-mêmes influencent et modifient le choix et la conception des politiques de prise en charge dans différents domaines vitaux, tel l’enseignement. Quelle que soit la catégorie du handicap que peut présenter une personne, affirme MUKAU (2006), il est impossible de le détacher du contexte social et culturel où il s’inscrit. Chaque collectivité ou société a une vision particulière des explications et de la prise en charge des différents handicaps. C’est la croyance et la pratique culturelle qui dictent tout.

A l’école revient la fonction de réduction des inégalités sur base d’une justice distributive au profit de tous. C’est dans ce contexte qu’on parle de l’égalité des chances et de droit à l’éducation pour tous. L’exercice de ce droit résulte d’un consensus international auquel la RDC a souscrit. Ce droit tire aussi son fondement dans une dimension éthique issue des enseignements du christianisme qui, depuis des siècles, propagent les valeurs de justice et d’amour du prochain en RDC.

Par ailleurs, la société dans sa diversité façonne et imprime dans la conscience collective des congolais des pensées, des valeurs, des attitudes, voire des pratiques qui ont un impact sur l’organisation et le fonctionnement de l’institution scolaire en général et de l’enseignement des enfants en situation de handicap en particulier. A ce sujet, le constat est amer en RDC quant à l’accès et à la rétention des enfants en situation de handicap en milieu scolaire. Plusieurs enfants de cette catégorie, affirme HANDICAP INTERNATIONAL (2013), sont privés, non seulement du droit à l’éducation, mais aussi d’apprendre ensemble avec les autres enfants (valides) en dépit de la diversité de leurs conditions. Les taux d’abandons scolaires sont également élevés parmi ces enfants, surtout ceux qui éprouvent des difficultés intellectuelles et d’apprentissage, voire de paiement des frais scolaires.

Les obstacles sociaux à l’accès des enfants en situation de handicap dans l’enseignement trouvent leurs sources d’abord dans les perceptions des habitants sur le handicap au niveau macrosocial. En effet, dans plusieurs tribus de la RDC, avoir un enfant avec handicap dans la famille est interprété comme un indice de malédiction, un sujet de honte, une charge inutile qui incite les parents à la discrimination et à l’exclusion de cet enfant.

Une étude récente (TWELA, 2013) a montré que dans la Province du Kongo Central par exemple, l’enfant avec retard mental est appelé, selon qu’on est dans les Districts du Bas-Fleuve, de La LUKAYA ou des Cataractes « vulu, vungisi, zengi, kiyuyu, zowa, zoba-zoba ». Toutes ces expressions voudraient signifier que cet enfant n’est pas intelligent. Cette
affirmation gratuite n’est pas le produit d’un diagnostic spécifique. Par conséquent, les parents abattus ne savent pas réellement le vrai problème qui bloque l’évolution de leur enfant, ni quels types d’interventions envisager pour remédier, tant soit peu, à la situation.

En outre, dans leurs conceptions ethnologiques sur le handicap, le peuple Kongo va jusqu’à créer une étiologie appropriée du handicap, notamment l’inceste, le mauvais sort, le mécontentement de certains membres de famille sur une union conjugale ou un mariage, la punition des ancêtres, les mariages consanguins, le non-respect des interdits traditionnels et, d’après HANDICAP INTERNATIONAL (2003), la sorcellerie.

Parmi les thérapies traditionnelles du handicap qui découlent de ces conceptions, citons : l’exorcisme, le recours aux plantes médicinales, les cérémonies de désenvoutement et les invocations ancestrales. La scolarisation comme approche éducative est donc moins préoccupante. De cette perception découle des attitudes de rejet de cet enfant jugé inutile et improductif. Ce rejet se manifeste par des pratiques illicites telles l’isolement, la non scolarisation et la marginalisation de l’enfant.

Les attitudes de rejet des enfants avec handicap sont fortement ancrées dans les milieux scolaires auprès des élèves valides, du personnel enseignant, administratif et technique, héritage de la société dans laquelle ils vivent, une société sans culture inclusive. A en croire certains de nos intervenants en focus group, même certains parents supportent mal que leurs enfants dits valides étudient dans les mêmes établissements scolaires que ceux vivant avec handicap. Ce rapprochement suscite la peur, alors qu’il serait un moyen de stimuler les enfants en situation de handicap dans leur apprentissage et un mécanisme de connaissance et de compréhension du handicap par les élèves valides. Il serait une source d’apprentissage, par les enfants, de l’esprit d’entraide, de solidarité et de patriotisme.

A ces obstacles s’ajoutent le défi criant de formation des enseignants sur les questions concernant l’enfance en situation de handicap et ses besoins éducatifs. De même, le manque de cadre de collaboration, au niveau de l’administration scolaire, entre les acteurs médicaux, sociaux et pédagogiques œuvrant sur les questions de handicap. Il sied de relever également l’inadaptation des normes de construction des infrastructures scolaires, et l’absence des outils didactiques adaptés aux conditions des enfants en situation de handicap.

III. CONTENU DE LA FORMATION INITIALE EN PSYCHOLOGIE
Dans le système éducatif de la République Démocratique du Congo, la formation initiale des enseignants destinés au cycle primaire s’effectue au sein de la Section Pédagogique du cycle secondaire. La psychologie est une des disciplines de base pour réaliser cette formation, en plus de la pédagogie, de la didactique générale et de la didactique des disciplines. Le programme de psychologie pour la formation initiale des enseignants du primaire date de 2005.
L’état des lieux de son contenu est défini ci-dessous (MINEPSP, DIPROMAD, 2005) :

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<td>3ème</td>
<td>1. Psychologie</td>
<td>3. Généralités</td>
<td>A l’issue de l’enseignement de psychologie en 3ème année, l’apprenant devra être capable d’expliquer les aspects de la psychologie et de la vie active de l’enfant</td>
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<td>4. Définitions des concepts psychologiques</td>
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<td>6. Relations avec les autres sciences</td>
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<td>7. Histoire de la psychologie</td>
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<td>9. Sortes des psychologies</td>
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<td>3. Les aspects psychologiques du comportement humain</td>
<td>Vie active, vie affective, vie cognitive</td>
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<td>4ème</td>
<td>4. La vie active</td>
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1. Les tendances
2. L’habitude
3. La volonté
4. L’apprentissage

A l’issue de l’enseignement de psychologie en 4ème année, l’apprenant devra être capable d’analyser la vie active et la vie affective de l’enfant en vue des affects élémentaires

1. Généralités
2. Les affects élémentaires
1. Vie cognitive ou représentative
   A. Connaissance sensible
      1. Les sens
      2. La sensibilité
      3. La sensation
      4. La perception
      5. La mémoire
      6. L’imagination
      7. L’association des idées
      8. L’attention
      9. L’observation
      10. L’intérêt

   B. Connaissance rationnelle
      1. Généralités
      2. L’intelligence
      3. La pensée ou la raison
      4. Le jugement
      5. Le raisonnement

   2. La Personnalité
      1. Le tempérament
      2. L’aptitude
      3. Le caractère

   3. Le Caractère
      1. Notion
      2. Importance de l’étude du caractère
      3. Eléments du caractère
      4. Facteurs d’évolution du caractère
      5. Typologies ou classifications

Au terme de l’enseignement de la psychologie en 5ème année, l’apprenant devra être capable de déterminer les aspects psychologiques de la vie cognitive et de la personnalité de l’enfant.

1. Psychologie du développement de l’enfant et de l’adolescent
2. Émotions
3. Sentiments
4. Passions
5. Inclinations supérieures

Au terme de l’enseignement de la psychologie en 6ème année, l’apprenant devra être capable de déterminer les aspects psychologiques de la vie cognitive et de la personnalité de l’enfant.
3. Développement de l’adolescent
4. Questions spécifiques de développement
   4.1. Développement du langage
   4.2. Développement du jeu
   4.3. Développement de l’intérêt
   4.4. Évolution du dessin

psychologie en 6ème année, l’apprenant devra être capable d’analyser la psychologie de l’enfant et de travers le langage, les activités de jeu, du dessin et à travers les réactions manifestées dans la vie quotidienne.

PRÉSENTATION DES RÉSULTATS OBTENUS
Dans le contexte de la formation permanente, nous présentons ces contenus en module. Ce regroupement modulaire ne constitue pas un modèle de mise en œuvre chronologique, mais des indications utiles pour l’élaboration des plans de formation des enseignants.

Module 1 : Préparation à l’accueil et à l’acceptation des ESH.

1.1. Étude des concepts liés à l’éducation inclusive des ESH
- Normalité
- Pathologie
- Déficience
- Handicap
- Inadaptation
- Trouble
- Différence
- Inclusion
- Autonomie
- Besoin éducatif particulier
- Participation sociale

- L’auto-perception des enfants en situation de handicap
- Notions sur les attitudes
- Les pensées et attentes des parents des ESH
- L’annonce du handicap et ses implications
- Les origines et les conséquences du handicap

Module 2 : Évaluation des capacités des ESH

2.1. Étude des déficiences, des troubles, des atteintes et des maladies auprès des enfants en situation de handicap.
- Les déficiences sensorielles (visuelles, auditives, tactiles, gustatives et olfactives)
- Les déficiences motrices
- Les déficiences intellectuelles
- Le déficit de l’attention avec ou sans hyperactivité
- Les troubles psychomoteurs
- Les troubles de spectre autistiques
- Le retard mental
- Les troubles du langage
- Les troubles de la personnalité et de caractère

2.2. Les maladies handicapantes
- L’épilepsie
- La drépanocytose
- L’asthme
- L’albinisme

2.3. Analyse des obstacles d’accès à l’apprentissage et troubles instrumentaux
- La dyslexie
- La dyscalculie
- La dysorthographie
- La dysgraphie

2.4. Le dépistage ou bilan psychologique
- Données
- Outils d’évaluation
- Déroulement

Module 3. : Gestion des besoins éducatifs particuliers et des apprentissages scolaires
- Prévention et Intervention précoce
- Projet éducatif individualisé
- Pédagogie pratique des activités psychomotrices
- La dynamique de groupe et les interactions.

Module 4. : Partenariat éducatif sur les ESH
- Consultation des professionnels, des associations et des réseaux d’aides spécialisés aux ESH
- Place des parents et modes de relation avec les enseignants et les autres professionnels
- Apport des partenaires dans le Projet Éducatif Individualisé

Ces quatre modules en psychologie du handicap forment un socle pour aider les enseignants ordinaires évoluant au cycle primaire à devenir inclusifs. Avec ce contenu, leur mental sera équipé et renforcé par des compétences de base se matérialisant à travers des capacités d’accueil, d’acceptation des enfants en situation de handicap, d’évaluation de leurs capacités et de gestion de leurs besoins spécifiques ; sans omettre la nécessité de collaborer avec d’autres professionnels et partenaires éducatifs intéressés à cette catégorie d’enfants.

CONCLUSION
Continent d’avenir, l’Afrique a besoin des ressources humaines formées pour réaliser ses aspirations contenues dans l’Agenda 2063. Les enfants en situation de handicap, scolarisés dans une approche inclusive, et leurs enseignants aux compétences renforcées, constituent un patrimoine pour réaliser cet Agenda.

L’exploitation du contenu novateur issu de cette étude pour la formation continue du personnel enseignant du cycle primaire de la RDC en psychologie répond à ce rêve noble de l’Afrique afin de constituer une base solide pour l’amorce du changement souhaité.
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ABSTRACT
The counsellor is part and parcel of school administration. This is to say that the school counsellor cannot perform his/her duties adequately without the co-operative efforts of the school administrator who is the chief executive of the school. To this end, this paper discussed these facts in detail under the following headings: the concepts of school counsellor and school administration, the role of the school counsellor in school administration, which are both preventive and curative. These are discussed alongside the three types of guidance and counselling intervention in schools which are educational vocational and personal – social guidance and counselling. An overview of the school counsellor and school administration activities in the school guidance programme are also discussed in detail. Here the different roles of the head teacher, the principal, the classroom teacher, the school Librarian, the school nurse, the parents and other non-academic staff were highlighted. However, problems of the counsellor in school administration were discussed. Conclusion and Recommendations were made for improvement.

Keywords: Administration, Counselling, Guidance & School Counsellor.

INTRODUCTION
Counselling practice is a significant aspect of counselor education and training. The effectiveness of the practice depends on how well the services of helping are delivered. Counselling practice can be classified into two broad categories; school guidance counselling or school setting counselling and non-school setting counselling. We are concerned with school setting counselling and school administration. School setting counselling is further sub divided into educational guidance counselling, vocational guidance and counseling and personal-social guidance and counselling. Nwachukwu in Nwachukwu (2009) noted that for a meaningful change to occur positively in Nigerian education towards a higher standard congruent with technological era there must be a three-pronged intervention made to help the school child and his/her community from these areas of need. School counselling and school administration are two inseparable activities none cannot achieve its objectives without the other. The school counsellors role is indispensable as he/she
advocates for every child’s academic career and personal social success in the elementary/basic and even secondary schools. He/she cannot achieve this without the help of the school head and authorities. In the preceding discourse we are going to ex-ray the antecedents in school counseling practice and how it cannot succeed without the school administrator.

**Conceptual Clarification**

**School Guidance and Counselling:** Counseling is a helping relationship in which the counselor being a professional provides useful services to clients or students based on their needs, taking cognizance of their immediate environment and the influences (Nwadinobi, 2008). Guidance and counseling is seen by Nwachukwu (2009) as the assistance made available by professionally qualified counsellors who are adequately trained men and women to help an individual of any age manage his own life activities, develop his own point of view, make his own decisions and carry his own burdens. School guidance and counseling is a systematic process of organized services in the school system to help pupils and students develop their potentials fully by consciously acquiring proper self-knowledge and skills for appraisal of self in-situational relation for appropriate decision and action in education, the world of work and the society (Administrator, n.d).

**School Administration**

In looking at school administration, we first ask ourselves who is an administrator? An administrator is an individual who is in a position of authority or who manages people, business, organization, practices and policies e.g a principal, a Vice principal, a lawyer appointed in the court to manage an estate, a headmaster/head mistress. Etc. other administrators might include directors of college counselling, athletic directors, or directors of student affairs who oversee particular programmes within a school system, (Hasinger, 2012). A school administrator is an officer or employee in a school whose job is to oversee and take charge of the activities in the school. He or she is the chief executive and the position is statutory. In the primary school, he/she is the headmaster or headmistress while in the secondary he/she is the principal. The position is earned by upward mobility on the job after many years of teaching experience in the primary or secondary education setting. From the concepts definition of who an administrator is, the school counsellor by virtue of his/her position as the chief custodian of guidance activities in the school can also classified as a guidance administrator in the school. School administration therefore is overseeing the daily operations of schools, colleges, universities, day care centres and pre-schools. The administrators are an important link between students, teachers and local communities.
FIG. 1. THE ROLE OF THE SCHOOL COUNSELLOR IN SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION.

Explanation of Some Information on the Conceptual Framework

1. **Educational Services:** Refer to all types of helping interventions which the school counsellor gives to pupils or students in order to help them learn and perform well in school. The focus is academic success and the purpose is to enhance good achievement performance.

2. **Vocational Services:** These are all services given to help a pupil understand the world of work, how to find his rightful place in it and perform to his/her optimum. It also implies the dynamics of world of work, making the most appropriate career choice, crystallizing choice, job training etc.

3. **Personal Social:** All services given to a pupil to help him/her understand his/her person and life, manage it, build it, also to maintain good and healthy personal, inter and intra-personal and social relationships in life and work environments of an individual.
Methods Adopted
1. Curative (Remedial) Services
2. Preventive (Educational) Services

Curative or Remedial Guidance and Counselling: Implies that the behaviour maladjustment has already set in and needs counselling to correct the maladjustment. This requires specialized skills of a counsellor in a therapeutic management. Cases like drug addiction, unwanted pregnancy, traumatized students etc are best handled by experts in the field of counselling.

Preventive Guidance Interventions are primarily educational. Any teacher that is trained can conveniently handle this. This implies giving out awareness information data, facts and knowledge and life survival skills about an issue in order to properly educate a client on the issue.

Preventive Guidance General Techniques and Skills
A skill is a learned ability to perform an activity or task that may be motor or cognitive.

To a greater percentage, possession of appropriate skills brings about faster and more successful therapeutic results. Some of the preventive general skills are as follows: -
1. Listening
2. Empathy
3. Confidentiality
4. Questioning
5. Probing
6. Reassurance
7. Caring

Techniques: These are methods or specific procedures employed by counsellors in securing their goals or objectives of counselling relationship.

1. Communication
   - bill (notice boards)
   - posters
   - handbills for announcements
   - promotions
   - advertisement
   - propaganda for awareness creation

2. Information (Advocacy - voice to the voiceless child under abuse and neglect).
3. Seminars, workshops, public forum
5. Effective Study Habits
   Examples of good topics to teach the students as preventive guidance help are as follows:
   (1) Time Management
   (2) How to make and also follow personal study timetable
   (3) Techniques of note taking in class
   (4) Techniques of reading the textbook with comprehension.
(5) Examination preparation, examination taking techniques and avoidance of examination malpractice.
(6) Classroom behaviours on how to gain acceptability in the class from the teacher and classmates.
(7) Benefits of regular class attendance.
(8) How to handle homework, assignments and meeting deadlines on homework.
(9) Correct attitudes towards teachers, prefects, class monitors, head boy or head girl, and other adults and stay out of trouble,
(10) Benefits of finishing school (avoiding being a drop out).
(11) How to fill a form e.g. UME/JAMB form or GCE, NECO forms and others.
(12) How to answer essay and multiple-choice questions properly.
(13) How to avoid being a truant or getting into juvenile delinquency in school.
(14) How to avoid cults, cultism in schools and gangs in the society.
(15) Effects of hard work on good success.
(16) How to study for and take aptitude tests of all types for admission and job interviews.
(17) How to search the internet for update information, online search for admission and registration.

Preventive Vocational Guidance
Helping the students to know the following:
1. Types of occupations and prospects for the occupation.
2. Job families
3. Subject combination
4. Individual interest and aptitude
5. Personal occupational preference and at least two other choices as allied interest alternatives if the primary interest fails to be realized.

Nwadinobi, Umezulike & Eneasato (2013) identified kinds of occupational information which students should know as follows:
1. Employment prospects. Are the employment prospects for the occupation expanding or diminishing?
2. Nature of work. What are the pleasant or unpleasant things workers have to do? Tools, equipment or materials used.
3. Qualifications both academic and or physical qualities
4. Aptitudes
5. Interests
6. Legal and professional—does it require a license or certificate?
7. Preparation—What kind of education and training is needed?
8. Entrance- is it by examination, by application and interview etc.

Preventive Personal — Social Guidance
Organize a group discussion on the following:
1. How to relate to parents, step parents, siblings, half siblings.
2. How to relate to peers in the class, school and neighbourhood.
3. How to relate to teachers, school rules, prefects and discipline.
4. How to cope with healthy friendship with the same sex.
5. Healthy relationship with opposite sex.
6. Handling and maintaining healthy human sexuality.
7. Basic sex education for awareness living and protective life skills.
9. How to handle complex (inferiority or superiority, shyness and timidity).
10. Street wise on how to avoid getting into trouble.
11. How to seek help when needed, from where and from whom?
12. Attitude to money and financial habits.
16. General life survival and management skills.

Materials to work with
1. Cumulative Record Folder
2. Psychological texts e.g. study habit inventory (SHI).
3. Weighing balance
5. Logbook

THE ACTIVITIES OF THE SCHOOL COUNSELLOR AND SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION:
The school counsellor in discharging his or her duties should remember that the co-operative effort of the staff including the principal is indispensable for the success of the guidance programme. This is because guidance and counselling are intricately intertwined with both the instructional programme and the administration of the school (Maduakonam, 2008). The school guidance programme as should be developed by the counsellor should be of specific relevance to the school. Such a programme according to Hill and Luckey in Maduakonam (2008) is characterized by the acronym PLEA which means: P-Planned according to the philosophy of the school and the society, this determines the objectives of the programme. There should be assessment of students to make the programme focus on developmental needs of students. The counsellor should involve as many parties as possible in planning. These are the Principal, staff, head teacher, students and parents.

L-Leading means that the school administrator must give the programme a blessing. He/she has to accept the programme and be at the fore front in running the programme.

E-Execution of the programme implies implementation of the programme. The members of the staff should be involved by assigning specific duties and committees to them.

A-Appraisal is a very important aspect of the programme and it is the careful evaluation of what has happened in relation to the stated objectives.

Administering a guidance programme is a joint enterprise as mentioned earlier. Teachers, the school administrator and the school counselor are involved. Each participant should be given his/her work or duty description to carry out. Sub-committees can be formed according to specific areas of needs for the guidance programme, among such committees as enlisted by Deng in Maduakonam (2008) are:

i. Continuous assessment sub-committee headed by a mathematics teacher.
ii. Vocational sub-committee headed by the counsellor.
iii. Mental health sub-committee headed by a psychologist to deal with students psychological problems  
iv. Educational sub-committee headed by someone trained in vocational guidance.  
v. Information sub-committee headed by a teacher who is good in public relations and fast in collecting and disseminating information. Interested students should be co-opted as members.  
vi. Subject masters educational committee to take care of academic problems relating to subject difficulties.  
vii. Sub-committees of science subjects  
viii. Art subjects and social science sub-committee  

One thing to note is that the school principal or head teacher remains the executive member and leader of guidance programme while the counsellor is a committee technical leader. All the leaders are under the counsellor who co-ordinates the programme and serve as a resource person, a consultant and a facilitator. For avoidance of doubt it is necessary to have an overview of job descriptions of school guidance personnel.  

The head teacher or the principal is the executive officer and is responsible for the administrative functions of the guidance programme. Some of the activities of the head teacher include:  
i. Provision of adequate staff and facilities required by the programme  
ii. Interpretation of the guidance programme to all parties involved.  
iii. Delegation of appropriate responsibilities to the guidance team with expert assistance by the counsellor  
iv. He/she serves as an important link between the guidance programme and relevant outside regulating bodies like the primary school board, post primary school board and the ministry of education.  

In fact, the school administrator in the person of the head teacher or principal is one single person who can promote or inhibit the development of the school guidance programme.  

2. The Teacher  
i. The classroom teachers can contribute to the programme by ensuring that the classroom atmosphere is conducive and maximum student adjustment is provided.  
ii. Individual teachers help students to study effectively, helping them budget their time, resolve academic problems in various subjects etc.  
iii. Collecting academic occupational and personal data on students  
iv. Apart from data collection teachers are assigned various responsibilities in the guidance programme. For example, examination ethics committee members etc.  

3. The School Librarian: The school librarian can help promote the programme by obtaining, maintaining and displaying relevant educational, occupational and personal information for effective utilization by the students. Other useful materials on careers, educational and vocational opportunities for students can be displayed in the school library and the school librarian should also help the students to use the items.  

4. The School Nurse: The school nurse delivers para-counselling services which are those services that are integral to total guidance programme but are not delivered by the counsellor. Such services include:
i. Taking care of the pupil’s or student’s health problems that fall within his/her reach. Minor ailments like headaches, stomach pains can be arrested by the school nurse.

ii. Referring pupils or students to doctors and providing health education to students

5. **The Parents**: Parents role in the school guidance programme is to provide useful information on their children.
   i. Helping to modify their children’s behaviour
   ii. Curbing indiscipline, truancy and other forms of delinquency in their children.

6. **Other Non-Academic Staff**: Include the school drivers, clerks, messengers and gate man. For example, the gate man can carry out referral work since by virtue of his/her position within the school; he knows the habitual late comers and truants and could provide information to the counsellors.

**PROBLEMS OF THE COUNSELLOR IN SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION**

1. **Role Conflict**: Role conflict or role confusion about the position of the school counsellor in the school staff list is one of the major problems confronting the school counsellor in the school administration. As a matter of necessity, a counsellor needs a separate office of his/her own but sometimes it normally generates ill feelings towards the counsellor by other teachers who are often crowded in a room called staff room because of infrastructural inadequacy. It is possible for the counsellor to be seen as a lone ranger, a rival to the Vice-Principal or head teacher or someone whose position and roles are ambiguous. There should be role definition at the reception of counselling programme in the school by the school administrator.

2. **Inadequate Funding**: Guidance and counselling as a service-oriented programme is capital intensive. Fund is needed to build structures, equip the counselling centre, procure equipment and tools, organize and deliver services in addition to manpower development and maintenance in Nigerian schools (Academic Collective, 2016). Most times the services are not provided because of lack of fund.

3. **Shortage of tools**: It is sad to note that in some of our private and even public primary and secondary schools today, little or no attention is paid to the procurement of tools for counselling programme. Such tools are psychological tests, shelves, journals, computers, weighing balance and comfortable office with chairs and tables.

4. **Inadequate Access to Modern ICT**: Information about research findings, modern practices and opportunities for clients all over the world is often available on the internet. Unfortunately, most Nigerian schools are not internet connected. This limits the extent to which the school can explore new information for provision to the students.

5. **Shortage of Qualified Counsellors**: Counseling as a profession requires a considerable length of training. Most schools especially primary schools and private schools in Nigeria do not have qualified counsellors to practice in the school. In addition to the above problems Haruna (2015) identified the following as hitches in the administration of guidance services in Nigerian Secondary schools.

1. Lack of adequate and trained counsellors- Those who act as counselors are in most cases “quacks” and lack the technicalities of the profession (Saye in Haruna 2012)
2. Poor remuneration/incentives- Most counselors are not given adequate recognition by schools’ administrators and this makes their work more difficult.
3. Misconception-Many Nigerians do not seem to understand the principle behind guidance and counseling in our schools. Saye in Haruna (2015) observed that
counselors are often at logger heads with most school administrators; as such the programme is not well assimilated amongst the larger Nigerian population.

4. Lack of Adequate and relevant psychological tests: - Practicing counselors cannot function well in any situation without constant recourse to information either directly or indirectly about the clients. Without psychological tests, most of the information will not be assessed by the counsellor.

5. Poor expertise in the administration of psychological tests- many qualified counsellors lack the expertise in the usage of psychological tests especially in terms of collation and interpretation of data for the counselling purposes.

6. Lack of good office accommodation and counseling clinics- Due to wrong perception of the school counselor by some school administrators; they are given just an office space in the general staffroom making it difficult for students to have access to them for counselling.

CONCLUSION
The school counselor is part and parcel of school administration. It is quite obvious that the work of school counsellors is enormous and needs the co-operative efforts of school administrators and teachers to thrive in our schools. However many problems confront the school counsellor in the school administration and it can only be resolved if the school administrator in the person of either the head teacher in the primary school or principal in the secondary school takes up his/her responsibility of planning, directing, coordinating and managing human and material resources in the school for the benefit of school counselling programme. Finally, Guidance and Counselling programme in the school assist in school administration, minimize cases of indiscipline and promote administrative effectiveness.

RECOMMENDATIONS
Based on the discussions and conclusion, the following recommendations are hereby made:

i. Both the federal, state and local government should give all necessary assistance towards the establishment and progress of a solid guidance programme in both public and private primary and secondary schools in Nigeria.

ii. Guidance and Counselling programme should be embraced without delay by all administrators of schools so as to avail the students the opportunity to access counseling services.

iii. School Counsellors should be effective in the discharge of their duties so as to convince others of the value of counselling programme in schools.

iv. There should be adequate and effective public enlightenment programme by both national and state counselling associations in the media to sensitize the general public on the importance of guidance and counseling services in schools.

v. Since school guidance programme is a team work, whereby both administrators and teachers in collaboration with other non-academic staff play their different roles to see to the success of the programme, there is need to make these roles mandatory to all staff in the school by regulating bodies.
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EFFECTIVE COUNSELLING STRATEGIES FOR PREVENTING CRIME AND VIOLENCE AMONG YOUTHS TOWARDS SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

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ABSTRACT
Peace is prerequisite for stability, growth and sustainable development of any society. Unfortunately, Nigeria has been labeled as a crime ridden and unsafe country. This picture portends a dangerous signal for local and foreign economic activities and overall development of the country. Although, several efforts have been taken by the government towards addressing the insecurity and crime rate in the country, not much enduring outcome has been achieved. Relying on the review of secondary data (about crime and violence statistics in Nigeria) and personal experiences of authors, this paper examines the negative impacts of crime and violence tendencies on the growth and development of economic activities in Nigeria, and its possible implications for sustainable development goals. The paper proposes proactive solutions, grounded in effective counseling techniques, to address the crime challenges which make Nigerian environment an unsafe haven for local and foreign investors. It is the strong position of this paper that counselling strategies such as rational emotive therapy, assertiveness training skill; and peer modeling technique have the potency to effectively inculcate in youths, the spirit of consciousness for peace, conflict resolution and national security. The techniques can aid youths to deal with real life issues threatening their lives and society; soften their minds towards unity, patriotism; and preparing them for effective adult life. Hence, as a matter of policy, governments need to shift attention from crime and punishment syndrome to crime and violence’s preventive measures and make proactive efforts to address the root causes of major crimes through community counselling interventions.

Keywords: Community Counselling, Counselling Strategies, Crime, Sustainable Development & Violence.

INTRODUCTION
Peace is prerequisite for stability, growth and sustainable development to be achieved in any human grouping. Leaders have responsibility to uphold the basic principle of equity, fairness and natural justice must be maintained, in the distribution of available resources among the constituent communities in the society for Peace to reign supreme. Progress and development in all facet of human existence, social, economic, value system, environmental could then be assured for the common interest of all. Therefore, for any country to have sustainable development and experience national prosperity, there must be a favorable environment for investment to strive, no investor will take the risk to establish industry in violence ridden society with high level of crime rate. Unfortunately, Nigeria has been labelled as a crime ridden and unsafe country.
Organized crime and violence tendency among youths is an issue of global concern. For instance, a recent crime report in the United States of America (FBI, 2016) shows an increase in the growing rate of crime compared with the previous years. The report revealed that violent crime rose by 4.1 percent in 2016 compared with 2015, although the property crime reduced by 1.3 percent compared to 2015 figures. Also, the 2016 National Crime Victimization Survey’s (NCVS) finding shows that in 2016, among other things, the U.S. residents (12 years or older) experienced a total of 5.7 million violent victimizations; 15.9 million property crimes; motor vehicle thefts constituted 80% of the most likely reported crime to the police; and a total of 1.3% of all persons age 12 or older experienced one or more violent victimizations (Rachel & Grace, 2017). High crime rate and violence activities portends bad omen for the wheel of development and transformation of any society or country (Ayoola & Jabaru, 2015).

The situation is particularly worsened in Nigeria. Both local and foreign media have frequently reported different criminal activities perpetrated in Nigeria including oil theft, organized armed robbery, kidnapping and demand for ransom, assassination, repeated invasion and blockage of business installations, gang-raping, bribery and corruption, ritual killings, to mention a few (Achumba, Ighomereho, & Akpor-Robaro, 2013). The growing rate of crime and violence in Nigeria, in the recent times, is worrisome (Achumba et al., 2013), and this is quite evident in the review of crime statistics spread sheet on offences against persons, property and lawful authority and local acts, carried out in all state commands in 2009 by Johnson and Adeyinka (2014).

The result showed that in 2008, there were 35,109 offences against persons while in 2009 it was 38,955 (an increase of 3,846 cases). Also, offences against property in 2008 was 47,626 and in 2009 it was 64,286 (an increase of 16,660 cases). Meanwhile, offences against authority in 2008 was found to be 5,938 and in 2009 it was 7,878 (an increase of 1,940 cases). Similarly, offences against local acts in 2008 was estimated at 90,156 and in 2009 it was 1,378 (a decrease of 88,778 cases) (Nigeria Police Watch, cited in Johnson & Adeyinka, 2014).

In addition to the above, the data about the actual experience of crime in Nigeria, in the National Crime Victimization Survey’s report (NCVS) by CLEEN Foundation (2013), revealed that a quarter of the respondents (25.0%) had been victims of crime during 2012; Enugu State had the highest number of victims of crime (70.0%), followed by Ekiti State and Ebonyi States (both 65.0%). In terms of the Nigeria regions with highest experience of crime, the south east recorded highest (44.0%), while the North West recorded lowest score (18.0%).

Furthermore, the Lagos police command, in Lagos State alone, was able to foil 462 and 418 cases of robbery in 2012 and 2013 respectively. Also, out of the 1448 and 1263 vehicles stolen in Lagos in 2012 and 2013 respectively, 1187 vehicles were recovered in 2012 and only 954 vehicles recovered in 2013, among other findings (CLEEN Foundation, 2013).

The above mindboggling statistics needs no further interpretation about the rate of crime and criminal tendencies in Nigeria. This scenario has caused Nigeria to be viewed as a danger-zone among the comity of nations across the globe. It also contributes significantly to reason for consistent high ranking of Nigeria among the insecure nations of the world and the number one most unsafe nation among the West African countries (Global Peace Index “GPI,” 2012).

Although, as noted by Azazi (2011, in Achumba et al., 2013), several steps have been taken by the federal government towards addressing the incessant crimes and violence activities
occurring in different part of the country, including criminalization of terrorism by passing the Anti-Terrorism Act in 2011, installation of Computer-based Closed Circuit Television cameras (CCTV) in some parts of the country, enhancement of surveillance as well as investigation of criminal related offences, heightening of physical security measures around the country aimed at deterring or disrupting potential attacks, strengthening of security agencies through the provision of security facilities and the development and broadcast of security tips in mass media. The aforementioned efforts notwithstanding, the spate of criminal activities and insecurity in the country remains unabated. According to Adenuga and Nor Azam (2017), the crime rate in Nigeria increased from 65.93% to 66.28% in 2011 and 2012 respectively and subsequently increased to 66.45% in 2013. The rise in the crime rate was associated with the fall in real economic growth from 5.41% to 4.98% in 2006 and 2010 respectively, and to 2.60% in 2013 (World Bank Indicator, 2016).

Security challenges occasioned by crimes and violence activities have negative impact for economic growth and attainment of a meaningful sustainable development goal. Hence, this paper is an attempt to examine the negative impacts of crime and violence tendencies on growth and development of economic activities in Nigeria, and for attainment of sustainable development goals. The paper also aims to propose solutions, grounded in effective community counseling, to address the crime rate and make Nigerian environment a safe haven for local and foreign investors, so as to facilitate the thriving of economic activities.

In line with the highlighted goals above, this paper is organized in three sections. The first section examines the meaning, forms and motivations for crime and violence activities based on the previous literature review; the second section lists and synchronizes various ways by which crimes and violence behaviours have constituted clog in the wheel of economic transformation and sustainable development agenda of the country; and the third section focuses on potential of counseling strategies as effective means to reduce crime and violence tendencies among youths, thereby facilitating a meaningful sustainable development of the nation.

**Meaning, Forms and Motivations for Crime and Violence in Nigeria**

Crime and violence are closely-related terms. The two terms are frequently used together to refer to state of insecurity of live and property in a place or society. According to Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary, crime refers to the act of breaking the law, committing an illegal act or activity punishable by law; or doing an immoral thing or making a big mistake. Violence on the other hand is an act or behavior calculated to hurt or kill somebody. The above definition shows that crime is pretty broader in scope than violence. Also, while some criminal activities are usually executed with violence means such as armed robbery, gang-raping, ritual killing, and extortion, others do not necessarily involve violence including bribery and corruption and bargaining and pact-making between a range of official and unofficial power-holders and their constituencies (Schultze-Kraft, 2016). In this paper, however, the two terms are used synonymously to imply behaviors and activities that heightened state of insecurity of lives and properties and source of threat to sustainable development.

Crime and violence is multi-dimensional in nature. Some dimensions of violent crimes according to Fayeye (2001) include: 1. Direct Violence, which usually involves deliberate injury to the integrity of human life e.g., homicide, murder, and massacre; 2. Brutal Acts Against the civil Society, usually manifested in the form of torture; rape and maltreatment; 3. Restriction and Physical Constraints, e.g., kidnapping, imprisonment, forced labour; 4. Indirect
Violence, this involves showing of unconcerned attitude to fellow human being when in need of help or in danger (especially the vulnerable group like the senior citizens, women, children, physically challenged persons, etc); 5. Mediated Violence, usually caused by dangerous medication of the nature and social environment of the opposing ethnic group; and 6. Repressive Violence – deprivation of the fundamental rights, derail of participation in political activities due to threat of attack and lack of protection of property.

Besides the dimensions highlighted above, Ayres (1998) contends that crime and violence can be categorized into three – the political, economic and social crimes. The Political Crime refers to crime/violent acts motivated by a conscious or unconscious desire to obtain or maintain political power. Examples include: Guerrilla conflict; paramilitary conflict; political assassinations; armed conflict between political parties. The Economic Crime is usually motivated by a conscious or unconscious desire for economic gain or to obtain or maintain economic power e.g., street crime; robbery/theft; drug trafficking; kidnapping; and assaults made during economic crimes. The Social Crimes on the other hand are violent acts usually motivated by a conscious or unconscious desire for social gain or to obtain or maintain social power. Examples include interpersonal violence such as spouse and child abuse; sexual assault of women and children; and arguments that get out of control. All the above forms of crime are present and witness regularly in Nigeria. Data available on crime statistics in Nigeria (between 2000 and 2008) shows that the five most prominent crimes in Nigeria include theft, armed-robbery, kidnapping, assassination, and fraud. Table 1 indicates the frequency of occurrence of each of the crimes and the total of all five crimes committed against each year.

<table>
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<th>Kidnapping</th>
<th>Assassination</th>
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<td>2007</td>
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<td>31553</td>
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<td>2340</td>
<td>309</td>
<td>1956</td>
<td>5058</td>
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It is evidence in Tab. 1 that theft had the highest occurrence across all the years covered in the report, followed by armed robbery and fraud. Kidnapping had the least occurrence, followed by assassination. Interestingly, since almost a decade ago when the above statistics was published, the crime rate in the country has not stopped increasing at alarming rate. According to the report published by the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS), the total reported criminal cases against persons stood at 45,554, while crime against lawful authority and local Acts recorded the least with 12,144 and 2,695 cases recorded respectively (NBS, 2016). The report further noted that the FCT and Lagos State had the highest number of reported crimes (58,566 together, out of 125,790 cases reported from the 36 states n 2016). Ani (2009) noted that the rate of theft, armed robbery especially in the banks, kidnapping and assassination has continued to rise especially in the southern part of the country. Also, CLEEN (2012) in a survey of crime rate in Nigeria found that robbery rate has increased significantly in the past one year. Also,
the vandalization of business installations in particular, those of GSM operator has been on the increase.

Achumba et al. (2013) noted that the root cause of most criminal activities in Nigeria can be traced to remote and proximate/immediate factors. Some of the remote factors include systemic failure of government institutions (Fukuyama, 2004) which is usually manifested in government’s inability to deliver public services and to provide for basic needs of the masses. The absence of basic necessities in different parts of the country has created a pool of frustrated people who are prone to be ignited by any event to be violent. Also, the sharp inequality and injustice that pervades the national outlook in the country, especially in the sharing of national resources, is a contributory factor (Onuoha, 2011). This has resulted in loss of confidence and hope among Nigerian youths, and constant expression of anger and frustration about the pervasive state of inequality. Another contending factor is the defective security system in the country, which concerns the lack of adequate, well-competent security personnel and quality equipment to handle the security challenges professionally; and the decline in morals/eroded traditional value system of the Nigerian society such as the endearing culture of collectivism, loyalty to authority and community, truthfulness, honesty, industriousness, tolerance, love for others, peaceful coexistence, hatred for theft, and high value for individual and communal life (Clifford, 2009).

Whereas, the immediate/proximate factors are traceable to the porous borders, rural-urban drift, unemployment and poverty, terrorism, to mention a few (Hazen & Horner, 2007; Onuoha, 2011; Achumba et al., 2013). Hazen and Horner (2007) observed that Nigeria borders are obviously porous and less secured. Given this problem and the associated weak security system, small arms and light weapons get to Nigeria easily from other countries and have aided criminal groups to have easy access to arms and free influx of illegal migrants from neighbouring countries such as Republic of Niger, Chad and Republic of Benin (Adeola & Oluyemi, 2012). These migrants which are mostly young men are figured to execute some of the criminal activities in the country. A recent research shows that Nigeria hosts over 70 percent of about 8 million illegal weapons in West Africa (Edeko, 2011).

Another immediate factor is rural-urban migration, which usually involves the migration of jobless youths from rural areas to urban centres in Nigeria (Onuoha, 2011). Most at times, due to large population in the cities, the jobs are scarce and hard to get (Adedeji and Eziyi, 2010). Out of frustration, these youths are drawn into crime. Also, persistent unemployment and poverty, especially among the youths, is a major immediate cause of crime and violence behaviours in Nigeria. An adage says: “an idle hand is a devil-man’s workshop”. Hence, frustrated unemployed youth are easily lured into violent crimes (Adagba et al., 2012).

Yet, emergence of insurgent and terrorist group is another focal point. Onuoha (2011) opined that insurgen/terrorism is the premeditated use of threat or use of violence by an individual or group to cause fear, destruction or death, especially against unarmed targets, property or infrastructure in a state, usually done to force those in authority to respond to the demands and expectations of the individual or group behind such violent acts. Terrorism in Nigeria is rooted in the activity of Niger-Delta militant and Boko Haram insurgent groups (the militants are found in the Niger-Delta areas of the country, while Boko Haram constitutes a group of misguided Islamic fundamentalist in the northern part of Nigeria who believed that western education and culture has outlived its relevance and purpose in Nigeria and as such, should be
denounced and rejected in its totality. Since its inception in 2009 till date, many lives have been lost and several properties damaged.

Having examined the forms, rationales and motivations behind the criminal and violent activities in Nigeria, the subsequent discussion is devoted to the impact of crime rate on business activities on one hand, and its implications for nation’s sustainable development agenda on the other hand.

**Crime Rate and Business Activities in Nigeria**

Investment in business activities is an essential enabler of economic and human development. Investment creates jobs and boosts the activity of local firms, suppliers and distributors by creating demand and a market for their products and services. It also improves access to and the quality of infrastructure and services critical for the development of entrepreneurship and small businesses, such as banking and finance. Albeit, most investment is undertaken by domestic firms, international investment can bring particular benefits. It can encourage innovation and spur productivity growth by bringing in or generating new information and technologies – such as through knowledge-intensive activities like research and development. It can help to spread new technologies and expertise, for example through the creation of business linkages and by providing improved access to international markets and global value chains.

However, in an atmosphere laden with criminal and violent tendencies, it is extremely difficult for business activities to yield the expected maximum benefits for nation’s development. The prevalence of crime and violence in Nigeria has consistently responsible for the low ranking of the country among the comity of peaceful nations in the world, particularly for being ranked as the least peaceful among the West African countries. Table 2 buttresses the least ranking of Nigeria among West African countries.

**Table 2: GPI Ranking of Nigeria and other West African Countries**

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<td>1.76</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>1.78</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>42</td>
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<td>Sierra Leone</td>
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<td>-</td>
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<td>1.90</td>
<td>61</td>
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<td>Burkina Faso</td>
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<td>1.83</td>
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<td>-</td>
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<td>1.99</td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
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<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2.13</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>2.07</td>
<td>92</td>
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<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Guinea Bissau</td>
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<td>-</td>
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<td>2.11</td>
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<tr>
<td>8</td>
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<td>-</td>
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<td>2.86</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>2.13</td>
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<td>Mali</td>
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<td>2.19</td>
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<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
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<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Mauritania</td>
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<td>2.43</td>
<td>130</td>
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<td>13</td>
<td>Cot d’Ivoire</td>
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<td>2.30</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>128</td>
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**Source:** Global Peace Index “GPI” (2008 – 2012)
There is substantial evidence in the literature suggesting that high rate of crime and violence portends serious effect for the growth of business activities in any society. Nigeria case is not an exception. In the views of Onuoha (2011) and Achumba et al. (2013), a pervasive criminal and violent activity in the country is an affront not only to business investment, but the entire business organization or some aspects of its operations which include production, marketing, finance and human resource. The dangerous relationship between crime and violence behavior on business activities in Nigeria can be appraised from two perspectives: Potential business investor and the existing business investor. Potential business investor refers to individuals who have interest to invest in business but are yet to venture into one. The state of criminal activities in the country is source of worry and concern to potential business investors. Prevalent crime and violence discourage investment as it makes investment unattractive to business people. This is because it increases the cost of doing business either through direct loss of goods and properties or the cost of taking precautions against business risks and uncertainty (Johnson & Aderinto, 2014). In tandem with this view, Ujah and Eboh’s (2006) report of a study by World Bank on investment climate in nine African countries found that 29% of business operators in Africa and 36% in Nigeria perceived insecurity as a major constraint on investment. This picture sends a warning signal to potential investors, especially the international community, that Nigeria is not a safe and secure place and as such not suitable for investment and business activities. This is certainly a strong discouragement to business investment as it scares away potential investors. Little wonder then that foreign investors in the Nigerian economy are moving away from starting new companies or production plants and are buying up shares of quoted companies instead (Achumba et al., 2013). Figures from the 2010 Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) annual report show a steep 78.1 percent decline in foreign direct investment.

Existing Business Inventors on the other hand are individuals who have already invested resources in one type of business activity or the other. An atmosphere characterized by crime and violence can, and in many ways, affects the existing business operations. For instance, criminal activities such as armed robbery, kidnapping, and vandalization of industrial facilities including oil and gas pipelines could lead to outright closure of many enterprises or business initiatives, especially in the zones where criminal incidences occur regularly, so as to safe lives of workers and business property. Consequently, some viable business interests in Nigeria had to relocate to other countries, mostly neighbouring countries (Omomia 2015).

Apart from the human and sociological effect, there is a significant economics cost to the country in which rate of crime and violence are high, such economic effect include increase absenteeism, decrease in labour market participation, reduced productivity that lower earning (Krug, Dahlberg, and Mercy. 2002 cited in Ayoola & Jabaru, 2015). On a generally note, absence of safe and secured environment for business transaction constitutes serious impediment for the growth and survival of any businesses. Hence, in Nigeria today, some businessmen and manufacturing companies have had to relocate particularly from the North in recent time, to other peaceful parts of the country (Nwagbosa 2012; Omomia 2015). Some firms may also shift their operations to other countries like Ghana which is deemed to be more peaceful and less threaten in terms of criminal activities (Omomia 2015).

**Implications of Incessant Crime/ Violence for Sustainable Development in Nigeria**

Sustainable development has been viewed as the development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs (Strange & Bayley, 2008). According to Oranusi and Duru (2016), sustainable development is a key concept used in the study of interaction between economy and the biophysical
environment, as well as the goal acceptable for environmental policy. It is the transformation of economic system towards sustainability (Peter & Jerome, 2002). The aims of sustainable development are to ensure a safe and healthy environment for all and sundry and to maximize simultaneously national goals, organizational goals and individual goals that can persist over generations.

Akpobibibo (2003) noted that the principle behind sustainability is to make life meaningful to all. Development in any society is essentially dependent on the growth and development of economic activities in the society. The level of economic activities, in turn, is enhanced by peaceful coexistence of people. It is people who interact to carry out economic activities through their businesses. Businesses are the vehicle for economic activities, which later translate to national economic development. Thus, businesses play a great role in the process of development. A society that encounters youth unrest, political thuggery, social unrest, poverty and disease will not develop effectively in the long run.

Crime and violence rate in Nigeria is identified as one of the greatest obstacles to meaningful sustainable development (Call, 2000, Ujah and Eboh, 2006, Igbuzor, 2011). Without adequate crime and violence control measures, development cannot be sustained as it destroys economic, human and social capital. It is only under conditions of peace and security that people and government can direct their efforts and resources towards improving human life. Thus, the last section of this paper aims to situate community counseling as an effective tool to combat crime and violence tendency among youth, so as to foster enabling environment for business activity and sustainable development.

**Counseling Strategies towards Sustainable Development**

Modo, Sanni, Uwah and Mogbo (2013) opined that guidance and counselling techniques are effective to inculcate the spirit of consciousness for peace, conflict resolution and national security among youths. The techniques can aid youths to deal with real life issues threatening their lives and society in general; soften their minds towards spirit of unity, nationality and patriotism; preparing youths for effective adult life that promotes harmonious relationship among members of the society, and inculcating in them values like compassion, integrity, hope, justice, unity, gender fairness, caring for life, sharing, reconciliation and active non-violence. Lewis (2011) contended that a decrease in crime rate rekindles hope for social order, and likelihood that businesses will progress well. This also decreases government expenditure into programmes and institutions that reduce, punish, and compensate for deviance. It is against this backdrop that guidance and counseling strategies are put forward as veritable tool for preventing violent crimes and inculcating positive value in restive youth.

Guidance counsellors are professionally trained individuals, with skills to help and develop people with consciousness to engage in meaningful/ lawful activities. Majority of youth who engage in criminal acts are individuals with disillusioned minds. Such individuals lack training and skills to act assertively in matters that require thinking through, taking wise and informed decision. This is why they are often soft targets for easy luring into evil tendencies.

Guidance counsellors use various techniques and strategies to help inculcate right values and change virulent/ criminal tendencies that constitute menace to peaceful co-existence in the society. The process of creating peace and enabling society needs to begin with resolving intrapersonal conflict in individual and then progress to resolving interpersonal conflicts. Thus, the view of guidance counsellors on solution to crime and violence behaviours, national peace
and sustainable development becomes imperative (Nwafor, 2013; Oguzie, 2014). There are many counseling strategies to help individual live a happy life and less criminally inclined behaviours. However, for economy of space, this discourse is limited to the application of three cognitive and behavioural counseling techniques (rational emotive therapy “RET,” assertiveness training skill, and modeling technique) in community counseling settings to deal with crime and violence incidences, in order to facilitate enabling environment for sustainable development in Nigeria. Counseling techniques to facilitate positive habits and value reorientation are examined in the next paragraphs.

**Rational Emotive Therapy and Community Counselling**

Rational emotive therapy (RET) is a counseling technique propounded by a renowned psychologist “Allbert Ellis” in 1962, to assist in attacking illogical thoughts capable of causing mal-functioning and mal-adjustment in individuals. Ellis believed that it is by attending to such illogical thoughts that the belief system can be altered. Rational Emotive Therapy (RET) is built on the belief that how we respond emotionally at any moment depends on our interpretations, views, beliefs, and thoughts of the situation. To put in a different way, RET approach suggests that individuals’ demands for unrealistic responses are causes of anxiety, depression and lack of assertiveness. Example of such demand is the “must” action in individuals. For instance, the stance that one “must” do well and get approval, or else he is worthless is enough to cause anxiety and depression in him. In the same vein, that somebody must be loved by everybody in his class at all times is an illogical position that is unrealistically internalized by such a person which is causing him disaffection among his peers. In the absence of the expected love from his mates, he becomes depressed, tensed up, dejected and withdrawn. According to Ellis (1962), these irrational thoughts or behaviours are genetically determined and acquired from one’s culture and parents during the process of socialization. Human beings subject themselves to irrational thinking patterns and in the process, destroy themselves. Man is basically rational as well as irrational and functions through logic and reasoning in his endeavours. Man becomes productive, effective and happy when he is rational but irrational and unproductive when he displays emotional or neurotic behaviours. Thus, it is necessary to learn to recognize irrational, illogical and unrealistic views of violent people and subsequently substitute such views with rationality, reason and new direction of purpose. It is believed that a large part of what we call emotion is nothing more than a biased, prejudiced or strongly evaluative kind of thinking (Akinade, Sokan & Osarenren, 2005).

The counselling goals of RET are enumerated as follows: Encouraging or enabling disillusioned individuals to perceive their situations as the source of their emotional disturbances; encouraging clients to bring into focus the illogical and irrational ideas to enable them to re-straighten their thinking in a logical manner; helping clients to be “cured” of their unreason by reason; and teaching clients how to re-think, challenge and contradict faulty internalized thoughts (Ellis, 1977).

**Assertiveness Training Skills**

Since behavior can be learned and unlearn assertive skill training will help the youths to unlearn some undesirable behaviours such as violent and aggressive behaviours. Assertiveness is the hub of interpersonal behavior and an important tool of human relations (Lin et al., 2004). Assertiveness is the medium used by individuals to express their positive and negative emotions without infringe the rights of others (Paterson et al., 2002). Assertive people are not scared of expression. Assertive people possess the skills social influences (Powell & Nugent,
Assertive skill is one of the self-efficacy tools that can be useful for youths to improve their interpersonal skills and sense of self-respect for themselves and others in the society. It is based on the principle that everyone has a right to express their thoughts, feelings, and needs to others in a respectful manner without being aggressive. When individual lack the skills to express themselves openly, they may become depressed, anxious, angry, and lose sense of self-worth. Lack of assertive communication skills may affect youth relationships with other group of people and affect their peaceful co-existences with others, they may also become resentful when adult in the society could not read their minds for what they were not assertive enough to tell them.

Assertive training focuses not only on talking about the importance of assertiveness, but also on learning assertive behaviors through the help of the therapist and practicing these behaviors. Assertive communication will help the youth to express their ideas and feelings in an open, honest and direct way. It encourages people to take responsibility for themselves and their actions without judging or blaming other people for their mistakes. It allows an individual to constructively confront and find mutually satisfying solution where conflict exists. Aggressive behavior occurs when an individual is trying to force their own needs on others, therefore, acquisition of assertiveness skills helps the youths in various ways: it will helps them feel good about themselves and others; leads to the development of mutual respect with others; increases self-esteem; helps them achieve their goals; minimizes hurting and alienating other people; reduces anxiety of any kind; protects them from being taken advantage of by others; enables us to make decisions and free choices in life; to express, both verbally and non-verbally, a wide range of feelings and thoughts, both positive and negative.

Modelling Techniques
In order to reduce and prevent the rate of violent behaviour among youths the application of peer modeling technique could go a long way to help. In general, affiliations with peer group, family and the types of recreational activities available to young people are the strongest predictors of adolescent substance use and delinquency (Thorlindsson et al; 1998, 2007; Krista Jansson et al; 2006). Modeling is valuable technique used by behaviour counselors. With this technique, a person models himself after another’s behaviour or actions. It may not be necessary for the youth to perform in any particular way in order to learn from modeling; merely observing the model’s behaviour is often sufficient. According to Butcher and Mineka (2007), modeling involves the learning of skills through imitating another person such as a parent or therapist who performs the behaviour to be acquired. In the same vein, Harris (2002) that peer groups have a stronger influence than that of parents. The counselor could expose the youths to behaviours or roles of peers who acts as assistants to the counselor and then be encouraged to imitate and practice the desired new responses. For example, modeling may be used to promote skills such as being more effective in social situations for a shy, and to change maladaptive behaviour such as violent behaviours, aggressiveness and criminal tendencies.

Application and Implications of the Counselling Techniques in Africa
Nigerian youths need to think more rationally and take wise decisions in such matters as moral and ethical concerns, especially when confronted with crime and violent tempted situations. This calls for the necessity of community counseling at different strategic settings in the society. A community counselling is a form of culturally embedded psychological and social support that is integral to community social responses and it includes a variety of roles and activities that engage with the different levels of the social system: individuals, families and groups, organizations and institutions, specific communities, and society (Lazarus, 2009).
a derivative of community psychology, this approach addresses social factors that have impact on the well-being of individuals and communities (Lazarus, 2007). According to Lazarus, a number of important principles that inform the practice of community counselling are as follows:

First, community counselling requires a holistic understanding of community practice. The concept of community affects social relations and gives meaning to behaviour. It is the basis for personal identity. Thus, community counselling interventions include roles and activities directed at changing relationships within a community as a social system, which include working with individuals, families, neighbourhoods, and society as a whole.

Also, community counselling focuses on the development of meaningful social relations that deemphasize attitudes towards differences capable of prejudice and stigma. The practice of community counselling champions the issues relevant to the voices and concerns that are usually silenced and marginalized in community. There is also an emphasis on a critique of predominant practices and behaviours that fail to reckon with peoples’ strengths, in favour of those that promote resilience. In other words, the therapists, in a community counseling setting, need to dislodge and get rid of various irrational thought patterns internalized by victims of endemic corruption, large scale unemployment and poverty in Nigeria which are mostly manifested in the form of uncharitable, criminally-minded activities. Assessment and interventions focus on the development of ‘healthy’ environments within which people can thrive.

More so, community counselling builds on a range of sociological and psychological theories, knowledge-based technologies, and analytical techniques to promote caring communities in which both the dominant and deprived voices find spaces to engage in dialogue around a range of issues. Apart from examining how individuals function in their social contexts, there is a focus on macro issues or problems that have impact on the mental health and overall well-being of all members of the community. The idea is to prevent problems from developing through preventive health promotion strategies.

Lastly, community counselling is culturally embedded. In this sense, psychological assistance is intentionally shaped by the knowledge and cultural norms that inform social transactions in a community. This means that formal disciplinary knowledge and local community-embedded knowledge need to be brought together in an attempt to understand and respond to community challenges.

To sum up the points, community approach to counseling, through application of RET therapeutic principles, assertiveness training and modelling techniques, can fast-track sustainable development of the society in many ways. By encouraging restive youth to comprehend their illogical and irrational ideas, re-straighten their thinking in a logical manner; helping them to be “cured” of their unreason by reason; and teaching them ways to re-think, challenge and contradict faulty internalized thoughts, a lot of virulent and violent motivated behaviours can be curbed and controlled. Also, inappropriate, anti-social thinking and behaviours could be substituted with appropriate, altruistic and morally approved behaviours by helping people to understand that two wrongs do not make a right and encourage them to express their thoughts and feelings without hurting another person. More importantly, the logic of community counseling paves ample chance for effective tackling of some social maladies that directly or indirectly gave rise to different forms of crime violence in our society. Once
connections among different forms of crimes are clearly established through effective counseling, adequate steps required to address the problems could be proposed to appropriate authority for necessary action and attention.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS
For any community to experience accelerated development and sustainable growth, there must be a policy statement for quality guidance and counseling services. The United States of America is a relevant example in this case, which acknowledged the necessity of quality guidance counseling services in its national development especially when she perceived that Japan was out-performing her in space technology. Today, such a clever step by the US is a success story. It must be emphasized that such policy should be all-encompassing and extending beyond the school to the community. Therefore, the following recommendations were made:

- The governments at all levels, non-governmental agencies, religious bodies, community leaders should establish Counselling Centers in the communities where youth can seek for counselling from.
- School administrators at all educational levels should establish functioning Counselling centers for the schools. Professional counsellors should be employed to operate the counselling centers in and outside the schools.
- Counsellors should employ strategies such as: jingles on radio and television, post on social media for on line counselling, pasting of posters, delivery of talk during religious programmes on the importance of counselling for holistic development etc, to encourage youths to seek for counselling.
- Counsellors should be versatile in using different counselling techniques to reduce crime and violence among youths.
- As a matter of policy, governments at all levels need to shift thinking from crime and punishment syndrome to a preventive crime and violence measures and make proactive effort to address the root causes of major crimes among youths through community counselling interventions.
- Counsellor should extensive effort on family counselling to foster peaceful co-existence and healthy family relationship
- The role of community counseling via RET approach and assertiveness training needs to be emphasized. Hence, counselors need to increase the scope of their services to include giving the following counselling services in the community:
  - Violence/Victim Support - For individuals that either directly experience or witness violent event want to protect their loved ones by getting re-assurance that everything will be well, counsellor will be able to help such individuals.
  - Suicidal Feelings - If people who are experiencing suicidal feelings have someone to speak to, this may prevent them from carrying out their mission.
  - Illness and Dying - Individual that is suffering from illness that can lead to death needs a safe and non-judgmental space to talk. The counselling service can provide him/her the help his/her situation required.
  - Financial Difficulties - Anyone that is finding difficulties in managing finances or incurring debt, talking to a debt counsellor will help them out of the problem.
  - Cultural issues -Helping individual to understand how to negotiate cultural differences and customs through counselling. This will bring about growth in the community.
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PART 3
ICT IN EDUCATION
3.1 VIDEO-BASED INSTRUCTION: THE NEED FOR QUALITY CONTROL

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ABSTRACT
Advancement in information and communication technology (ICT) has brought video films into the realm of instructional materials. The relevance has also been acknowledged by researchers in the realm of education based on findings with due consideration of the theories and practices in education. However, economic adventures have gone into the production of video-based instructional materials without due consideration of necessary elements that are required of instructional materials before learning can be facilitated. The producers of these video-based materials are not known in the realm of the design and development of instructional package, and the information presented is not well package to meet the expected standard. This paper therefore advocates for quality control of video-based instructional materials so as to ensure that such materials actually comply with the standard required of good instructional video in order to allow for the achievement of the expected learning outcomes based on the use of such materials.

Keywords: Instructional Material, Video-based Instruction & Quality Control.

INTRODUCTION
Instructional materials encapsulate diverse resources and equipment that can be used to facilitate learning. Anuforo (2007) defines instructional materials as those materials which can be manipulated, seen, heard or talk together with the instrument which can facilitate learning. They are channels through which messages, information, ideal and knowledge are conveyed and disseminated for effective learning to take place either in presence of the teacher or otherwise. This above postulation implies that learning can take place without the physical presence of the teacher when instructional materials are appropriately used.

In the view of Opinmi (2007), instructional materials are potent starter and motivator that can make learning interesting and joyous, add variety to classroom and promote curiosity among the learners. The above submissions reveal the relevance of instructional materials as catalysts to learning in the teaching-learning process. However, for any material to be relevant as instructional material, there must be a set standard premised on theories and principles of learning that must be jealously guided thereby necessitating the need for quality control or assurance.

According to Dannenberg and Capell (1997), the goodness or otherwise of a course is determined by how well it is designed, delivered and conducted. Making inference from this, it could be stated that the appropriateness of any instructional material will greatly be decided
by how well it is designed, developed and delivered in line with the needs and experience of the learners. Instructional material can be visual, audio or audio-visual, but the fundamental principle is that it must be able to facilitate learning.

Modern technology has brought video and the love for it has led to the development of video-based instructional materials. According to Akpabio (2004), children and youths are engrossed with home video films which has positioned them in the realm of being regarded as video-crazy. Martinoz (2009) asserts that video can be used to illustrate how something works, provides information in detail than what text and graphic can do, show real life examples and grabs students’ attention.

The qualities enshrined in video have brought it into the realm of material that can be used in instructional delivery to facilitate learning. However, the use of instructional video has gone beyond the realm of classroom environment where teachers can assess the worth of it in relation to learning. The strive for economic gains has brought a lot of people into the production of instruction video without the expertise thereby leading to the production of sub-standard instructional video which could have devastating effects on learning due to the inappropriateness in terms of subject matter, presentation of content, use of colour, sequence of presentation amongst others.

INSTRUCTIONAL VIDEO AND INSTRUCTIONAL DELIVERY
The relevance of video-based instruction has been asserted by different scholars. Agmmuoh and Nzewi (2003) state that video-based instruction has the quality of providing a semi-permanent, complete and audio-visual record of events. The researchers view it as a method of instruction that has the potential of increasing the probability that students will learn more, retain better and achieve improvement in performance.

Babalola (2007) posits that video is a powerful tool for classroom through which children could learn about land and people they may never meet and learn how they cope with their environment. The study conducted by the scholar shows that video-based instruction enhances comprehension and retention. It further reveals that real-life activities, illustration, demonstration and specimen in agriculture and the environment are brought to the learners in the classroom in a neat and exiting package. Petty (2004) states that video camera creates instant excitement and are extremely easy to use. Martinoz (2009) submits that video-based instruction provides opportunity for clearer communication between students and the instructor and/or between student and student. The above assertions imply that video-based instruction has the potential of promoting academic achievement if properly developed and utilized.

The efficacy of video-based instruction has been ascertained by many researchers. The investigation conducted by Alonge (2012) confirms the efficacy of video computer disc in the study of introductory technology among secondary school students in Nigeria. The finding of Babalola (2007) affirms the effectiveness of video-based instruction on students’ achievement in agricultural and environmental science at primary school level in Nigeria. Odor and Igwe (2012) study reveals the significant effect of video based instruction on pupils performance in social studies at primary school level. Osokoya (2007) finds significant effect of video tape instruction on student academic performance in history. The above studies attest to the effectiveness of video–based instruction in different subject areas therefore advocating for its utilisation in instructional delivery.

However, the production and utilization must be based on principles guiding the design and development of instructional materials. Efforts should be made to prevent the proliferation of
instructional video in Nigeria market through the efforts of economic adventures that are not grounded in the principles guiding the design and development of instructional material.

QUALITY CONTROL
Quality control focuses on the attainment of a set standard for the acceptance and use of any product. Eya and Chuck (2012) citing Fergabaum and Nwagbara (2008) views quality as often used to signify excellence of a product, service or action. It is the totality of features and characteristic of a product or services that bear on its ability to satisfy stated or implied needs. It is the ability of the product to meet the expectation of the recipient or users. The scholar therefore emphasizes the need for quality control which is the regular process for quality which products, services and quality performance are measured. Kenton (2019) views quality control as a process through which a business seeks to ensure that product quality is maintained or improved with either reduced or Zero errors. The scholars assert that quality control requires the business to create an environment in which both management and employees strive for perfection.

In the view of Akhter (2004), the maintenance of quality of instructional materials is essential for the maintenance of any educational programme. Citing Mishra, Ahmad and Rui (2001), Akhter alludes that for maximum benefit to be derived from primary medium of instruction, the material must be self-instructional, the content must be appropriate, presentation must be interesting to the learners and the subject matter should be logically and gradually developed in simple language in such a way that the student will be motivated. Though the focus of the research was on print material, but the conditions prescribed can also go into the production of video-based instruction materials since the target of such materials is to enhance learning.

The Common Wealth Educational Media Control for Asia (2007) asserts the rapid increase in the use of technology across all educational levels but acknowledges the fact that the quality of the multimedia learning materials produced continues to be uneven thereby raising doubt about the additional value that such materials make to the teaching learning process. The above observation has gone into the production of video-based instructional materials in Nigeria by those who produce and sell to people for home use since their interest is not basically to enhance learning but to make profit.

To achieve the desired learning objectives through the utilization of video–based instruction, the material must satisfy certain criteria which should be known to both the producer and end user who may be teachers, students or parents.

CHARACTERISTICS OF A GOOD INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIAL
The American institute of working professional (2008- 2012) advocates some criteria for a good self-instruction material as stated below.

(i) Self-contained: it must contain all necessary information in such a way that the leaner will not need to seek for immediate additional services. The information must be Present sequentially and logically based on the expected performance objectives with due consideration of the target audience.

(ii) Self-directed: it must be presented in such a way that necessary guidance, hints and suggestions that will facilitate its effective use and appropriateness in term of the content should be included at each learning stage.

(iii) Self-motivating: it must have the capacity of retaining and sustain the interest of the learner. All necessary information and elements that will arrest the interest of the user must be included.
(iv) Self-Explanatory: it must be simple and tailored towards the understanding of the learners.
(v) Self-Evaluation: In-built mechanism that allows the learners to determine the level of his/her academic achievement through the use of the material should be incorporated.

In the view of Modesto and Tau (2012), material for open distance learner must clearly state what the learner is expected to achieve after going through the material, conversational language should be used (i.e., use “you” rather than the learner”) rhetorical questions should be asked, it must appeal to personal experience of the learners, the content must be sequenced and logically presented, appropriate language and terminologies that are relevant to the subject or topic should be used. These recommendations can also be applied into the production of instructional videos since they are to promote learning.

Mutiara, zuhari and kurnitai (2007) posit that learning materials should be designed to be user-friendly for the learners’ self-study and independent learning activities thereby necessitating the need to identify the needs and goals, analyze instruction, develop material, plan delivery system, pilot the material and revise them.

The qualities expected of a good instructional material as stated above call for a joint effect by all the stakeholders within the educational realm to see that video-based instructional materials are produced based on the required standard.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Technological advancement has led to the advent of video films in Nigeria and commitment of children, youth and adult to them has been ascertained by researchers. This disposition has brought it into the realm of instructional delivery thereby leading to the design and development of video-based instruction by researchers in the field of education. The instructional video designed and developed by researchers are not just produced and disseminated for use but are tested and their worth ascertained before recommending them for use.

However, economic ventures have gone into the production and dissemination of video-based instructional materials and such can be found in market places through the activities of hawkers who act as agents for such producers whose identity cannot be traced coupled with the fact that the video materials are not in any way good for instruction if critically assessed in accordance with the principles guiding the production of instructional materials but the producers still take the advantage of ignorance on the part of parents and even private school owners and sell to them at give-away prices.

This paper therefore suggests that there should be a set standard which every video-database instruction must meet before it can be disseminated for public use. Such video must contain the statement of the behavioural objectives, the content must be in line with the stated objectives, the content must be well sequenced in terms of presentation, and the language use must be accurate and meet the needs and aspirations of the target audience. It further suggests that any instructional video to be disseminated must be self-contained. That is, it must contain detailed information of the topic of discussion. It must be self-explaining which implies that the information contained must be simplified to the level of understanding of the end users. It must be self-motivating, that is, it should be able to arouse and sustain the interest of the learners. There must also be a sort of evaluative techniques that would allow the end users to
know whether he/she has learnt or not. Appropriate graphics that will appeal to the learner and relevant to their cultural background should be incorporated.

Furthermore, educational technologists, curriculum designers and policy formulators within the educational realm should address the issue of the production of instructional video by directly going into the productions. This will lead to the production of quality video-based instructional materials in Nigeria. In order to curb the activities of the economic adventurers, parliamentary act that will prevent indiscriminate production and sale of video-based instructional materials must be promulgated and anybody that acts contrary to the rule should be made to face the consequence. The setting up of quality control department in all ministries of education to monitor the production and dissemination of instructional video should be considered. The relevance of any video-based instructional materials must be certified by the appropriate ministry before such material can find its way to the market. Public enlightenment programme must be embarked on to educate the public on what should be looked into before purchasing any video based instructional material. To enhance quality instructional video in Nigeria, all efforts should be made to stop the activities of those who are not well grounded in the theories and practices of education but are into the production and sale of instructional video because of their economic interest.

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3.2

ICT IN EDUCATION FOR SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT: A CASE STUDY OF THE EVALUATION OF NIGERIAN UNIVERSITY EDUCATION POLICIES

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ABSTRACT
Information communication and technology (ICT) has since become a household name used in offices, organizations, schools and institutions to receive and retrieve information. In today’s world, many of the innovation are as a result of ICT. Although, Africa has seen rapid growth in internet usage, but the education sector is not left out in catching up with the evolving stages of the use of technology for teaching and learning. This chapter seek to proffer answers to a major research question- To what extent has ICT been used for sustainable development with education? The research uses a mixed method for data compilation and analysis using the Measurement, Assessment, Policy, Leadership, Evaluation (MAPLE) interpretivist and realism philosophy. The findings revealed the need of a very high extent of ICT usage for sustainable development due to the crave for innovation. There is thus a call to better use the existing realities to address the use of ICT for sustainable development with education in Nigeria. To this end this chapter provides a number of good practices for the African education institutions, government and other stakeholders.

Keywords: Development, Education, ICT, Policies & Sustainable.

1. INTRODUCTION
Information communication and technology (ICT) are simply communication gadgets or equipment that have modernized, improved and eased exchange of ideas and information of various kinds between and among people within or across distant boundaries (Okah-Edemoh, 2015). Tiamiyu (2003) describes ICT as a generic name used to refer to a number of communication hardware adopted in ensuring instantaneous dissemination of information and social values across the globe while Okah (2009) gave a standard description as the integration of information, technology and communication for learning.

In recent years the world has witnessed an economic shift from a purely mass production paradigm, in which manufactured products and natural resources are the basis of the global economy, to a knowledge-creation paradigm in which knowledge is increasingly the key productive factor of value. This is the ‘information economy that is supported, in a large part by ICT. The educational systems are not left out in this shift, and the significance in the African countries’ education is growing continually in popularity. On a social level, the same ICT that enables the creation, analysis and sharing of information is used by people to communicate, access government and financial services, download music and play games, so has a great effect on teaching and learning in the information society. In this ‘information society’ the way people
connect with each other and interact with information has changed profoundly. However, while these technological and communication changes are reaching the most remote, rural villages in the least developed countries, education remains, by and large, unchanged (UNESCO, 2011b). It is in this context that ICT in education policy should be considered. Many governments have already adopted ICT in education policies over the past two decades. For example, in Africa 51 out of 54 countries have some form of ICT in education policy (Bassi, 2011). Often such policies are ‘focused on the technology – hardware, software, networking content, rather than its relationship to pedagogy, curriculum or assessment. ICT policy that only addresses these issues are not likely to have an impact on schools and most certainly will not transform education’ (UNESCO, 2011b). The Nigeria ICT policy on education has an enabling feature of requesting the universities and some institutions establish computer laboratories with support from external sources (Agyeman, 2007). Adam et al. (2011) suggest that policies should support ‘standardized school-based management information systems and higher education management information systems that are developed using open standards and capable of interfacing with GIS [geographic information systems], social networks, and mobile and low-cost computing. ICT is pushing teachers to get better or explore alternatives (Lambert, 2012).

**Statement of the Problem and Research Questions:**

There is a general belief that ICT has great potentials to facilitate knowledge dissemination, improve learning and assist the development of more efficient education services although a 2017 caption of the New York Times that reads “Laptops are great but not during a lecture or a meeting” (Dynarski, 2017) almost proved this a wrong concept. It suggested that ICT was not making the anticipated impact in the education systems even though the use of laptops for note taking is not the whole package for e-learning and ICT usage in education. The use of laptops for note taking is part of the traditional implementation of the e-learning model. While mobile technology is certainly the next phase in the ICT-for-education model, mobile learning represents something fundamentally different from earlier efforts to infuse technology into education. Traditional implementation models, especially e-learning models, were based on an institutional approach of procure-and-distribute. In the past years, at most developing countries where technology was scarce, expensive and fragile, only governments and large institutions could afford ICT. With the knowledge that ICT can extend educational opportunities to marginalized groups; increase education quality; and even reduce inequalities based on gender, class, race, age and disabilities, questions that come to mind are - what is the present impact in the educational systems in Africa? And how does this influence the policy? The aim of this chapter is to investigate the implementation of ICT policies in universities of African countries, and specifically to Nigeria as a case study. The implementation of ICT policies appears to have a wide application and yet little serious research has been conducted on this area. The concerns motivated the formation of these research questions of interest as the purpose of the study would be to proffer answers to the main research question, which is, to what extent has ICT been used for sustainable development with education? And thus, broken down into the several thought out research questions below:

a) Has ICT been used as a tool for sustainable development with Nigerian universities?

b) To what extent has ICT been used for education with universities in Nigeria?

c) How much of ICT is being use for monitoring and evaluation?

d) In what ways would ICT impact positively on the education systems already in place?
e) How has the Nigeria Ministry of Education used ICT to influence the higher institutions’ leadership?

The above research questions form the basis for hypothesis that emerges for further discussion as this chapter is based more on the realism philosophy and interpretivism philosophy using the MAPLE concept. The significance of this research is that it informs the policy developers and the government, the importance of the involvement of ICT specifics on the education policies. This rest of the chapter examines the power of ICT in transforming education, the capacity of ICT and the potential impact on education, sustainable development, the research method/ology, analysis and conclusion.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

The concept of ICT is discerned more on the technology aspect that supports activities involving information, collaboration and communication. Such activities include gathering, processing, storing and presenting data. According to Laudon and Laudon (2010), information technology (IT) is all the software and hardware that the firm needs to use in order to achieve its business objectives and (2016) described it as being used for synergy situations to tie together the operations of disparate business units so that they can act as a whole. Hence IT has become ICT, but ICT goes beyond IT’s concept giving it a broader definition. ICT are electronic technologies’ gadgets used for information storage and retrieval. Okah (2009) described it as the integration of information, technology and communication for learning. It is defined as communication gadgets or equipments that have modernized, improved or eased exchange of ideas and information of various kinds within or among people with or across distant boundaries (Okah-Edemoh, 2015). Meenakshi (2013) defined it as the diverse set of technological tools and resources used to communicate, and to create, disseminate, store, and manage information.

Policies are the strategic statements that provide a broader context for change, articulate a vision that motivates people to change and coordinates the disparate efforts within the system and across sectors (Kozma 2008, 2010). Weis (1994) argued that policies are a powerful concept for the management of distributed heterogeneous systems, networks and applications, stating it can initiate or change the characteristics of ongoing management activities. A wide range of educational ICT interventions initiated at institutional, provincial, national, regional and global levels focus on the enabling role of ICT in improving the quality of teaching and learning, expanding access to learning opportunities, promoting social equity in education, and building inclusive ‘knowledge societies’ across the West African region. On a global level, initiatives like World Links, launched by the World Bank, and the Global e-Schools and Communities Initiative (GeSCI) established by the United Nations ICT Task Force in 2003, provided support to local ICT in education initiatives (Isacc, 2012).

- The Power of ICT in Transforming Education Policies

In a project that involves the impact of ICT in education, (UNESCO, 2011a) a case was made for deeply holistic ICT in education policies that seek to not only change all the individual components of the education system but to transform the system itself so that education aligns with and supports the emerging economic and social paradigm shift. In this way the core components of education such as pedagogy, professional development and assessment need to be re-evaluated in the light of a technology-enabled and information-based world (Okah, 2009). The power of ICT lies in its historic development, the recent trends and the increased impacts it has made both in the developing and developed countries (Komza, 2010). This transition is
underpinned by the recognition of twenty-first century skills, such as critical thinking, online communication, problem solving, collaboration and digital literacies, which are needed by a changing labor market and supported through the effective use of ICT. Hence there is a need to review and update existing policies (Voloso, 2012).

- **The Capacity of ICT and the Potential Impact on Education**
  The introduction of each new technology has made a significant impact on the educational systems even when ministries of education in Africa face capacity constraints and need support in improving their national management and administration systems (UNESCO, 2011; Isaac, 2012). Classes on ICT literacy provided students with skills in operating computers and basic business applications that prepared them to enter the increasingly automated mass production workforce. Management applications of computers allowed centralized school systems to monitor student attendance, progress, and performance and hold teachers accountable. The capacity of ICT spans across the fact that there need to be sharing of information and opinions to get work done, hence the impact of ICT in education involves big data analytics and operational excellence amongst other terms (Laudon, 2010).

- **Sustainable Development**
  Sustainable development is the process that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generation to meet their own needs (International Institute of Sustainable Development, 2013). According to the United Nation Environmental Program (UNEP), it is improving the quality of human life while living within the carrying capacity of supporting eco system (UNEP et al., e1991). From the perspective of economics, the Interfaith Centre (nd) defined sustainable development as the process of building equitable, productive and participatory structures to increase the economic empowerment of communities and their surrounding regions. Urika (2011) argues that it an ethical standpoint focusing on human wellbeing, implying a nature centered system of values as opposed to human centered. For the purpose of this study we would assent with the International Institute of Sustainable Development’s definition as it shares a common concept with most of the others.

3. **METHODOLOGY**
  The study design is exploratory using MAPLE with a realistic and interpretivistic philosophy. The methodology that is being adopted in this research is innovative (being a single-country focused for participant observation and conducting surveys; it is possible to achieve higher (than the norm) visibility of data/contextual richness that easily transforms data into findings) and to provide further guides on how further studies might be designed (in terms of rigor and relevance). The data collection methods include interviews and documentations.

Saunders et al. (2012) defined a case study as a research strategy that involves the empirical investigation of a particular contemporary phenomenon within its real life context using a multiple of evidence (p. 666). Jankowicz (2000 p.218) describes a case study as a method used when you want to focus on a set of issues within a single organization, or focus on a smaller unit of analysis. According to the elaborated review of world population (World Population Review, 2019), Nigeria remains the biggest and most populous nation with 199,804,069 in number; hence it is being used as a case study in this exploratory research project. Interviews were piloted in February and March 2019 with staffs of three selected universities (University of Ibadan, Nile University and Nassarawa State University) representing the types of universities in Nigeria namely federal, state and private sectors and all interviewees were
derived through the snowballing methods with a total number of thirty-six respondents (4 students and staff each from the selected universities).

The MAPLE model was used when designing the research instrument in a likert scale. The instrument was pilot tested with the committee members of this research project (staff and students of PAU) to determine clarity, reliability and validity before actual interviews were carried out.

4. ANALYSIS:
The findings from the study provide insights for several areas of concern especially for the ICT in policy aspect of the responses to the research instrument.

The Responses for the MAPLE Design Likert Scale Research Instrument

No respondent of Nassarawa State university agreed to a policy that identified the usage of ICT in the university’s policy, which is a call for concern.

Two of the staffs from Nile University, one from University of Lagos and three from Nassarawa stated:

“there is need for a very high extent of ICT usage for sustainable development, hence we need to move with the technological trend”

This clearly indicates that there is an awareness of the necessity of ICT in the policy for implementation by the members of the institutions.

5. CONCLUSION:
ICT is a powerful tool for sustainable development hence it is evaluated for inclusion for guidance and implementation on the policies governing African universities. With investigating the policies of ICT in the case study, the responses show that ICT has not been
used as a tool for sustainable development with Nigerian universities in its maximum. For monitoring and evaluation, the responses were low so, there is a call to utilize ICT more for evaluation and monitoring and this can be demonstrated for inclusion when policies are reviewed. ICT has obviously impacted positively on the education systems already in place from the findings, but there is a further need to investigate and schedule interview sessions with the leadership personnel of the Nigeria Ministry of Education to get more insights, evaluate and recommend how ICT can influence the higher institutions’ leadership?

It is highly recommended based on the findings that ICT usage in all aspects of the MAPLE model is to be adopted in a high percentage. The suggestions for future research is to carry out more investigations on the Ministry of education and other selected African countries using the MAPLE concept. Another area is of investigation suggestion is the poised challenges for the inclusion of ICT on the education policies of African countries.

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3.3

IMPERATIVE OF INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGY (ICT) IN TEACHER EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT
The existence of ICTs does not transform teacher practices in and of itself. However, ICTs can enable teachers to transform their teacher practices, given a set of enabling conditions. Teachers’ pedagogical practices and reasoning influence their uses of ICT, and the nature of teacher ICT use impacts student achievement. ICTs are seen as important tools to enable and support the move from traditional 'teacher-centric' teaching styles to more 'learner-centric' methods. In this work an attempt is made to highlight the role of ICT in teacher education, a brief introduction to ICT, advantages of ICT in teacher education and the role of a teacher with some suggestions.

Keywords: Education, ICT, Imperative, Teaching, & Teacher.

INTRODUCTION
Education is an engine for the development and improvement of any society. It does not just impart knowledge and skills, but it is also responsible for building human capital which breeds, drives and sets technological innovation and economic growth. The review UN Goal 4 in 2018 revealed that more than half of children and adolescents worldwide are not meeting minimum proficiency standards in reading and mathematics. Refocused efforts are needed to improve the quality of education. Disparities in education along the lines of gender, urban-rural location and other dimensions still run deep, and more investments in education infrastructure are required, particularly in LDCs.

- At the global level, the participation rate in early childhood and primary education was 70 per cent in 2016, up from 63 per cent in 2010. The lowest rates are found in sub-Saharan Africa (41 per cent) and Northern Africa and Western Asia (52 per cent).
- An estimated 617 million children and adolescents of primary and lower secondary school age worldwide—58 per cent of that age group—are not achieving minimum proficiency in reading and mathematics.
- In 2016, an estimated 85 per cent of primary school teachers worldwide were trained; the proportion was only 71 per cent for Southern Asia and 61 per cent for sub-Saharan Africa.
- In 2016, only 34 per cent of primary schools in LDCs had electricity and less than 40 per cent were equipped with basic hand washing facilities. (Source: Report of the Secretary-General, The Sustainable Development Goals Report 2018)
From the above standpoint, the integration of ICT into teaching and learning processes can serve as a translating technology tool that governed rules and learning skills. A teacher can use these tools to enhance his capacity and become equipped for the future teaching carrier. Teachers’ readiness’s to use technologies to their benefits have received some attention from academic departments, faculty members and also through institutional framework on ICT. The use of ICT in the classroom teaching-learning is very important for it provides opportunities for teachers and students to operate, store, manipulate, and retrieve information, encourage independent and active learning and self-responsibility for learning such as distance learning, motivate teachers and students. Worldwide research has shown that ICT can lead to an improved teaching method. ICT helps Teacher to communicate properly with their students. Schools use a diverse set of ICT tools to communicate, create, disseminate, store, and manage information. In some contexts, ICT has also become integral to the teaching-learning interaction, through such approaches as replacing chalkboards with interactive digital whiteboards, using students’ own smartphones. Teacher education institutions and programmes have the critical role to provide the necessary leadership in adopting pre-service and in-service teacher education to deal with the current demands of society and economy. They need to model the new pedagogies and tools for learning with the aim of enhancing the teaching learning process. Globalization has created an environment to make a close network between individuals, groups, institutions, and organizations around the world. Sharing the views and ideas and acquisition of knowledge on the newer field has become inevitable. The wheels of “Education providers” have been geared according to the vibrations of the technological advancement and hence the teaching learning atmosphere takes up newer dimensions every now and then. In this chapter an attempt is made to highlight the role of ICT in teacher education. Using ICT in Education most common understanding of the field of ICTs in education refers to the creation of human resource to meet the IT needs of the knowledge economy. ICT in Education policy of a government describes the steps by which computers will be placed in schools, how teachers and students can relate for achievement. A brief introduction to ICT, the policies on ICT and the role of ICT in teacher education are herewith presented. Some suggestive ideas for designing the teacher education course are also presented.

Figure 1. Model of the Teaching Learning Process
INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGY (ICT)

ICT is a generic term referring to technologies, which are being used for collecting, storing, editing and passing on information in various forms. Information and Communication Technologies, (ICT’s) are one of the major contemporary factors shaping the global economy and producing rapid changes in society. ICT have fundamentally changed the way of learning, communicating, and business. ICT can transform the nature of education, where and how learning takes place and the roles of students and teachers in the teaching learning process.ICT have the potential to enhance access, quality and effectiveness in education in general and to enable the development of more and better teachers in particular. A personal computer is the best-known example of the use of the ICT in education, but the term multimedia is also frequently used. Multimedia can be interpreted as a combination of data carriers, for example video, CD-ROM, Floppy disc and internet and software in which the possibility for an interactive approach is followed.

Information and communication technologies (ICTs) are a major factor in shaping the new global economy and producing rapid changes in society. Within the past decade, the new ICT tools have fundamentally changed the way people communicate and do business. They have produced significant transformations in industry, agriculture, medicine, business, engineering and other fields. They also have the potential to transform the nature of education- where and how learning takes place and the roles of students and teachers in the learning process (UNESCO). For education to reap the full benefits of ICTs in learning, it is essential that pre-service teachers have basic ICT skills and competencies. To accomplish these goals, teacher education institutions need to develop strategies and plans to enhance the teaching-learning process within teacher education programmes and to assure that all future teachers are well prepared to use the new tools for learning.

Teaching: A Challenging Profession

Teaching is becoming one of the most challenging professions in our society where knowledge is expanding rapidly and much of it is available to students as well as teachers at the same time. As new concepts of learning have evolved, teachers are expected to facilitate learning and make it meaningful to individual learners rather than just to provide knowledge and skills. Modern developments of innovative technologies have provided new possibilities to teaching professions but at the same time have placed more demands on teachers to learn how to use these new technologies in their teaching. Because of rapid development in ICT, especially the internet, traditional pre-service teacher training institutions worldwide are undergoing a rapid change in the structure and content of their training and delivery methods of their courses.

What is ICT?

Information and communication technology (ICT) as applied to education, evolved from previous terms such as Information Technology (IT) that described new technologies for transmitting, sharing and manipulating information (Anderson & Baskin, 2002). ICTs in their broadest sense include long-used, non-digital technologies such as writing, printing, drawing and painting but in the late 20th century electronic means of communication such as the telephone, television and digital media such as computers and the internet have dominated public perception of communication technology. Nowadays, ICT is commonly defined as those technologies that enable creating, accessing, gathering, managing, presenting and communicating information through electronic and digital means (Toomey, 2001). Anderson and Baskin (2002) maintained that “The addition of ‘communication’ to previous terms such
as information technology (IT) emphasizes the growing importance attributed to the communication aspects of new technologies”. According to a United Nations Report (1999)- “ICTs cover internet service provision, telecommunications equipment and services, information technology equipment and services, media and broadcasting, libraries and documentation centers, commercial information providers, network-based Information services and other related information and communication activities. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO, 2003) uses the term ICTs, to describe: “…the tools and the processes to access, retrieve, store, organize, manipulate, produce, present and exchange information by electronic and other automated means. These include hardware, software and telecommunications in the forms of personal computers, scanners, digital cameras, phones, faxes, modems, CD and DVD players and recorders, digitized video, radio and TV programmes, database programmes and multimedia programmes”.

The Knowledge Revolution and Role of the Teacher
The pace of technological revolution and emergence of a knowledge society changed the traditional role of the teacher. Traditionally, the teacher is the only source of knowledge for the students. The impact of the internet in education in the recent years fosters the vision of an open, global and flexible learning. In the framework of this educational landscape the role of the teacher is that of acting as guide and instrument to assure a comprehensive learning process via the modern age technologies and managing the student’s learning process by the new instructional models set in newly created virtual environments. The teacher will have to develop skills related to the learning contexts that changes in teaching and learning paradigms require. Thus, the teacher’s role is multiplied and shifts from being a single transmitter of knowledge to become facilitator and guide of the learning process, integrator of new ICT media, researcher, designer of suitable learning scenarios, collaborator (with other teachers and students), learner and evaluator.

Changes in Teacher Role
A shift from: A shift to: Knowledge transmitter, primary source of information, content expert and source of all answers Learning facilitator, collaborator, coach, mentor, knowledge navigator and co-learner Teacher controls and directs all aspects of learning Teacher gives students more options and responsibilities for their own learning Changes in Student Role A shift from: A shift to: Passive recipient of information Active participant in the learning process Reproducing knowledge Producing and sharing knowledge, participating as expert

ICTs in Teacher Education, it is observed that most of the teachers are unable to find effective ways to use technology in their classrooms or any other aspect of their teaching and learning life. The possible explanation for this lack of success by teachers is that the use of technology in the classroom has not been encouraging and the teachers are not well trained in using ICTs in teaching as a means for educational sustainability (Ololube, 2016).

In recent times the integration of information and communication technologies (ICTs) in teacher training programs has been the topic of much debate (Larose, 2014) because educational systems around the world are under increased pressure to use the new information and communication technologies to teach students’ knowledge and skills they need in the 21st century. Teacher education institutions are faced with the challenges of preparing a new generation of teachers to effectively use the new learning tools in their teaching practices (UNESCO, 2012). As a result, teacher education programs have not been unaffected
by the penetrating of information and communication technology (ICT). Certainly, ICT has impacted on the quality and quantity of teaching, learning and research in traditional and distance education institutions around the world. In concrete terms, ICT literacy has enhanced teaching and learning through its dynamic, interactive and engaging content and has provided real opportunities for individualized instruction (Newhouse, 2012a). ICT has the potential to accelerate, enrich and deepen skills, motivate and engage students in learning, helps to relate school experiences to work practices, help to create economic viability for tomorrow’s, contributes to radical changes in school, strengthens teaching and provides opportunities for connection between the institutions and the world. ICT can make education more efficient and productive, thereby engendering a variety of tools to enhance and facilitate teachers’ professional activities (Yusuf, 2015). Newhouse (2012b) has identified significantly the impacts of the use of ICT on students, learning environments, teachers and pedagogy, school provision of ICT capacity, school and system organization and policy and practice. Newhouse presented these in four dimensions:

- **Dimension 1: Students Attributes [ICT capability, Engagement, Achievement of Outcomes]**
- **Dimension 2: Teacher Professional ICT Attributes [ICT Capabilities, Vision and Contribution, Integration and Use, Feelings]**
- **Dimension 3: Learning Environments Attributes [Learner-Centered, Knowledge-Centered, Assessment-Centered, Cooperation and Collaboration, Reflective Thinking]**
- **Dimension 4: School Environment [Leadership and Planning, Curriculum Organization, Curriculum Support, Community Connections, Accountability]**

**USE OF ICT IN TEACHER EDUCATION**

Modern technologies such as computer and telecommunications technologies have been the most remarkable and transformative of the technologies emerging over the past 30 years. Many have argued that the emergence and convergence of these technologies have been termed Information and Communication Technology (ICT), a term sometime synonymous used with Information Technology (IT). IT is defined as the combination of computer technology with telecommunications technology.

ICT offers new opportunities and flexibilities but also challenges the confidence of uses. The integration of ICTs into educational classroom teaching has attained a new crescendo nowadays. This is marked by exclusive inclusion of ICTs into educational activities run by schools across the world. Ghana, a sub-Saharan nation, is one of such country which has seen the importance and implications of ICTs in education. In developed world like western economy, the Internet and computers are available in the classrooms. Thus, the Ghanaian government came up a policy which among them sought to make ICT a national curriculum at all level. However, in other African countries, although they are policies on ICT, but teachers consult each other more frequently, the teacher more eventually decides on educational practice in his classroom. He/she is responsible and has the opportunity, as long as the results are satisfactory to teach in the way he pleases. Also, in practice due to some constraints, a component of ICT in some form or the other, and to different extents, is now an integral part of the teacher education curriculum for all students, either at the diploma level or at the degree level. Even Master’s degree programme in education leading to M.Ed. degree have also started introducing a component of ICT in the curriculum.
Impact of ICT on Teacher Education in the era of globalization.

Teacher usage of ICTs

**Figure 2. ICT Based Teaching**

**Teachers most commonly use ICTs for administrative tasks:** Teachers most often use ICTs for 'routine tasks' (record keeping, lesson plan development, information presentation, basic information searches on the Internet).

**More knowledgeable teachers rely less on "computer-assisted instruction":** Teachers more knowledgeable in ICTs use utilize computer-assisted instruction less than other teachers who use ICTs but utilize ICTs more overall.

**How teachers use ICTs is dependent on their general teaching styles.** Types of usage of ICTs correlate with teacher pedagogical philosophies. Teachers who use ICTs the most -- and the most effectively -- are less likely to use traditional 'transmission-method' pedagogies. Teachers who use more types of software tend to practice more "constructivist" pedagogies.

**Teaching with ICTs takes more time:** Introducing and using ICTs to support teaching and learning is time-consuming for teachers, both as they attempt to shift pedagogical practices and strategies and when such strategies are used regularly. Simply put: Teaching with ICTs takes more time (estimates vary on how much extra time is required to cover the same material; 10% is a common estimate).

**ICT help Teacher provide learning resources in the classroom:** ICT allow for learning resources inclusive in all teaching. The word inclusive as used in the question is asking whether learning resources must be included in all teaching and learning exercises. If we opined that learning resources are materials that facilitate teaching; then the question of applying or not applying learning resources in all learning becomes irrelevant because, any meaningful teaching must include learning resources to address the major teaching outcomes of cognitive, skills and attitude. Therefore, learning resources thus:

- to provide a source of learning experiences for students;
- build meaningful teaching activities,
- it can function as a show-window attracting students’ attention
- it can help to develop expertise among teachers,
- it can be produced to reflect on students’ and institutional needs

In addition, it is also important to note that without relevant and appropriate learning resources, no meaningful teaching can take place because application of learning resources in the class will:

- enable the teacher to drive his lesson home such that the student will have first-hand information and experienced.
learning resources should be inclusive in the sense that some of the local examples can be done using learning resources.

- learning resources have the advantage of bringing reality into the classroom.
- learning resources should be all inclusive because the classroom is made of learners with different needs. There are students who are fast learners, slow learners and those with special education needs. Therefore, using appropriate ICTs to bring-in appropriate learning resources would help to attend to the individual needs of different categories of learners in the same classroom.

**ICTs motivate (some) teachers, at least at the start:** At least initially, exposure to ICTs can be an important motivation tool to promote and enable teacher professional development. Once ICT is utilized in the teaching process, build confidence in the teacher the way he/she teaches a particular topic. ICT bring concepts into reality:
ICT helps in Teacher Professional Development

On-going teacher training and support is critical to the successful utilization of ICTs in education. Teacher training and professional development is seen as the key driver for the successful usage of ICTs in education. **Teacher professional development is a process, not an event.** Traditional one-time teacher training workshops have not been seen as effective in helping teachers to feel comfortable using ICTs, let alone in integrating it successfully into their teaching. Discrete, 'one-off' training events are seen as less effective than on-going professional development activities. Introducing ICTs expands the needs for on-going professional development of teachers.

**Figure 4b. Professional Development Training**

Effective ICT use in education increases teachers’ training and professional development needs. However, ICTs can be important tools to help meet such increased needs, by helping to provide access to more and better educational content, aid in routine administrative tasks, provide models and simulations of effective teaching practices, and enable learner support networks, both in face to face and distance learning environments, and in real time or asynchronously.

**Successful teacher professional development models can be divided into three phases**

Successful on-going professional development models can be divided into three phases: pre-
service, focusing on initial preparation on pedagogy, subject mastery, management skills and use of various teaching tools (including ICTs); in-service, including structured face-to-face and distance learning opportunities building upon pre-service training and directly relevant to teacher needs; and on-going formal and informal pedagogical and technical support, enabled by ICTs, for teachers, targeting daily needs and challenges.

Effective teacher professional development should model effective teaching practices
Effective teacher professional development should approximate the classroom environment as much as possible. "Hands-on" instruction on ICT use is necessary where ICT is deemed to be a vital component of the teaching and learning process. In addition, professional development activities should model effective practices and behaviors and encourage and support collaboration between teachers. On-going professional development at the school level, using available ICT facilities, is seen as a key driver for success, especially when focused on the resources and skills directly relevant to teachers’ everyday needs and practices.

ADVANTAGES OF ICT IN TEACHING

Faster learning:
With the use of ICT students still learn up to twice as much in the half time that they would in classroom teaching. This is because the course progress as fast as the students can without worry for other student or an instruction.

Consistent instruction:
Every instructor has his or her own style, which may not the best for students. Some days the instructor is on top form and delivers a great class. Other day he or she may be bored, tired or simply unmotivated. With ICT the course is software driven and each student receives the same high quality content.

Higher level of retention:
ICT can increase the retention over instructor led-training up to 40% according to ASTD.

Greater level of assessment:
With an ICT learning solution student activity can be tracked down to the finest level. Every student response to quizzes, simulations and exams can be tracked and fed into customizable reports.

Up to date knowledge:
Globally, educational systems are under great pressure to adopt innovative methodologies and to integrate Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) in the teaching and learning process, to prepare students with the knowledge and skills they need in the 21st century. Today a verity of ICTs can facilitate not only delivery of instruction but also learning process itself.

Figure 5. Some common IT gadgets
Critical thinking and systems thinking:
Exercising sound reasoning in understanding and making complex choices, understanding the interconnections among systems Problem identification, formulation and solution: Ability to frame, analyze and solve problems.

Social Responsibility:
Acting responsibly with the interests of the larger community in mind, demonstrating ethical behavior in personal, work place and community contexts. There is a need for students to develop learning skills that enable them to think critically, analyze information, communicate, collaborate, and problem-solve, and the realize the essential role that technology plays in realizing these learning skills in today’s knowledge-based society. Representative of the ICT literacy skills are the following six arenas critical to student’s success in the workplace.

No need for classroom:
Through ICT learning there is no actual classroom, no teacher or no textbooks, but it gives the impression of studying in a classroom.

Incredible saving of time and money:
ICT means no travel, no schedule conflicts, no equipment issues, consistent instruction, higher retention and less money than instructor led training.

Teacher training and continued, on-going relevant professional developments are essential if benefits from investments in ICTs are to be maximized. Example, Training in assessment methods is important. Professional development should include methods for evaluating and modifying pedagogical practices and expose teachers to a variety of assessment methods. Effective professional development requires substantial planning. A needs assessment should precede the creation of and participation in teacher professional development activities, regular monitoring and evaluation should occur of these activities, and feedback loops should be established, if professional development is to be effective and targeted to the needs of teachers. On-going and regular support is essential to support teacher professional development and can be facilitated through the use of ICTs (in the form of websites, discussion groups, e-mail communities, radio or television broadcasts).

ROLE OF THE TEACHER
Teachers remain central to the learning process. A shift in the role of a teacher utilizing ICTs to that of a facilitator does not obviate the need for teachers to serve as leaders in the classroom;
traditional teacher leadership skills and practices are still important (especially those related to lesson planning, preparation, and follow-up).

**Figure 6a. Role of a Teacher**

Lesson planning is crucial when using ICTs. Teacher lesson planning is vital when using ICTs; where little planning has occurred; research shows that student work is often unfocused and can result in lower attainment.

**Introducing technology alone will not change the teaching and learning process.** The existence of ICTs does not transform teacher practices in and of itself. However, ICTs can enable teachers to transform their teacher practices, given a set of enabling conditions. Teachers’ pedagogical practices and reasoning influence their uses of ICT, and the nature of teacher ICT use impacts student achievement.

**Figure 6b. Role of a Teacher**

*ICTs seen as tools to help teachers create more 'learner-centric' learning environments*

In OECD countries, research consensus holds that the most effective uses of ICT are those in which the teacher, aided by ICTs, can challenge pupils’ understanding and thinking, either
through whole-class discussions and individual/small group work using ICTs. ICTs are seen as important tools to enable and support the move from traditional 'teacher-centric' teaching styles to more 'learner-centric' methods.

**ICTs can be used to support change and to support/extend existing teaching practices**

Pedagogical practices of teachers using ICT can range from only small enhancements of teaching practices using what are essentially traditional methods, to more fundamental changes in their approach to teaching. ICTs can be used to reinforce existing pedagogical practices as well as to change the way teachers and students interact.

**Using ICTs as tools for information presentation is of mixed effectiveness**

The use of ICTs as presentation tools (through overhead and LCD projectors, television, electronic whiteboards, guided "web-tours", where students simultaneously view the same resources on computer screens) is seen to be of mixed effectiveness. While it may promote class understanding of and discussion about difficult concepts (especially through the display of simulations), such uses of ICTs can re-enforce traditional pedagogical practices and divert focus from the content of what is being discussed or displayed to the tool being utilized.

**TEACHER TECHNICAL ABILITIES AND KNOWLEDGE OF ICTS**

**Preparing teachers to benefit from ICT use is about more than just technical skills**

Teacher technical mastery of ICT skills is a not a sufficient precondition for successful integration of ICTs in teaching. 'One-off training' is not sufficient. Teachers require extensive, on-going exposure to ICTs to be able to evaluate and select the most appropriate resources. However, the development of appropriate pedagogical practices is seen as more important that technical mastery of ICTs.

**Few teachers have broad 'expertise' in using ICTs in their teaching.**

Even in the most advanced school in OECD countries, very few teachers typically have a comprehensive knowledge of the wide range of ICT tools and resources. **In OECD countries, the use of ICTs to promote 'computer literacy' is seen as less important than in using ICTs as teaching and learning tools.** In OECD experience, the use of technology in everyday teaching and learning activities appears to be more important than specific instruction in "computer classes". While the development of technology skills is seen to have a role in the teaching and learning process, it is more important as an enabler of other teaching and learning practices, and not too important in and of itself. Schools that report the highest levels of student ICT-related skills and experience are often not those with heavy computer course requirements, but rather ones that made use of ICTs on a routine basis throughout the teacher professional development and the teaching and learning process.

**Students are more sophisticated in their use of technology than teachers**

In OECD countries, there appears to be a great disconnect between student knowledge and usage of ICTs the knowledge and abilities of teachers to use ICTs. This suggests that teacher inexperience and skill deficiencies may often be an important factor inhibiting the effectiveness of ICT use in education by students. The teacher needs to direct and control.
As conclusion, we can state that ICT helps in the professional development of teaching and individuals involved in the programmes of teacher education. It can be infused in the learning process so as to acquire the knowledge and skill efficiently. ICT provides access to resources so that teachers can apply new knowledge and skills they have learnt. Communication technology will be able to develop the capacity of teacher and teacher educator and at the same time, strengthen the capacity of teacher educator, which is the fundamental requirement of effective transactional strategy.

**RECOMMENDATIONS**

As suggested by other professional in advocating for ICT utilization we strongly advocate that Africa should and other less developed countries of the world to embrace the concept and utilization of ICT.

1. **Teachers remain central to the learning process in the digital age**
   Despite fears often expressed by some groups (e.g. teachers unions) about technology being used to replace teachers, and the interest in some quarters to use technology to this end, there is no evidence that such a phenomenon is occurring. To the contrary: The role of the teacher in countries where technology is in widespread use is typically seen as more important, not less, than it was previously.

2. **The promise and potential of ICT use by teachers is recognized but largely unmet**
   The potential for ICT use to support and enhance the work of teachers – to engage with learners in new ways (including those with special educational needs), to broaden access to high quality learning materials, to lessen various administrative burdens, and to offer more effective tools to aid in formative and summative assessment – is widely acknowledged. In reality, however, technology is, for the most part, having little substantive impact on observable teaching practices in the classroom.

3. **Innovative pedagogical practices are increasingly linked to the effective use of ICTs**
   Many countries have identified the need to help learners develop sets of "21st century skills" if they are to effectively compete and prosper in increasingly globalized economies and become healthy, happy and productive citizens in their increasingly interconnected societies and communities. In order to meet new demands placed on them, education systems are being challenged to innovate, both at the system level, and
at the level of instruction. In classrooms, innovative pedagogical practices are often closely linked to, and enabled by, the use of ICTs.

4. Incentives and support mechanisms need to be put in place to motivate and support teachers in their use of new technologies
Providing technology infrastructure in schools and placing this infrastructure in the hands and on the desks of teachers, is only one step in a process. For teachers to actual use this equipment in support of their teaching objectives and practices, a variety of intrinsic and extrinsic incentives need to be employed, at various levels.

5. Teacher training is a critical component if investments in ICTs are to be maximized
Teacher training and continued on-going, relevant professional development for teachers are essential if benefits from investments in ICTs are to be maximized. In the absence of sustained and various opportunities for teachers further enhance and improve their skills and knowledgebase, the use of technology can still (potentially) make good teachers better, but (often) can actually make poor teachers worse.

REFERENCES


INTRODUCTION
The 21st century is said to be pigeonholed by the drive for technological advancement which has transformed the world to a large global connected society with an increasingly demand for Information and Communication Technology (ICT). It is of no doubt that the quest for ICT has filled in the gap between past discoveries and more advancement in application in modern terms. A radical shift in pedagogy is necessary for ICT to enhance teaching and learning (Ezekoka, Isiozor and Anum 2016). According to UNESCO (2004), there are two types of pedagogy, namely instruction and construction. The former approach is the traditional method, while the latter refers to a way of teaching that demands a redefinition of the traditional teacher-student relationship. The use of ICT can contribute to a movement towards constructive teaching approaches, and constructive teaching processes can lead to greater use of ICT in education. As a result, it is important that teachers and teacher trainees are exposed to current trends in the use of ICT for teaching and learning.

Concept of ICT
The use of computers and technology today has become fundamental to the operation of organizations and society (Kroeker, 2010; Yonck, 2010). Today, information is carried at phenomenal speeds within and across various communication networks known as information and communication technology (ICT) networks. These allow for the transfer of massive amounts of information in a matter of seconds, enabling humankind to advance in a multitude of ways. These include the transfer of rapid real-time communication across great distances; enhancing safety through the tracking of air, marine, and ground traffic; enabling rapid calculations and mathematical estimations to be made to enhance predictive capabilities and to advance science; enhancing the usability and manipulative abilities of models to better forecast and envision results in all the sciences; and, enabling and confirming medical diagnosis from considerable distances, among others. The advancements enabled by the transfer of information via computers and technology are readily observed in the ease with which business is conducted across regional and international borders.

The term Information Technology (IT) was first used in the early 1980s to indicate the convergence of computer technology and communication technology. In the 1990s, the term Information and Communication Technology (ICT) was more widely used to replace IT, which is to give a greater emphasis on communication aspect. In Australasia, the term IT&T (Information Technology and Telecommunication) is also used instead of ICT. Singapore uses the term ‘Infocomm’ for ICT. For some people, ICT represents Information and Content...
Technology, to indicate the convergence of Information Technology and Content Technology. Information Technology is an organization's collection of information resources, their users, and the management that oversees them; includes the IT infrastructure and all other information systems in the organization.

Information-communication technology (ICT) is a common expression for a variety of different computer, information and communication devices (hardware), applications (software), networks (internet), and services. It is a general concept which encompasses all communication devices of the modern society and their usage. Its primary purpose is mediating information and enabling the communication process. When it comes to ICT, the internet and mobile technology, and their applications are most often considered (Pinterič and Grivec, 2007), but we have to stress that ICT does not include only computers and mobile phones, it is also present in many other types of technology, which can also be encountered by pre-school children. The broad ICT definition also includes a variety of everyday technologies, like: electronic toys, interactive whiteboards, playing consoles, various players and digital cameras. Put shortly, all types of technology that a child may encounter in its home environment and also uses them.

There are a number of definitions of ICT. The most comprehensive one is given by British Computer Society as follows: The scientific, technological and engineering disciplines and the management techniques used in information handling, processing and disseminating; their applications; computers, networking and communication and their integration with men and machines; and associated social, economic and cultural matter. The definition of ICT as given above is different from the definition given by some American authors. For example, Turban et al (2005) defines ICT as (information and communications technology - or technologies) is an umbrella term that includes any communication device or application, encompassing: radio, television, cellular phones, computer and network hardware and software, satellite systems and so on, as well as the various services and applications associated with them, such as videoconferencing and distance learning. ICTs are often spoken of in a particular context, such as ICTs in education, health care, or libraries. ICT is a general term that describes any technology that helps to produce, manipulate, store, communicate, and or disseminate educational information. It is a means of assessing or receiving, storing, transferring, processing and sending ideas, perception or educational information through computers and other telecommunication equipment (Ezekoka, 2009). Ezekoka, Isiozor and Anum (2016) opined that ICT can be regarded as the technologies used for accessing, processing, gathering, manipulating, and presenting or communicating information and these could include software, hardware, and even connectivity.

ICTs refers to the varieties of software and hardware technologies that are functional in the process of collecting, collating, storing, editing, retrieving, and transfer of information in diverse forms. Information and communications technology (ICT) is an extended term for information technology (IT) which stresses the role of unified communications and the integration of telecommunications (telephone lines and wireless signals), computers as well as necessary enterprise software, middleware, storage, and audio-visual systems, which enable users to access, store, transmit, and manipulate information. Information and Communication Technology can contribute to universal access to education, equity in education, the delivery of quality learning and teaching, teachers’ professional development and more efficient education management, governance and administration. UNESCO takes a holistic and comprehensive approach to promoting ICT in education. Access, inclusion and quality are among the main challenges they can address. The Federal Ministry of Education, Nigeria
(2010) defines ICT as encompassing all equipment and tools (inclusive of traditional technologies of radio, video, and television to the newer technologies of computers, hardware, firmware, etc.), as well as the methods, practices, processes, procedures, concepts, and principles that come into play in the conduct of the information and communication activities. The importance of technology in people’s lives is unimaginable and it is envisaged that technological literacy will soon become a functional requirement for people’s work, social, and even personal lives. For both social and economic reasons students will need computer and communication technology skills to live successfully in a knowledge-based society. The development of information and communication technologies (ICTs) has revolutionized virtually all aspect of human endeavour (Isiozor, and Nzegbulem, 2019). ICT as a concept have three major components Viz, computer systems, telecommunication system and multimedia system.

**Computer System**
This is the facilities that are used to process information (processing means creating, storage, selection, transformation and distribution). These include the computer hardware and all software programs that are used for collecting, storing and processing information. Other software items that are specifically used for storing information among others include;

1. Video tapes
2. Video compact Disk (VCD)
3. Digital Versatile Disk (DVD)
4. Compact Disk Read Only Memory (CD-ROM)

**Telecommunication System**
These are used for information dissemination and delivery. This include Radio, Telephone, Television (Cable television, high definition television) satellite communication, Electronic mail (Email) internet facilities, video text and Tele-text, audio conferencing, and video conferencing.

**Multimedia System**
The multimedia facilities are used for information and communication presentation such as the synchronized sound like multi image presentation, multimedia kit, interactive image and computer multimedia. Others include the use of power-point presentation which helps the teacher to captivate the evidence.

**ICT Policy Development in Nigeria**
Prior to 1999, development in the ICT sector in Nigeria was far below expectation for a country of its size and resources. For example, total fixed telephone lines were less than 400,000 while regular internet users were less than 200,000. From a policy and regulatory standpoint, the Federal Government of Nigeria adopted the National Telecommunications Policy (NTP) in 2000 to guide the development of the telecommunications industry in Nigeria. This was followed by the enactment of the Nigerian Communications Act (NCA) 2003 to give legal effect to the NTP. Previously, the National Mass Communications Policy recommended the creation of a regulatory body to regulate Broadcasting and this led to the promulgation of Decree 38 of 1992 that established the National Broadcasting Commission (NBC). In a similar vein, the National Information Technology Policy was approved in 2001 to guide the IT industry in Nigeria and was followed by the enactment of the National Information Technology Development Agency Act 2007 which became the legal platform for the creation of the National Information Technology Development Agency NITDA. (Osei 2007)
Outlined below are some of the objectives of Nigeria’s ICT policy:

1. To ensure that ICT resources are readily available to promote efficient national development
2. To guarantee that the country benefits maximally, and contributes meaningfully, by providing the global solutions to the challenges of the Information Age
3. To empower Nigerians to participate in software and ICT development
4. To encourage local production and manufacture of ICT components in a competitive manner
5. To establish and develop ICT infrastructure and maximize its use nationwide
6. To empower the youth with ICT skills and prepare them for global competitiveness
7. To integrate ICT into the mainstream of education and training
8. To create ICT awareness and ensure universal access in promoting ICT diffusion in all sectors of national life
9. To create an enabling environment and facilitate private sector (national and multinational) investment in the ICT sector
10. To encourage government and private sector joint venture collaboration
11. To develop human capital with emphasis on creating and supporting a knowledge-based society
12. To build a mass pool of ICT literate manpower using the NYSC, NDE, and other platforms as a train-the-trainer scheme for capacity-building

The Need for ICT in Education

Application and use will prove beneficial in improving the educational system and gives student a better education. A technologically-advanced workforce will lead to ICT growth in the educational system of a country, with the potential to improve military technology and telecommunications, media communications, and skilled ICT professionals who will be well-equipped to solve IT problems in Nigeria and other parts of the world. New instructional techniques that use ICTs provide a different modality of instruments. Damkor, Irinyang and Haruna, (2015) noted, for the student, ICT use allows for increased individualization of learning. In schools where new technologies are used, students have access to tools that adjust to their attention span and provide valuable and immediate feedback for literacy enhancement which is currently not fully implemented in the school system. The ability to use computers effectively has become an essential part of everyone's education. Skills such as bookkeeping, clerical and administrative work, stocktaking, and so forth, now constitute a set of computerized practices that form the core IT skills package: spreadsheets, word processors, and database (Reffell and Whitworth, 2010). The demand for computer/ICT literacy is increasing in Nigeria, because employees realize that computers and other ICT facilities can enhance efficiency. On the other hand, employees have also realized that computers can be a threat to their jobs, and the only way to enhance job security is to become computer literate. With the high demand for computer literacy, the teaching and learning of these skills is a concern among professionals. This is also true of other ICT components. Improved education is essential to the creation of effective human capital in any country. The need for ICT in education cannot be overemphasized. In this technology-driven age, everyone requires ICT competence to survive. Organizations are finding it very necessary to train and re-train their employees to establish or increase their knowledge of computers and other ICT facilities. This calls for early acquisition of ICT skills by students.

The social imperative for promoting ICT in schools, therefore, is clear: if students are to be prepared to lead fulfilled and productive lives in a knowledge-based society they should be
ICT-compliant on leaving the school system. The pedagogical rationale for promoting ICT in schools is concerned with the use of ICT in teaching and learning. It is intimately related, therefore, to the economic and social rationales, but ICT also has additional application in the teaching and learning process. It provides teachers with a range of new tools to facilitate traditional pedagogies; it also and perhaps more importantly, presents the teacher with the potential to develop new teaching methods. For the student growing up in a culture of all-pervasive technology, ICT provides new, and more exciting and relevant, learning opportunities.

Integration of ICT in Education

The impact of ICT on the knowledge-based society has brought about major changes. In terms of form and content, it has had a massive and multiplying effect to such an extent that the purpose of knowledge has come to permeate the wider society, with education being among the broadest implications and developments brought. Parra (2012) claims that the school is one of the major avenue where technology has had the greatest impact, which in turn has had an effect on the role of the teacher and become a part of the school everyday life. The integration of ICT into education has become a process whose implications go far beyond theotechnological tools nurturing the educational environment. The ideas of teaching construction and the way one can build and consolidate meaningful learning based on technology are now being discussed, or the technological use of education, in strictly pedagogical terms (Díaz-Barriga, 2013).

The transformation of ICT has allowed these to become educational tools that could further improve the educational quality of the student and revolutionize the way information is obtained, managed and interpreted (Aguilar, 2012). As part of the roles played by each educational agent, students currently use technological tools to facilitate learning. This development began earlier on with the emergence of calculators, TV sets, and voice recorders, among other. However, such has been the progress that technological resources have become educational resources, where efforts to improve learning entail the task of involving technology with education. And it is with teaching that the teaching-learning process is being completed.

According to Granados (2015), the use of ICT means breaking with traditional media, boards, pens, etc., and it has given way to a teaching role based on the need for training in and updating one’s knowledge of teaching methods based on current requirements. Cabero (2005) states that the emerging technologies were created outside an educational context and were later integrated into it. Suárez and Custodio (2014) state that education, as a relevant aspect in human life, has combined with ICT to create a new learning environment where students take responsibility for their own learning, where time and flexibility play a major role, as education becomes increasingly digital, as digitalization has become a revolution, and as new technologies converge into emerging educational and pedagogical paradigms. (Suárez & Custodio, 2014)

Benefits of Using ICT in Education

The merits of ICT in education have been extolled in the literature. The use of ICT has been found to:

Assist students in accessing digital information efficiently and effectively

As Brush, Glazewski and Hew (2008) have stated, ICT is used as a tool for students to discover learning topics, solve problems, and provide solutions to the problems in the learning process. ICT makes knowledge acquisition more accessible, and concepts in learning areas are understood while engaging students in the application of ICT.
Support student-centered and self-directed learning
Students are now more frequently engaged in the meaningful use of computers (Castro Sánchez and Alemán 2011). They build new knowledge through accessing, selecting, organizing, and interpreting information and data. Based on learning through ICT, students are more capable of using information and data from various sources, and critically assessing the quality of the learning materials.

Produce a creative learning environment
ICT develops students’ new understanding in their areas of learning (Chai, Koh and Tsai 2010). ICT provides more creative solutions to different types of learning inquiries. For example, in a reading class, e-books are commonly used in reading aloud activities. Learners can access all types of texts from beginning to advanced levels with ease through computers, laptops, personal digital assistants (PDAs), or iPads. More specifically, these e-books may come with some reading applications, which offer a reading-aloud interface, relevant vocabulary-building activities, games related to reading skills and vocabulary acquisition, and more. Therefore, ICT involves purpose designed applications that provide innovative ways to meet a variety of learning needs.

Promote collaborative learning in a distance-learning environment
Koc (2005) mentioned that using ICT enables students to communicate, share, and work collaboratively anywhere, any time. For instance, a teleconferencing classroom could invite students around the world to gather together simultaneously for a topic discussion. They may have the opportunity to analyze problems and explore ideas as well as to develop concepts. They may further evaluate ICT learning solutions. Students not only acquire knowledge together, but also share diverse learning experiences from one another in order to express themselves and reflect on their learning.

Offer more opportunities to develop critical (higher-order) thinking skills
Based on a constructive learning approach, ICT helps students focus on higher-level concepts rather than less meaningful tasks (Levin and Wadmany 2006). McMahon’s study (2009) showed that there were statistically significant correlations between studying with ICT and the acquisition of critical thinking skills. A longer exposure in the ICT environment can foster students’ higher critical thinking skills. Thus, schools are strongly advised to integrate technology across all of the learning areas and among all learning levels. Where this is done, students are able to apply technology to the attainment of higher levels of cognition within specific learning contexts.

Improve teaching and learning quality
As Lowther et al. (2008) have stated that there are three important characteristics are needed to develop good quality teaching and learning with ICT: autonomy, capability, and creativity. Autonomy means that students take control of their learning through their use of ICT. In this way, they become more capable of working by themselves and with others. Teachers can also authorize students to complete certain tasks with peers or in groups. Through collaborative learning with ICT, the students have more opportunity to build the new knowledge onto their background knowledge and become more confident to take risks and learn from their mistakes. Further, Serhan (2009) concluded that ICT fosters autonomy by allowing educators to create their own material, thus providing more control over course content than is possible in a traditional classroom setting. With regard to capability, once students are more confident in learning processes, they can develop the capability to apply and transfer knowledge while using new technology with efficiency and effectiveness. For example, in an ESL listening and
speaking class, students may be asked to practice their pronunciation using an online audio dictionary. They are required not only to listen to the native pronunciation from the dictionary, but also to learn the definitions and examples of a new vocabulary item. They then have to make a recording of their own pronunciation and provide examples of how this new word is used in context. Before completing this task, they have to know which browser to use in order to search a suitable online audio dictionary. They will have to browse several online dictionaries and select the one that best meets their learning needs. In addition, finding good software to record their voice is another prerequisite for these learners. Therefore, the whole learning process enriches students’ learning skills and broadens their knowledge beyond what they already know. By using ICT, students’ creativity can be optimized. They may discover new multimedia tools and create materials in the styles readily available to them through games (Gee 2007, 2011), CDs, and television. With a combination of students’ autonomy, capability, and creativity, the use of ICT can improve both teaching and learning quality.

**Support teaching by facilitating access to course content**

Watts-Taffe et al. (2003) found that teachers can act as catalysts for the integration of technology through ICT. If the encouragement, equipment, and necessary technological support are available from institutes for the teachers, developing an ICT class will be easier for them. The main responsibilities of these teachers will be changing their course format, creating and explaining the new assignments, and arranging for the computer lab through their technology learning specialists or assistants. In sum, as Reid (2002) has indicated, ICT offers students more time to explore beyond the mechanics of course content allowing them to better understand concepts. The use of ICT also changes the teaching and learning relationship. Based on the findings of Reid’s study, teachers reported that the relationship between teacher and learner is sometimes reversed with regards to information technology. This relationship boosts students’ confidence when they are able to help teachers with technical issues in the classroom. Therefore, ICT changes the traditional teacher centered approach, and requires teachers to be more creative in customizing and adapting their own material.

While ICT is changing teaching and learning for the better in several ways, the existing literature has also identified some barriers. In the following sections, these barriers are classified into four categories based on the perspectives of students, teachers, administrators, and ICT infrastructure. A variety of strategies for addressing these barriers is also discussed.

**Educational Challenges Facing ICT**

The far-reaching changes brought to education by technology were discussed above. It is pertinent to note that the main challenge now is how to address this technological approach to the teaching and learning process. Herrera (2015) states that technology and its contributions are evolving and changing the fields of knowledge very quickly. It is here that it can be appreciated that education, as a discipline, is taking on new challenges that deserve a more detailed study. Teachers, faced with the transformative vision of a society that needs to integrate ICT into the classroom, have seen their role change into that of agents with the ability to generate the necessary skills for a society ‘yearning’ for technological knowledge and the frequent use thereof in various educational matters.

Successfully integrating ICT into education depends to a large extent on the teacher’s ability to structure the learning environment (Unesco, 2008). There is much talk about giving the “leap” forward and “breaking up” traditional formulas with cooperation and teamwork-based learning. However, the use and involvement of ICTs in education has not yet been understood as a tool through which meaningful learning can be generated. Frequent mistakes at school
minimize ICT as a tool, allowing access to and transmission of information, a misconception that continues to plague traditional education. (Mestres, 2008) Teachers must structure their role by organizing the way students acquire cognitive competences and manage to apply them in different situations (Unesco, 2008). Classroom teaching will require new spaces so as to add to current knowledge through the use of technological media by both students and teachers.

The emergence of ICTs easily fits into this process. Students participate as new educational agents, who have become a major element for communication and social interaction as a result of being born in a high-tech society (Cabero, 2010). The diversity of scenarios, contexts and trends in education currently impose new roles on the training process, which brings challenges for future professionals and the institutions and agents responsible for their education. (Prieto, et al. 2011).

**The Prospect of ICT in Education**

A Look at the Future of ICT in Education, the use of ICT in education has increasingly become an essential element of the educational environment. Accompanied by technological tools, use of ICT in education is to become an increasingly ever-present reality in society, hence expansion to embrace students, teachers and educational institutions will result in optimization of the teaching-learning process. Undoubtedly, an analysis of different views in the education sector shows the importance and growing perspective of technology, which would advance social and collaborative learning, with a dimension capable of fostering the liaison between current societies and an education that is both transformative and adaptable. Díaz-Barriga (2013) states that at present education may not be conceived of separately from ICT or deny the support lent by ICT to education. From this perspective it is hard to evoke any educational innovation that is not tied to technological developments. 2002 publication of Visions2020, Transforming Education and Training Through Advanced Technologies shows the different contexts in which educational institutions will forge the use of ICT in education. A collection of articles, the volume explores the feasibility of this technology, where assessment of aspects such as physical space, materials, teaching models, monitoring, evaluation and teacher training are some of the issues to be addressed by education if the latter is to adopt a more objective approach towards the importance of ICT in education. Integration of ICT in education must be accompanied by a series of guidelines defining a framework for decision making regarding the actions to be taken during the process. It identifies three dimensions

1. Information related to access to, shaping and transformation of new knowledge and digital environment information;
2. Communication, connected with collaboration, teamwork and technological adaptability;
3. Ethics and Social impact linked to the competencies needed to face the ethical challenges of globalization and the rise of ICTs.

Coll (2004) mentions that based on the different material and personal resources available to educational institutions, It is not in ICT, but in such activities as carried out by teachers and students thanks to the possibilities of communication and information exchange, access and processing as those offered by ICTs, that we are to find the key to understanding and valuing the scope of their impact on school education, including their potential impact on improved learning outcomes (2004 p. 5).
Types of ICTs that are commonly used in Education

ICTs are defined, for the purposes of this work as a “diverse set of technological tools and resources used to communicate, and to create, disseminate, store, and manage information.” These technologies include computers, the Internet, broadcasting technologies (radio and television), and telephony. In recent years there has been a ground swell of interest on how computers and the Internet can best be harnessed to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of education at all levels and in both formal and non-formal settings.

E-Learning

Although most commonly associated with higher education and corporate training, e-learning encompasses learning at all levels, both formal and non-formal, that uses an information network—the Internet, an intranet (LAN) or extranet (WAN)—whether wholly or in part, for course delivery, interaction and/or facilitation. Others prefer the term online learning. Web-based learning is a subset of e-learning and refers to learning using an Internet browser (such as Netscape or Internet Explorer). The online learning or e-learning experience offers various possibilities in terms of relating information and instruction as vehicles to develop and preserve intellectual capital. E-learning is defined as instruction delivered on a digital device such as a computer or mobile device that is intended to support learning be it self-study (asynchronous) or instructor-led e-learning (synchronous) Clark & Mayer, in Ezekoka and Anum (2017).

Blended Learning

Another term that is gaining currency is blended learning. This refers to learning models that combine traditional classroom practice with e-learning solutions. For example, students in a traditional class can be assigned both print-based and online materials, have online mentoring sessions with their teacher through chat, and are subscribed to a class email list. Or a Web-based training course can be enhanced by periodic face-to-face instruction. ‘Blending’ was prompted by the recognition that not all learning is best achieved in an electronically-mediated environment, particularly one that dispenses with a live instructor altogether. Instead, consideration must be given to the subject matter, the learning objectives and outcomes, the characteristics of the learners, and the learning context in order to arrive at the optimum mix of instructional and delivery methods. Blended courses (also known as hybrid or mixed-mode courses) are classes where a portion of the traditional face-to-face instruction is replaced by web-based online learning. According to Ezekoka and Anum (2017). A blended learning model incorporates the best aspects of both face-to-face and online instruction in education;

❖ Classroom time can be used to engage students in advanced interactive experiences.
❖ The flexibility and convenience of the technological/online portion of the course can provide students with multimedia-rich content at any time of day, wherever the student has Internet access.
❖ Early evidence suggests that a blended instructional approach can result in learning outcome gains and increased enrollment retention.

Open and Distance Learning

Open and distance learning is defined by the Commonwealth of Learning as “a way of providing learning opportunities that is characterized by the separation of teacher and learner in time or 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
communications that allow learners and tutors to interact; the possibility of occasional face-to-face meetings; and a specialized division of labour in the production and delivery of courses.

**Learner-Centered Environment**
The National Research Council of the U.S. defines learner-centered environments as those that “pay careful attention to the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and beliefs that learners bring with them to the classroom. The impetus for learner-centeredness derives from a theory of learning called constructivism, which views learning as a process in which individuals “construct” meaning based on prior knowledge and experience. Experience enables individuals to build mental models or schemas, which in turn provide meaning and organization to subsequent experience. Thus knowledge is not “out there”, independent of the learner and which the learner passively receives; rather, knowledge is created through an active process in which the learner transforms information, constructs hypothesis, and makes decisions using his/her mental models. A form of constructivism called social constructivism also emphasizes the role of the teacher, parents, peers and other community members in helping learners to master concepts that they would not be able to understand on their own. For social constructivists, learning must be active, contextual is best done in a group setting with the teacher as facilitator or guide.

**CONCLUSION**
If there is one truism that has emerged in the relatively brief history of ICT use in education, it is this: It is not the technology but how you use it! Put another way: “How you use technology is more important than if you use it at all...[and] unless our thinking about schooling changes along with the continuing expansion of [ICTs] in the classroom then our technology investment will fail to live up to its potential. Technology then should not drive education; rather, educational goals and needs, and careful economics, must drive technology use. Only in this way can educational institutions in developing countries effectively and equitably address the key needs of the population, to help the population as a whole respond to new challenges and opportunities created by an increasingly global economy. ICTs, therefore, cannot by themselves resolve educational problems in the developing world; as such problems are rooted in well entrenched issues of poverty, social inequality, and uneven development. What ICTs as educational tools can do, if they are used prudently, is to enable developing countries especially the Nigerian education system to expand access to and raise the quality of education. Prudence requires careful consideration of the interacting issues that underpin ICT use in the school—policy and politics, infrastructure development, human capacity, language and content, culture, equity, cost, and least, curriculum and pedagogy.

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PART 4
STEM EDUCATION
TOWARDS ACHIEVING ACCESS AND QUALITY STEM EDUCATION IN AFRICA FOR SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

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ABSTRACT
The anticipated prosperous Africa is underpinned by Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) equipped workforce. This dream is realizable through deliberate investment efforts in increasing the number of youth and adults equipped with relevant technical and vocational skills. In this chapter CEMASTEA as a member of the CESA STEM cluster, enumerates promising interventions and experiences drawn from implementation of human resource capacity development programs in Kenya and other Africa countries. The
focus is to strengthen implementation of mathematics and science curriculum as foundational subjects to STEM education. One of the on-going initiatives is the process of establishing model STEM schools an approach adopted by Kenya to create a culture that enhances support structures and mechanisms to entrench related knowledge, skills and attitudes. A baseline study conducted in forty seven (47) secondary schools in Kenya revealed weaknesses in teaching and learning practices, leadership support mechanisms, school climate & culture, stakeholder involvement and inadequate infrastructure. To address these issues various on-going initiatives are discussed including student-based STEM education outputs. The CESA STEM cluster is a platform for actors and member countries to share best practice for learning and monitor related growth patterns. Key recommendations are included to inform practice and policy direction.

Keywords: Access, Quality, STEM Education, & Sustainable.

1. INTRODUCTION

Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) careers have been recognized to play a significant role in the social-economic development of countries world over. In Africa however, students have limited access to STEM education and careers. In an endeavour to contribute to the 2030 universal agenda on quality education and lifelong learning and Agenda 2063 on the Africa we want, this chapter discusses initiatives by the CESA STEM cluster to enhance access in Africa using the case of Kenya. The chapter is organized under the background, rationale for STEM education in Africa, CESA STEM cluster, role of CEMASTEA, contributing to a prosperous continent through STEM education promising initiatives, the future of STEM education in Africa, conclusion and recommendations.

1.1 BACKGROUND

The 2030 universal agenda emphasizes education for sustainable development while the African Union’s Agenda 2063, a long-term strategic framework for transforming the African continent over the next 50 years lists seven aspirations. Even though two of these aspirations is a prosperous Africa based on inclusive growth and sustainable development with youth guaranteed full access to education, training, skills and technology that are necessary to realize their full potential, in practice the schooling system is weak to rapidly respond. On the other hand, Sustainable Development Goal number four on quality education and lifelong learning reiterates the need to increase the number of youth and adults equipped with skills both technical and vocational relevant for employment (UN, 2015, p.21), teaching and learning practices are still teacher centered and examination oriented. In order to realise these aspirations, Africa’s youth need to acquire STEM related skills such as scientific literacy, 21st Century skills for employability, innovation and entrepreneurship, life skills required for lifelong learning and responsible citizenship for sustainable development (AUC, 2015). There is need for an education system that equips the youth to solve real life problems that draw on concepts and procedures from mathematics and science while incorporating the teamwork and design methodology of engineering using appropriate technology (Shaughnessy, 2013, p. 324). This perspective will thus underlie the discussion in this chapter with a view to build consensus on the understanding of STEM education.

1.2 WHY STEM EDUCATION IN AFRICA

The African Union Commission (AUC) envisions an integrated, prosperous and peaceful Africa, driven and managed by its own citizens representing a dynamic force in the international arena. Accordingly, the mission for Science, Technology, Innovation Strategy for Africa (STISA 2024) is to accelerate Africa’s transition to an innovation-led knowledge-based
economy. Countries in Africa subscribe to these continental aspirations in respective policy papers reiterating the importance of science, technology and innovations in contributing to economic recovery and growth to knowledge-driven nations. Kenya for instance aspires to realize medium term economy under the vision 2030 underpinned by science, technology and innovations (Government of Kenya, 2017). These policies however are yet to be reflected in practice as evidenced by inadequate investment in research and development, human resource capacity development, inadequately resourced schools some without science laboratories, and un-responsive methods of teaching and learning (ADEA ICQN-MSE, 2018). In addition, STEM education-based projects in Africa are driven by development partners and civil society organizations at a small scale, initiatives that are however un-sustainable beyond the project period. In essence, Africa recognises that STEM is central to socio-economic development and growth. In spite of this recognition, enrolment in STEM-based courses at secondary and tertiary levels is less than 25% in Africa across gender and 3% among girls and women (Khumbah, 2017/2018 and UNESCO, 2017). This is in contrast to 70% enrolment in STEM-based courses among the Asian tigers. Some of the consequences for low enrolment are reflected by the high rate of unemployed youth, under-employed youth, low level of value addition on exported natural resources, Africa’s over reliance on expatriate countries for services due to lack of a skilled domestic STEM workforce. Countries such as China, Japan, Germany and Israel invested in STEM education in the 1960s. As a result they have a large STEM workforce transforming them to major players in the global STEM-based economy. The Continental Education Strategy for Africa (CESA) aims at encouraging initiatives that enable significant strides towards increasing access to STEM education.

1.2.1. The CESA STEM Cluster

CESA is African Union Commission’s revolutionary approach for implementing global UN Sustainable Development Goal four (SDG 4) on education. It is geared towards addressing aspirations of the AUC’s Agenda 2063, but this dream is possible if countries appreciate factors that contribute to the Africa we want. The CESA STEM cluster was launched in 2016 in Nairobi, Kenya with a mandate to operationalize strategic objective seven (7) on, “Sustainable development with youth guaranteed full access to education, training, skills and technology that are necessary to realize their full potential”. The aim is to strengthen mathematics and science curricula in training youth, disseminating scientific knowledge and culture in society. Although mathematics and science are foundational subjects to STEM education and instrumental for driving innovation, social wellbeing, inclusive growth and sustainable development, teaching practices that support STEM skills are still weak. Teacher-centered and or examination oriented lessons are common in most African countries. The CESA STEM cluster which is co-coordinated by the Centre for Mathematics, Science and Technology Education in Africa (CEMASTEA), African Academy of Sciences (AAS) and the African Institute for Mathematical Sciences (AIMS) serves to consolidate information on STEM education in Africa. Such information is useful for peer learning, enhance alignment and create harmony to facilitate identification and creation of synergies for enhanced efficiency and effectiveness in STEM education.

1.2.2. Role of CEMASTEA

The Centre for Mathematics, Science and Technology Education in Africa (CEMASTEA) is a Kenyan public institution established in 2004 with the mandate to provide Teacher Professional Development in Mathematics and Science Education (TPD-MSE). A role that has enabled it realize milestones in human resource capacity for quality mathematics and science education programs spread across African countries. CEMASTEA hosts continental secretariats such as;
Association for the Development of Education in Africa’s (ADEA) Inter-Country Quality Node on Mathematics and Science Education (ICQN-MSE) and the Strengthening of Mathematics and Science Education in Africa (SMASE Africa) which is a network of twenty seven countries. Notwithstanding the gains made in improving classroom practices, low enrolment in STEM-based courses still persist. In order to cultivate attraction to STEM-based careers from basic education, the Ministry of Education, Kenya launched STEM education under the stewardship of CEMASTEA in 2016. UNESCO International Institute for Capacity Building in Africa (IICBA) in partnership with CEMASTEA launched the gender-responsive STEM education for educators from African countries in Ethiopia in 2016. These initiatives aim at Inspiring students to excel in STEM subjects, apply related knowledge in solving real life problems at individual, school, and community level. The proceeding sections describe the STEM education initiatives citing the case of Kenya.

1.3. CONTRIBUTING TO A PROSPEROUS CONTINENT THROUGH STEM EDUCATION

There are various on-going STEM education initiatives in Africa all endeavoring to contribute to a prosperous continent based on growth and sustainable development. In this section promising initiatives are discussed based on the Kenyan case. The aim is to show how CEMASTEA as the co-chair of the STEM cluster is strengthening mathematics and science curriculum implementation, disseminating scientific knowledge through human resource development programs and introducing science knowledge at an early stage of basic education. The initiation of the model STEM schools in Kenya aim at embedding contextualized scientific knowledge and culture to facilitate implementation of incubator projects and mentorship programs. Such programs deliberately identify extra-curricular activities that contribute to education for sustainable development. The programs focus on; role of leadership, teacher professional development, communities of practice, assessment and evaluation, and outputs of students in STEM education. The guiding principle is how these initiatives support the achievement of the CESA policy.

Strategic objective seven of CESA reiterates the importance of strengthening mathematics and science curricula, disseminate scientific knowledge and culture of science in the African society. A position that requires each country to make deliberate investments in developing both institutional and individual capacity. The teacher and school leadership are the most important bridging factors in translating policy intentions to practical realities of quality mathematics and science education. One of the common approaches to mathematics and science education in Africa is teaching each subject as a singular entity. The advent of STEM education requires a paradigm shift on practice and orientation of teaching. An emerging global trend explains the need for interdisciplinary approach to teaching and learning STEM subjects. This calls for teaching practice that cultivates a culture of interdisciplinary understanding of subject concepts and identify meaningful pattern of information (You, 2017). For example, the concept of specific heat capacity in physics is also applied in teaching the concept of land and sea breezes in Geography as well as thermochemistry in the calculation of heat of solutions. This requires teachers that are knowledgeable to teach this concept beyond one perspective and help learners think deeply on applicability rather than memorization of facts.

The model STEM school approach adopted by Kenya is an important step that creates a school culture that focuses on enhancing support structures and mechanisms for entrenching related knowledge, skills and attitudes. To systematically roll-out the model STEM school program, a baseline study was conducted in forty seven (47) secondary schools. The study determined the school climate, STEM readiness, and centrality of the school to serve the community of
practice. The study revealed weaknesses in teaching and learning practices, leadership support mechanisms, school climate & culture, inadequate stakeholder involvement and infrastructure.

1.3.1. Concept of Model STEM School
A model STEM school differentiates itself in terms of width and depth in the teaching of mathematics and science, its applicability and demonstration as well as the management of resources including waste. According to House (2017), successful implementation of a model STEM school program is underpinned by innovative design and implementation as well as clear insights into desired impact on student achievement. Such schools are characterized by thoughtful learner support and curriculum implementation that focus on interdisciplinary approach with authentic learning for solving real world problems. Thus, learning entails deep STEM content and the cultivation of 21st Century skills. The process inculcates confidence, and a sense of accountability that enables learners to be engaged, responsible community members, global citizens and lifelong learners who are able to apply STEM literacy to address social and economic issues.

1.3.2. Role of leadership in STEM Education
Leadership plays a critical role in successful implementation of STEM education. Transforming school climate and culture begins with a strong leadership mind-set. Transformative leadership is a paradigm shift from the norm to new processes that changes individuals based on the principle of mutual growth and development. It incorporates emotions, values, ethics, standards, long-term goals and vision. The Invitation Education Theory (IET) provides a comprehensive guiding theory for leadership that desires to create, maintain, and enhance truly welcoming STEM schools. This is guided by what is generally referred to as the 5Ps principle standing for People, Place, Policy, Programs, and Processes that form the school climate. The objective is to make the school environment more exciting, satisfying and enriching experience for all people (Purkey & Novak, 2016). The People aspect focuses on positive relationships within the school. Place refers to school physical environment that is clean, comfortable and safe. Policy includes regulations and rules that are designed to promote trust, respect and optimism. It entails vision and mission statements that indicate the reason for existence. Programs entail those that enhance personal career growth and development of teachers and students. Processes are the implementation of curriculum embedded with care, civility, commitment, courtesy and politeness.

1.3.3. Teacher Professional Development in STEM Education
Successful STEM education begins with change in teaching and learning practices. The teacher’s orientation to teaching is basically chalk and talk or telling approach. Since human behavior takes substantial amount of time to change, any intervention needs to include continuous teacher professional development in relevant teaching and learning approaches. This is to re-orientate teaching to learner centered approaches that are focused on enriching student’s learning experiences demonstrating the nature of STEM subjects from the basics. Teacher professional development in teaching and learning approaches such as; Inquiry Based Learning (IBL), Problem-Based or Project-Based Learning (PBL), and Gender-Responsive Pedagogy (GRP) STEM education are promising initiatives that Kenya implements for educators at national and international levels. For instance in a PBL environment, important STEM concepts are embedded in the context of interesting interdisciplinary problems. Training teachers and educators on PBL focuses on engaging students in solving interdisciplinary real-world problems, thereby encouraging them to invoke concepts and ideas drawn from multiple disciplines (Asghar, 2012). These approaches enable firsthand understanding of scientific and mathematical concepts, motivate learners to pursue STEM related careers, gain knowledge,
skills and attitudes to solve real-world problems. In addition, Information and Communication Technology (ICT) provides a wide range of technologies, tools, and digital content for use in the classroom to strengthen STEM education. Deliberate policy steps have been adopted to support these promising initiatives and in the case of Kenya, the curriculum reform introduced the STEM pathway in the Competency Based Curriculum (CBC) to ensure students are natured right from elementary level to pursue STEM related careers.

1.3.4. Communities of practice in STEM Ecosystems

The long term agenda of model STEM school approach is to spread the best practice to all schools towards knowledge creation, sharing, learning and application. This is attained gradually by creating a cluster of schools around the model STEM school. The cluster of schools share and take back good practices in respective schools. This is referred to as communities of practice in STEM learning ecosystem. STEM ecosystem building requires at least one organization to play the role of community influencer and champion to articulate, persuade and lead change. CEMASTEA for instance takes lead to involve partners and actors using the Multi-Sectorial Public Private Approach (MUSPPA). The Multi-Sectorial approach is enriching through tapping of wide range of ideas to give learners the opportunity to experience mathematics and science in application, and incubate STEM ideas. These interactions are organized out of school time. Interactions within the STEM ecosystem catalyse and nurture students’ interest and enthusiasm to STEM subjects. The approach brings mathematics and science lessons to life in STEM-rich learning environments like museum exhibits, science laboratories, recording studios, makerspace and marine research vessels. Such forums expose students to STEM professional mentorship and a variety of STEM career options. Mentorship programmes that involve a variety of university students studying STEM-based courses such as engineering, medicine, ICT and those working in related sectors take the opportunity to mentor high school students.

1.3.5. Assessment and Evaluation in STEM Education

Assessment and evaluation are key components of successful STEM education programmes. Model STEM schools document every stage experiences as a matter of policy. Developing a model STEM school is a process that progress through four STEM continuums1 namely:

- **Emerging Level**: just starting to explore the STEM concept
- **Developing**: the institution is moving toward program development
- **Accomplishing**: the institution is working towards becoming a model program
- **Practicing**: A quality, collaborative and comprehensive model STEM program is established

Assessment and evaluation of initial school STEM readiness has the potential to inform required interventions and realize substantial impact. Periodical assessment on the other hand tracks progress and intervene on areas that require improvement. CEMASTEA’s support to model STEM schools entail training of teachers on interdisciplinary approach to teaching and learning of STEM subjects and robotics. School leadership are trained on transformative leadership. The schools are supported through provision of necessary STEM equipment, teaching and learning resources. In principle, an effective assessment and evaluation strategy is one that considers assessment for learning, as learning and of learning. Assessment rubrics provide a basis to evaluate learner’s STEM growth.

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1 South Carolina State Department of Education, 2016
1.3.6. Outputs of Students in STEM education

The use of interdisciplinary approach in teaching and learning STEM subjects, allow learners time to apply knowledge acquired in the classroom to solve real life problems in the school or community. Model STEM schools develop projects that focus on the Kenyan, “Big Four” development policy agenda namely; manufacturing, food security, universal health care and affordable housing over a five year period. Students designed various projects as discussed in the subsequent section with support from the school administration.

Projects on Manufacturing

**Ulanda girls high school**, one of the model STEM schools located in rural Kenya, set out to address the problem of drinking water in the school. The learners applied the principle of reverse osmosis, which relies on the difference between the osmotic pressure and pressure exerted in the chambers to set up a water purification plant. The project enabled adequate supply of bottled drinking water to the school community. The school also distils water for use in the laboratory.

*Figure 5: Water purification plant in Ulanda girls*

In this project for example learners applied the interdisciplinary approach, using science knowledge to purify water, Technology and engineering in reverse osmosis and packaging, mathematics in determining the volume of the bottled water. The project promotes entrepreneurial skills in learners as they sell the water.

**Naivasha girls high school**, is a model STEM school located in urban Kenya, undertook a project to manufacture detergents as a way of cutting school costs. The learners applied knowledge of saponification in chemistry classroom to address escalating cost of detergents in the school. The learners use the detergent for cleaning washrooms, classrooms and dormitories.

*Figure 6: Student sealing the water bottle*

*Figure 7: Naivasha girl’s learners preparing*
Projects on food security

Naivasha girl’s students also plant various food crops such as maize, cabbages, carrots, black night shade and amaranthas. The farm produce subsidizes on the food cost in the school. These projects help learners acquire life skills such as care for crops, healthy feeding as they undertake to study food nutrition. They also learn mathematical skills in determining quantity of input and yields from the farm, as well as methods of farming.

Makerspace

CEMASTEA introduced the concept of makerspace which is a room set aside in the model STEM school as a creativity and innovations hub. Makerspace may be a mathematics or science room within a school where a learner takes time to think and solve real life problems using materials such as apparatus, hardware, software and chemicals, to design creative projects. Any room can be converted into a makerspace to revolutionize STEM education because they provide learners with non-formal environment to brainstorm and generate ideas to solve problems in
Linking STEM projects to Education for Sustainable Development

STEM project activities in school is an emerging discussion that calls for linking them to education for sustainable development. ESD complements STEM education initiatives because it empowers everyone to make informed decisions for environmental integrity, economic viability and a just society for present and future generations, while respecting cultural diversity” (UNESCO, 2013). STEM model schools embraced ESD activities as an integral component of the school curriculum. The concept of sustainability is multi-faceted and entails three aspects; environment, economy and social. The link between ESD and STEM education is exemplified in the various projects in model STEM schools as discussed in the following section.

Ulanda girls high school, initiated fish farming project to address sustainable supply of fish and reduce the cost of procuring the nutrient for the school community. ESD project is founded on STEM knowledge of living organisms and their ecosystems an idea that also serves various purposes as well as a teaching and learning resource.

The school prepares fish meals for students and fish being a delicacy in Kenya saves the school substantial amount of resources.

Naivasha Girls ESD project on pig rearing is another example of a STEM-based project that serves to address sustainability. Students in model STEM schools are encouraged to replicate the projects in their communities as a form of empowerment.

Tumutumu Girls ESD Project
1.4. THE FUTURE OF STEM EDUCATION IN AFRICA

The discussion on STEM education in Africa is a recent concept and the status of practice in member countries is unclear. The CESA STEM cluster is an opportune platform for actors and member countries to share best practice for peer learning with a view to contribute to Africa’s growth and sustainable development. We provide recommendations in the areas of practice, research and evaluation, and policy to encourage various actors as well as member states to invest in promising initiatives that grow the continent holistically. The issues require collective efforts, rather than isolated initiatives.

1.5. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

1.5.1. Conclusion

In conclusion a journey of one thousand miles begins with a step in the desired direction. Access to quality STEM education in Africa is at initial and emerging status with isolated initiatives. A country’s priority investment and leadership focus is toward development of sustained STEM workforce. Kenya as a case has adopted the model STEM school approach to entrench best practice and thereby nurture and spur students to STEM-based careers. In addition, the mentorship component supports meaningful learner development.

1.5.2. Recommendations

A number of recommendations are proposed to further strengthen and improve access to STEM education in Africa.

1. Accessing adequate and sustained funding to increase access and quality STEM education
2. Data mining on STEM to form future initiatives in Africa
3. Expand multi-sectorial approach to STEM education
4. Undertake relevant curriculum reforms to adequately accommodate STEM education
5. Provide STEM focused teacher professional development
6. Provide opportunities to showcase students STEM activities during continental platforms
7. Institutionalize policy environment for STEM education
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THE EFFECTIVENESS OF LESSON STUDY ON UNDERSTANDING AND ACHIEVEMENT OF SECONDARY STUDENTS IN MATHEMATICS IN NIGERIA

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ABSTRACT
The chapter examines the effectiveness of lesson study on understanding and achievement of secondary students in mathematics. Lesson study is a teaching process or approach that involves a group of teachers who collaboratively plan a lesson and one of the members of the group teaches the lesson by interacting with the students. The students also interacting among themselves in peers or groups. Other teachers observe and gather evidence on students’ learning outcomes. This is then followed by a reflection session after the lesson to critique and revise the lesson and teach the revised lesson to the same class or another by the same teacher or another. Other aspects of lesson study are lesson study revision and cycle. The lesson study greatly aids students understanding and achievement of students in mathematics. It is recommended that the existing teachers of mathematics be given the opportunity to participate actively in professional development programs of lesson study that focus on important school mathematics content; and lesson study should be used in planning lessons for the various topics in mathematics to improve students’ understanding and achievement among others.

Keywords: Achievement, Lesson Study, Reflection and Revision, Teaching and Learning Interactions, & Understanding.

INTRODUCTION
Majority of mathematics teachers in Nigeria plan and present lessons in mathematics independent of their colleagues and teach individually in their own individual classrooms. This practice has never improved the understanding of students in mathematics. There is need to provide teachers with opportunities to learn from each other and develop on content and pedagogy. Mathematics teachers need to be well versed in topics and concepts of mathematics they teach. Lesson study approach is an important teaching approach that can provide the right balance as poor achievers are mixed up with high achievers in a collaborative learning environment. This can give students the opportunity to share ideas and be responsible for one another’s learning. This can equally lead to better understanding and achievement in mathematics.

Definition of Lesson Study
Lesson study as an approach of teaching has been variegated defined by researchers. Lesson study is a professional development process that Japanese teachers engage in to systematically examine their practice, with the goal of becoming more effective (Lesson Study Research Group, 2014). Lesson study is identical to action research. It involves planning, teaching, observing and criticizing a lesson. Easton (2009) notes that lesson study is a teaching improvement process which has origin in Japanese elementary education. In
Lesson study, teachers jointly plan, observe, analyse, and refine actual classroom lessons. Working in a small group, teachers collaborate with one another and discuss learning goals. The teachers plan an actual classroom lesson (called a “research lesson”) to observe how it works in practice and then to revise and report the result so that other teachers could benefit from it (Lesson Study Research Group, 2014).

Lesson study can be defined as a teacher-led instructional improvement cycle in which teachers work collaboratively to: formulate goals for student learning, plan a lesson, teach and observe the lesson, reflect on gathered evidence, revise the lesson for improvement and re-teach the revised lesson (Meyer, 2011). Lesson study is a form of collaborative practice of learning. It is aimed at enhancing teaching and learning through the methodology of professional sharing of practice (Burghes & Robinson, 2009). The authors further stipulate that a group of teachers collaborate, identify a research theme or overarching aim that is student centered and relate to the school’s vision of what qualities they wish to encourage in their students.

Lesson study project (2014) defines lesson study as teaching improvement activities in which instructors jointly develops, teach, observe, analyze and revise lesson for their courses. The author further stresses that lesson study team build knowledge about how students learn in their discipline, produce a lesson that can be used by others, and create manuscripts for possible publication, presentation, and teaching portfolios. Moreover, Easton (2009) stipulates that lesson study group makes a decision about whether to revise the field-tested lesson and teach it again or simply apply what they have learnt to another lesson. Lesson study could also be defined as a teaching process or approach that involves a group of teachers who collaboratively plan a lesson and anyone member of the group teaches the lesson by interacting with the students; the students also interacting among themselves in peers or groups; while other teachers observe and gather evidence on students’ learning outcomes; this is then followed by a reflection session after the lesson to critique and revise the lesson and teach the revised lesson to the same class or another by the same teacher or another.

**Lesson Planning for Lesson Study**

It is important to begin the process of teaching mathematics with a clear statement of purpose and goals and ensure that the goals are worthwhile. The process begins with finding and selecting materials relevant to the purpose of the class, and then followed by refining the class design based on the actual needs of the students and trying all this information together into the lesson plan (Baba, 2014). This activity greatly relies on the teachers’ wishes and competence. The subject matter for each grade level should be systematically planned in advance, within a range that is not too difficult for students (Yoshikawa, 2014). While working on the lesson study planning, teachers should jointly draw up a detailed plan for the lesson.

The lesson is to be collaboratively planned by the teachers of the group. The group size should be three or four or five. If only two, there could be no good balance in views expressed; if six or more, there is not a enough time for everyone to participate in the planning and in subsequent review session and it would be difficult to get such a large numbers of teachers at one time (Burghes & Robinson, 2009). Lesson study requires much more time in lesson planning than in individual teacher lesson planning. It is important that proper and adequate time is given for planning the lesson. It is equally important that all the teachers of the group actively participate in the planning of the lesson.

The lesson plan does not have to be totally original and teachers of the group are encouraged to share their own ideas in the process of planning. Lesson study is not about designing a
perfect lesson (Gilmore & Hawkins 2014). The authors further observe that the lesson does not have to be original-it can pull from what is already out there. The purpose is not to make a lesson that the group can learn more about what the students learn but how effective they learn.

During the planning session all the group members are expected to participate fully. This is essential to ensure joint ownership of the lesson. At the end of the planning and each member of the group to have a copy of the lesson plan. This joint ownership is important as it takes away the feeling that the teacher to teach will be assessed. This is also essential because each member of the group needs to go through the lesson before presentation in the classroom. In planning a mathematics lesson for lesson study, the following are quite essential.

i. **Defining the Goals and Objectives of Lesson**
   The mathematics teacher is the major link between the curriculum and its implementation. Hence, the teacher is saddled with the responsibility of breaking the mathematics curriculum into schemes of work usually in units and lessons. When this task is done correctly the goals and objectives for the entire units and lessons are clearly defined. It is very essential for the teacher to relate all the goals and objectives in order to have a focus. The goals for lesson study-based mathematics classroom must be to guide and facilitate students' learning to understand and become better problem solvers in all aspects of the subject. Also, the goals must focus on what students should know (concepts, principles, procedures and generalization rules). Abakpa and Igwue (2013) reveal that instructional strategy employed by the teacher is the most important factor affecting learning outcomes and also the one that can easily be manipulated by the teacher to achieve the objectives.

ii. **Analyzing Students’ Potentials**
   In designing activities the teacher must look at the students on two different dimensions. First, he must consider the academic ability level of the students. What the students have already known about the concepts and procedures in the topic to be taught. Have the students taken pre-requisite lessons? Do the students have any real-world experiences that will help them understand the content and context of the lesson activities in class? Is there any other prior knowledge that they must possess? It is important that the teachers do not overestimate students’ experience. In planning instruction, the students’ level of experience must indicate the amount of structure and assistance the teacher would provide at the relevant stages of the lesson.

iii. **Designing Instructional Activities**
   Most roles of students in a lesson study-based classroom are dictated by instructional plan the teacher chooses. The teacher must plan lesson study such that it suits the students and purpose. Azuka (2012) asserts that the teacher should identify the different categories of abilities and plan lesson activities to suit the various students' ability levels commonly described as mixed-ability teaching.

**Lesson Teaching and Observation**
Mathematics teaching in front of colleagues can be a stressful experience. So it is essential that the observers understand this and set strict rules for the correct way of behaving in the mathematics classroom. All the group members should ensure that the classroom ethos is a typical of people and positive. One group member teaches the lesson and other members observe the implementation of the lesson especially students’ activities. The teaching of the planned lesson using group instruction involves interaction of the teacher with the students. There are also interactions among the students in carrying out mathematical activities in their
various groups in the learning process. The teaching is completely learner-centred whereby the teacher talks and acts little while the students do most of the talking and activities in the learning process.

Mathematics lesson observation is the careful watching of the students’ learning process in carrying out with the activities during the lesson presentation. Observation is an effective means of learning how certain teaching approaches are organized and how students respond to the teacher’s questions during lessons presentation. The observation also involves noting and recording information on students’ learning achievement in carrying out with activities during the lesson presentation. The other members of the group observe and record information on students’ reactions and learning outcomes on the learning activities throughout the lesson presentation. If the students are not used to being observed, they may react but once the lesson starts they soon settle down (Dogo, 2017). The observers should sit at the back of the classroom but need to be able to move round the classroom while students are carrying out activities, when it becomes necessary. But the observers should be sensitive to the position of the teacher taking the lesson as not to cause disruption. Koyama (2014) asserts that during lesson study, teachers collaborate to carefully observe the levels of students’ engagement and behavior during the lesson. The discussion and evaluation of the lesson is left and done during the reflection session.

**Lesson Reflection Session**

This is a session designed for the group to reflect on the mathematics activities of the lesson presented with respect to the shortcomings that were observed. Burghes and Robinson (2009) reiterate that the group gets together, usually on the day of lesson, to discuss the outcome of the lesson and their observations. As a teacher, you do not get to see all that goes on in the classroom, so reflection time allows you to hear what went well and what needs to be improved without any judgments (Meyer, 2011). The author further stress that teachers must have opportunities to reflect on their own teaching and instructional strategies. This involves a process of looking back at ones deeds, experiences or thinking deeply about them and using the knowledge or information that one gets in the future mathematics teaching and learning. Could it have been done any other way? Was it done the right or wrong way? Could it have been done differently or better? In the reflection session, the group members who observe the mathematics lesson share their observation notes starting from the group member who taught the lesson. The reflection is centred on the gathered information on students’ learning outcomes on the mathematics activities and discussion of changes for improving the lesson. The reflection session gives room for interesting and constructive discussion which could well be beneficial to all the group members.

**Lesson Revision and Re-teaching**

Mathematics Lesson revision is the process of changing, improving or making additions on the planned and taught lesson. The thoughts of individual teachers, improvement of the level teaching techniques, and breath of the network among teachers all come into play in this process (Baba, 2014). The group revises the mathematics lesson and the revised lesson is re-taught to the same class or another by the same group member or another while other group members observe. The group will come together again to discuss the observed instruction. Delisio (2014) stipulates that decide what revisions are needed. The lesson plan should be the focus of revision; the aim being to improve it for use in the future if it is to be re-taught, after it has been observed and revised.
Lesson Cycle
Lesson cycle is an experimental setting based on the goal to plan, teach, observe, reflect and revise a lesson in lesson study. Lesson cycle could also be seen as decisions taken before, during and after presentation of lesson in the classroom by the group of teachers in lesson study. Johnson (2017) notes that lesson plan cycle can be described as a constant stream of professional decisions made before, during and after interaction with students. In lesson study there could be two or more cycles depending on students’ learning outcomes (Dogo, 2017). The author also asserts that at the end of the second cycle of lesson study students are expected to attain a satisfactory learning outcome (for example 80% achievement rates or better). Easton (2009) notes that lesson study cycle provides teachers with the opportunity to:

➢ Think carefully about the goals of lesson, unit and subject area.
➢ Think carefully about the gap between who students are now and who we hope they will be after the lesson.
➢ Carefully study and improve lessons for subsequent greater students’ understanding.
➢ Collaboratively plan lessons in lesson study
➢ Carefully study students’ learning behaviour and record learning outcomes.
➢ Anticipate students’ thinking.
➢ Develop questioning technique that will stimulate students interest and augment their understanding.
➢ Increase pedagogical content knowledge of the teachers.
Lesson study cycle

1. REVISION OF LESSON TAUGHT OR NEW LESSON PLANNING
   - Revise or write the new lesson plan indicating:
     - Objectives
     - Steps and duration in minutes
     - Teachers activities
     - Students activities

2. LESSON PRESENTATION
   - Students interact among themselves in various groups
   - Teacher interacts with the students in their various groups
   - Other teachers observe and record students learning outcomes

3. REFLECTION SESSION
   - Teachers reflect on the lesson presented
   - Teachers revise the lesson

The cycle moves from revision of lesson taught or new lesson planning, then to lesson presentation and then to reflection session and revision. The lesson study group then decides to reteach the lesson or move to the next topic in the curriculum.

**Lesson Teaching and learning Interactions**

Lesson interaction is the involvement of teacher and students in communicating to share ideas and experiences; and also reacting to each other. In lesson study, interactions and collaborations are permitted to share learning experiences. The teacher teaches the lesson by interacting with the students; and the students also interacting among themselves in peers or groups. The students construct their own knowledge and meaning from their own experiences through sharing of ideas in their various groups. In this approach the teacher continually follows the students’ perceptual thinking rather than leading conceptual thinking (Olosunde, 2013). This stresses the fundamental of social interaction in the development of cognition.
Stressing on the role of social constructivism and learning through interaction Galloway (2014) asserts that social constructivism focuses on an individual’s learning that takes place because of his/her interaction in a group activity. For efficient and effective teaching using lesson study approach therefore, the group of teachers must plan activities that encourage not only what students are capable of doing but what they can learn with the help of others. Therefore, if students are to develop a deeper understanding in learning, the teachers must actively engage students in lesson study approach.

UNDERSTANDING
Michael and Gwynth (2007) define understanding as knowledge about a particular subject, process or situation. Mathematics understanding is comprehension of mathematical concepts, operations, relations and processes (Agwagah, 2013).

Lesson study process also focuses the lesson on students’ understanding (Human Resources Development Working Group, 2015). A unique characteristic of lesson study is that it provides an opportunity for teachers to carefully examine the students’ learning and misunderstanding of the process by observing and discussing actual classroom practice (Human Resources Development Working Group, 2015). Active engagement is said to aid understanding and improve academic performance, attitude and classroom practice (Olosunde, 2013).

Lawan (2013) views understanding as neither a static product nor as something to be acquired and then applied, but it is instead characterized as occurring in action and thus constantly evolving. The author also notes that understanding must necessarily take into account the interaction that a person has with others in such contexts as with materials, other students and teachers.

Effect of Lesson Study on Understanding
Effect of lesson study on the understanding of students in the teaching and learning of mathematics great. Pektas (2014) conducted a study on effect of lesson study on science teachers’ teaching efficacies found that lesson study engages students with meaningful content and adequate understanding. Students acquire a lot of knowledge, skills and practical understanding of mathematics when taught with lesson study.

Meyer (2011) conducted a study on effect of lesson study on teachers and students in urban middle schools in Central Texas, United States of America and found that students increased in the conceptual understanding when exposed to lesson study. Lesson study improves tremendously the understanding of students in mathematics. This is because students are engaged in learning activities that appropriately challenge understanding. Interactions and collaboration in lesson study also improve the knowledge of students in mathematics. Dogo (2017) conducted a study on effect of two modes of lesson study on senior secondary students’ attitude and achievement in algebra in Kaduna State Nigeria; and found out that students in the experimental groups greatly improved in understanding and moved the students far beyond an instrumental understanding of mathematics associated with algebra especially quadratic equations than those in the control group. The author further adds that lesson study approach reduces greatly the abstraction in algebra and students understands structural features of algebra. The teaching of mathematics with lesson study can therefore, go a long way in reducing the abstraction in mathematics in general and increase efficient and effective understanding.
ACHIEVEMENT

Achievement is all about completing goals that one has set for himself or herself (Manion, 2014). Achievement can also be defined as the ability to perform a given task successfully using appropriate knowledge, effort and skills. Iji and Uka (2012) observe that it means that teacher factor is very critical to improving students’ achievement in mathematics. Ugwu (2013) argues that achievement in the sciences will help Nigeria improve in the area of science and technology which is one of her objectives towards vision 2020. This is so since technology is science in operation and mathematics is the bedrock of science and technology. If a nation is to survive and develop then it has to improve on its teaching and learning of mathematics which is the basis for technological development (Galadima & Okogbenin, 2012). In the march towards scientific and technological advancement, therefore, there is a need for improved achievement in mathematics at all levels of schooling (Adewumi, 2012).

In spite of improved efforts the achievement of students in mathematics has never been encouraging. Adewumi (2012) reiterates that achievement in mathematics at the end of secondary school in Nigeria has not quite improved in the past decades. The author further adds that the fundamental problems of mathematics education of our learners are not in doubt. Lesson study therefore, can be used to teach students in order to improve their achievement in mathematics.

Effect of Lesson Study on Achievement of Students

Lesson study improves the achievement of students in mathematics. Dogo (2017) conducted a study on effect of two modes of lesson study on senior secondary students’ attitude and achievement in algebra in Kaduna State Nigeria; and found out that students in the experimental groups significantly improved progressively in algebra achievement than those in the control group. The author further stressed that lesson study reduces abstraction, rote learning and cramming, misconceptions; and made procedure for expansion and factorization of quadratic expressions as well as solution of quadratic equations far easier. The reason is that lesson study improves assimilation, accommodation and the reflective abstraction processes involved in subjective cognitive construction of knowledge, in the process of learning. The students learn in lesson study until no more accommodation of concepts, structures and procedures involved in the reciprocal assimilation were necessary (Dogo, 2017).

Students learned for greater productivity in all mathematics examinations in the lesson study. Pektas (2014) asserts that after exposure to lesson study, there was a tremendous improvement in students’ scores when compared to individual students’ scores in previous similar examinations. Lewis, Perry and Hurd (2009) notes that students taught with lesson study achieves significantly higher than those taught via conventional approach. Ng, Koh, Kelly and Yue (2012) also reveal that students taught using meaningful tasks ended up with higher mean performance scores than those taught in comparison class. Hence, the lesson study tremendously improves understanding and achievement in mathematics.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, it could be said that the lesson study offers a framework for outcome-based education which is a thrust towards greater learner-centred approach. The lesson study should be considered a useful addition to the variety of existing mathematics teaching approaches that attempt to involve learners more in learning. It should be noted that the movement towards self-directed learning takes time to mature since learners are purposefully pushed out of passive reception of knowledge zone in order to set in motion a self-sustainable process of growth towards life-long learning. More so, lesson study have proven to be instrumental in helping
teachers plan more for lessons but talk and act less while students learn more by interacting and discussing in various groups.

**RECOMMENDATIONS**

1. It is important that existing teachers of mathematics be given the opportunity to participate actively in professional development programs of lesson study that focus on important school mathematics content.

2. Lesson study should be used in planning lessons for the various topics in mathematics to improve students’ understanding and achievement.

3. The curriculum developers should adapt the lesson study to develop and refine the mathematics curriculum.

4. The government should make it a policy for lesson study to be a professional instruction mode at the basic education and at the senior secondary levels, to form the basis for educational system for consequent technological development.

5. It is also quite imperative for mathematics teachers to strive for continuous improvement of instruction strategies and knowledge of lesson study because they are the key to students’ understanding and achievement in mathematics.

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4.3

INCLUSIVE STEM EDUCATION FOR LEARNERS WITH DISABILITIES: A CASE OF CHILDREN WITH VISUAL IMPAIRMENTS

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ABSTRACT
Children with disabilities in general and those with Visual Impairments in particular face many challenges that compromise their education opportunities. One area of concern is the low rate of the Visually Impaired in Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) subjects and eventually STEM careers. Zambia has made strides in Inclusive Education. Thousands of Learners with Visual Impairments who were excluded from the school system were now given the opportunity to learn at an equal basis with other children. However, they encountered various perceptions learning STEM subjects thereby limiting their career prospects. Currently, the majority of persons with Visual Impairments were teachers at primary School or were teachers of Languages and Social Sciences at Secondary School. Disability stereotypes, negative attitudes, and other barriers exclude such learners from benefitting fully from quality education. In almost all the schools where the Visually Impaired are, STEM subjects were not taught due to inadequately trained teachers and lack of teaching and learning resources. As soon as learners enter secondary education, STEM subjects were dropped save for biology in very few schools. In this study, five schools were sampled one from each of the five sampled Provinces. A total number of 157 boys and 110 girls (267) were in the study. It was concluded that 2% of the learners were learning Biology among the STEM subjects at secondary school level. 98% of the Learners learnt none of the STEM subjects. This was due to inadequately trained teachers in Braille Mathematics and Braille Science Notation. The teachers had the content but lacked the “how part” of teaching STEM subjects to the Visually Impaired.

Keywords: Attrition, Braille, Low Vision, Tactile, & Visually Impaired.

1.0. BACKGROUND
The education of teachers for Learners with Special Educational Needs and Disabilities started in Zambia in 1971. This was when the then Republican President Dr. Kenneth David Kaunda decreed that the responsibility of educating these learners be a responsibility of government. Initially missionaries took this responsibility with their own objectives. Teachers for the Hearing Impaired, the Intellectually Disabled, the Physically Disabled and the Visually Impaired were trained in all subject areas for the Zambia Primary Course, Junior Secondary and Senior Secondary courses.

Pre-service teachers for Mathematics and Science were trained in Colleges of Education and Universities while those who opted to teach Learners with Special Educational Needs and Disabilities went to Lusaka College for the teachers of the Handicapped now Zambia Institute of Special Education (ZAMISE). It is at ZAMISE that Mathematics and Science teachers were provided with an In-service course in education for Learners with Special Educational Needs.
and Disabilities. For teachers for the Visually Impaired (Visual Impairments include persons who are blind and those with low vision or are Partially Sighted), Braille Mathematics Notation, Braille Science Notation and Assistive Technology was taught. Teachers who were trained as such have been promoted, others have retired, others have opted to teach average learners and some died. Teacher attrition rate has been high.

2.0. SITUATION ANALYSIS

Currently there were 1,866 teachers with Special Education qualifications in the country. 1,520 were at primary school while 348 were at secondary school. Furthermore, there were 14,381 learners with visual impairments, 11,244 were at primary school while 3,137 were at secondary school (Ministry of General Education, 2017). The situation was that the teachers had no competencies in teaching STEM subjects to the Visually Impaired. Learners with Visual Impairments had varied perceptions learning Mathematics and Science Subjects at Primary school, Secondary school and Colleges of Education because of inadequately trained teachers and inadequate teaching and learning resources. Teachers have the content in STEM subjects that they acquired from other Colleges of Education and Universities, but the Zambia Institute of Special Education has not adequately nurtured these teachers to be competent in delivering STEM subjects. This makes it difficult for learners to do STEM subjects.

3.0. OPPORTUNITIES

i. Well trained teachers in Mathematics and Science
ii. Well trained teachers in Special Education
iii. The Directorate of National Science Center is in place and active
iv. A few trained teachers (Retired) in Braille Mathematics Notation and Braille Science Notation were available.
v. Human resource in Assistive Technology available

It is by using the opportunities above in training the majority of teachers and Lecturers so that in turn all learners with Visual Impairments can learn Mathematics, Science and Assistive Technology without Discrimination and on the same basis with others.

4.0. THE NEED

i. Training teachers in teaching STEM subjects to Learners with Visual Impairments.
ii. Training in improved pedagogy for teachers of the Visually Impaired in STEM subjects.
iii. Production of teaching and learning resources for the Visually Impaired.

The National Science Center is charged with the mandate of enhancing the teaching of STEM, therefore, the institution has a big role in providing solutions to the teaching of STEM in Schools and Colleges of Education. The main challenges of Learners with Special Educational Needs and Disabilities not learning STEM are to do with pedagogy and materials. Therefore, the only hope to train in-service teachers in Braille Mathematics Notation, Braille Science Notation. Assistive technology is also one area which can give “sight to the Blind.” In order to leave no child behind an inclusive approach to teacher education is ideal.

5.0. LITERATURE REVIEW

According to Maguvhe (2015) perceptions of teaching mathematics and science to learners with blindness and partial sight are also experienced elsewhere support the previous argument when they assert that learners have regarded science as a difficult subject because of difficult and abstract concepts. They continued arguing that science teaching has been dependent mostly on visual instruction. This makes it difficult for learners who are partially sighted in an
inclusive setting to learn the concepts. Learners who are blind on the other hand, have no visual input at all. They need to learn using the other senses such as touching and hearing (Tactile).

According to Republic of Zambia (2011) Science, Technology and Innovation play an important role in national development. Economic development of any Country depends on innovation, science and Technological advancement of its people. In this regard, science and Technology should adapt to the local conditions if it is to fully utilize locally available resources. When it is adaptable, it enhances productivity, creates wealth and improves people’s quality of life. A bursary scheme for female scientists was introduced and 18 students benefitted from it. These female scientists were all sighted. According to Spungin & Ferrell (2007) out of the 22 registered schools for the Blind in South Africa only two offer STEM subjects and approximately 600 learners out of 3000 benefit from STEM subjects. Despite it being a compulsory subject area in Zambia, less than 100 learners with Visual Impairment were doing STEM subjects. According to Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education (2013) Learners with Special Educational Needs will require adapted curriculum and adapted technology relevant to their disability. However, learners who can not benefit from the Inclusive curriculum will have an alternative curriculum that responds to their needs and abilities. Teacher Education curriculum should also equip teachers with skills, positive attitudes, values and knowledge to meet the needs of learners with disability. Negative perceptions in the teaching of STEM subjects to Learners with Visual Impairments are also experienced somewhere else. Sahin and Yorek (2009) support the previous argument when they assert that Learners have regarded STEM subjects as difficult because of being taught in abstract. They continue arguing that STEM subjects have continuously depended on visual instruction. This makes it difficult for the Visually Impaired included in the mainstream of education to learn concepts. They have no visual input at all. They need to learn using the other senses such as touching and hearing.

While STEM subjects are easily accessible by the average learner, it is less accessible to the Visually Impaired since most of the concepts are presented graphically, and there are so many concepts that can not be explored by touch and are put across through visual observation (Kalra et al.2009; Maguvhe, 2005; Sahin & Yoreka, 2009). In other words, Visual Impairment overlaps with limited capacity. This is compounded by human attitudes that negatively affect the teaching of STEM subjects. This in itself is a barrier to quality education. Cryer (2013) and Schleppenbach (1996) state that the absence of accessible technologies, has traditionally been a legitimate reason to conceal STEM subjects from large-scale entry and pursuance by the Visually Impaired. In cases where all has been adapted to meet the needs of the Visually Impaired, their performance has been competitively typical with the average (Sahin & Yoreka, 2009). Therefore, the non participation in STEM subjects by learners with Visual Impairments has been more about the inadequate appropriate accessible technologies and teacher attitudes than about the psychological incapacity of the Visually Impaired themselves. Schleppenback (1996) further states that, there were few role models and mentors to encourage the Visually Impaired to pursue STEM subjects as professional niches. The underlying perception is that often teachers do not have adequate direct experience with teaching the Visually Impaired (Sahin & Yoreka, 2009; Stefanich & Norman, 1996).

Many teachers have negative attitudes in that they fail to provide additional assistance to learners with diverse needs in their charge. In relation to learners with Visual Impairments, teachers are not convinced that they are good enough to do well in the STEM subjects. The bottom line is that learners with Visual Impairments are endowed with the same cognitive
capacity as the average learner (Kumar, Ramasamy & Stefanich 2001). Therefore, the schools that exclude learners with Visual Impairments from doing STEM subjects deny them the opportunity to be physical and biological scientists. According to Maguvhe (2005) Learners with Visual Impairments are aware of the negative perceptions from the mainstream of education and a few challenges the prevailing situation. For such Learners to survive they need to be hard skinned to overcome social factors of exclusion. Special Schools and Special Education teachers in this case will be used as resource centers and resource persons respectively. Schools are denied adapted equipment, adequately qualified teachers in Braille Mathematics and Braille Science Notation and Universally Designed infrastructure as laboratories. The Zambian government recognizes STEM subjects as critical subjects for national development. It responded by creating a Directorate of National Science Center whose mandate is to enhance STEM subject teaching and learning. This does not exclude Learners with Visual Impairments. The STEM subjects should be accessible to all learners. This will increase the quota of persons with Visual Impairments in different professional fields, especially in fields considered scarce and critical, there is need to reach out firmly to resolve to educate learners with Visual Impairments in those fields. This research focused on the inclusion of Learners with Visual Impairments in learning STEM subjects.

According to Schleppenbach (1996) learning needs of learners with Visual Impairments need to be identified before developing a learning program for them. Their technological and educational needs are critical to their learning. This translates to the fact that; they need to be consulted in order to arrive at ways to accommodate them in line with their need. The learning area one finds difficult, is not isolated from the kind of additional assistance one need.

6.0. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM
From the literature reviewed, it can be seen that teacher perception exclude learners with Visual Impairments from doing STEM subjects. Furthermore, there was inadequately trained teachers for the Visually Impaired, there was inadequately adapted teaching and learning resources and the school infrastructure was not adequate. The Visually Impaired were endowed with the same cognitive skills as the average to pursue any course of study. What was missing is identifying their educational and technological needs for planning to be effective and therefore teaching will be effective. What is not known is why Learners with Visual Impairments were not taught STEM subjects in the school system despite them being compulsory.

7.0. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY
The study was guided by one objective;

i. To establish whether STEM subjects were taught to the Visually Impaired in the school system despite them being compulsory.

8.0. RESEARCH QUESTION
i. To what extent are STEM subjects taught to learners with Visual impairments in Zambian schools.

9.0 METHODOLOGY
The sample for this study comprised four schools for the Visually Impaired and one Unit for the Visually Impaired. These were sampled from five Provinces and a total number of 157 boys and 110 girls (267) were in the study. The 267 learners were from grades 9 and 12. Five teachers and Five head teachers were also in the study. A mixed research method was used. Data was collected using structured and semi structured interviews. In addition, documents were
analyzed to check on learners’ registration for examinations. Focused Group Discussions were done with learners. Teachers were subjected to a questionnaire. Data was analyzed using themes, tables and graphs.

10.0 FINDINGS OF THE STUDY/ DISCUSSION

10.1 Inadequately trained teachers
Since Zambia started training teachers for the Visually Impaired in 1971, teachers had skills and competencies to teach STEM subjects. Overtime due to high attrition rate there were no Lecturers at Zambia Institute of Special Education (ZAMISE) to impart competencies and skills in Braille Mathematics Notation, Braille Science Notation and Information communications Technology. The cohort of teachers in the sampled schools and a Unit for the Visually Impaired two (40%) teach STEM subjects to a few learners as shown in the table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCHOOL/UNIT</th>
<th>ICT</th>
<th>MATHS</th>
<th>SCIENCE</th>
<th>ICT</th>
<th>MATHS</th>
<th>SCIENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Magwero school</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mporokoso school</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rusangu Unit</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sefula School</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St Marys</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE: 10.1.1**
The table above show that very few children with Visual Impairments were enrolled in Special schools and units. Of these very few did the STEM subjects at Grade 9. The Zero indicate that no child with Visual Impairments was doing the three subjects listed and the “NA” show that the school went up to grade 9 or it had not enrolled learners in grade 12 or all the learners in grade 12 were average (sighted). This is a gloomy picture.
10.2 Teacher perceptions
The five teachers (100%) who responded to the questionnaire said STEM subjects can be taught to the Visually Impaired but they lacked support from other teachers in the schools who believed STEM subjects were only for the average (sighted) child. The five head teachers indicated that the Visually Impaired could not do STEM subjects. These perceptions led to excluding learners with Visual Impairments from doing STEM subjects. These Head teachers never supported the Visually Impaired in STEM subjects resulting in many a child leaving school without STEM subjects. This contributes to the fact that most Children with Visual Impairments are teachers in Zambia not because they want but because their career prospects are limited to social sciences and languages.

10.3 Inadequate adapted Teaching and Learning Resources
The Ministry of General education had not provided adapted teaching and learning resources for learners with Visual impairments in Zambia. This also goes with the adapted curriculum. As a result, teachers fail to teach and learners drop out of these subject areas for social sciences and Languages. Consequently, the Examinations Council of Zambia only provides Biology Paper 3 in an adapted form. The rest of the examinations are for the average.

10.4 Lack of adapted or Universally Designed Laboratories
It is common knowledge that all the designs of laboratories were for the average child. This excludes the Visually Impaired. There were no Universally Designed Laboratories.

11.0 CONCLUSION
The objective of the study was to establish whether STEM subjects were taught to the Visually Impaired in the school system despite them being compulsory. While the research question was to find out to what extent were STEM subjects taught to learners with Visual impairments in Zambian schools. In conclusion the researcher is convinced that STEM subjects were not taught to learners with Visual Impairments due to inadequately trained teachers, teachers perceptions, inadequate adapted Teaching and learning resources and no adapted or Universally Designed Laboratories. These factors exclude learners with Visual Impairments from doing STEM subjects thereby limiting their professional prospects in the job market.

12.0 RECOMMENDATIONS
i. Train teachers for the Visually Impaired for STEM subjects
ii. Sensitize teachers and Head teachers that the Visually Impaired are endowed with the same cognitive skills as the average to do STEM subjects
iii. Provide adapted Teaching and Learning resources and curriculum for the Visually Impaired
iv. Build Universally Designed Laboratories.

REFERENCES


SCIENCE AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION BEYOND THE CLASSROOM: A CASE STUDY OF MECHANIC VILLAGE, ABAKALIKI, NIGERIA.

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ABSTRACT
Science and technology education are virile means of achieving unprecedented national development, especially when harnessed rightly for optimum growth of the nation involved. The teaching, learning and practice of science and technology is the hub through which developed nations of the world control the rest of the comity of nations. A critical analysis of current trend of science and technology education reveals that there is continuous widening gap between the teaching and learning of science in the various higher institutions and its actual practice in the society. Common among these trends in Ebonyi State, is the gap between modern science and technology and its abysmal application in the Mechanic Village setup, Abakaliki. For science and technology education to be more productive for the State and the entire region, science and technology education must be taken beyond the classroom to the actual areas of application like the Mechanic Village setup Abakaliki. All hands must rise to this challenge to make science and technology education more practicable so that it will become more rewarding to the State and Nigeria at large.

Keywords
Education, Mechanic Village, Technology, & Science and Society.

INTRODUCTION
Science, technology and the society are a complex whole. Each aspect of the relationship needs the other to thrive. From early beginnings, science and technology have developed into the greatest and most influential fields of human endeavour. Today different branches of science investigate almost everything that can be observed or detected, and science as a whole shape the way we understand the universe, our planet, ourselves, and other living things.
Science is the mother of technology, that is why it is said that science is any system of knowledge that is concerned with the physical world and its phenomena and that entails unbiased observations and systematic experimentation (Encyclopaedia Britannica, 2014). Additionally, (Ramalingman, 2007) sees science as the study of the natural things around us. Science and technology have had a major impact on society, and their impact is growing geometrically. Science and technology have drastically changed our means of communication, the way we work, our housing, clothes, and food, our methods of transportation, and, indeed,
even the length and quality of life itself. They have also generated changes in the moral values and basic philosophies of mankind, bringing about modifications in how we live and what we believe. By making life easier, science has given man the chance to pursue societal concerns such as ethics, aesthetics, education, and justice; to create cultures; and to improve human conditions, but it has also placed us in the unique position of being able to destroy ourselves (Burke, Bergam and Asimov, 1985).

Science is the systematic study of anything that can be examined, tested, and verified. The word science is derived from the Latin word scire, meaning “to know” (Burnie, 2008). It is any system of knowledge that is concerned with the physical world and its phenomena and that entails unbiased observations and systematic experimentation. In general, a science involves a pursuit of knowledge covering general truths or the operations of fundamental laws. For a large part of recorded history, science had little bearing on people's everyday lives. Scientific knowledge was gathered for its own sake, and it had few practical applications. However, with the dawn of the Industrial Revolution in the 18th century, this rapidly changed (Burnie, 2008). Today, science has a profound effect on the way we live, largely through technology—the use of scientific knowledge for practical purposes.

Technology is a general term for the processes by which human beings fashion tools and machines to increase their control and understanding of the material environment. It is the application of scientific knowledge to the practical aims of human life. The term is derived from the Greek words tekhnē, which refers to an art or craft, and logia, meaning an area of study; thus, technology means, literally, the study, or science, of crafting (Merritt, 2009). Many historians of science argue not only that technology is an essential condition of advanced, industrial civilization but also that the rate of technological change has developed its own momentum in recent centuries. Innovations now seem to appear at a rate that increases geometrically, without respect to geographical limits or political systems. These innovations tend to transform traditional cultural systems, frequently with unexpected social consequences. It is in this light that Merritt (2009) opines that technology can be conceived as both a creative and a destructive process.

Society is the web of relationships and interactions among human beings; it is the sum of social relationships among groups of humans or animals. Society is a structured community of people bound together by similar traditions, institutions, or nationality; It is the customs of a community and the way it is organized, e.g. its class structure. From the foregoing, the society has reference to the culture of a particular people. Bodley (2009) state that Anthropologists commonly use the term culture to refer to a society or group in which many or all people live and think in the same ways. Likewise, any group of people who share a common culture and in particular, common rules of behaviour and a basic form of social organization, constitutes a society. Thus, the terms culture and society are somewhat interchangeable. The society or culture constitute the patterns of behaviour and thinking that people living in social groups learn, create, and share. Culture distinguishes one human group from others. It also distinguishes humans from other animals. A society is aggregation of people’s culture, which includes their beliefs, rules of behaviour, language, rituals, art, technology, styles of dress, ways of producing and cooking food, religion, and political and economic systems.

Science-Technology is a social process (Goldman, 1992). Social factors and Science-technology are intertwined so that they are dependent upon each other. This includes the aspect that social, political, and economic factors are inherent in science-technology and that social structure
influences what science-technologies are pursued. Winner (1993) pinpoints on this idea by speaking of the fact that in the late twentieth century, science, technology and society, science, technology and culture, technology and politics are by no means separate. Science and Technology cannot be separated from ethnic practices. In a nutshell, what is known as “Science and Technology” today evolved from simple scientific and technological practices of different ethnic groups which overtime expanded due to continuous observations and discoveries. The human species has a unique capability for culture in the sense of conscious thinking and planning, transmission of skills and systems of social relationships, and creative modification of the environment (Bonner, 2008). The integrated patterns of behaviour required for planning and fashioning tools were accomplished by different ethnic groups long before western science, and some form of advanced code for vocal communication may also have existed at this time (Bonner, 2008). In a nutshell, no science or technology can ever exist or be sustained in an ethnic society that has no need for such.

Mechanics, in technical terms is the branch of physics concerned with the motions of objects and their response to forces (Swartz, 2009). As a profession, a mechanic is a skilled worker who is employed to repair or operate machinery or engines (Microsoft Encarta Dictionary, 2009). The second definition (mechanic as a skilled worker) forms the core on which this paper is based.

The work of a mechanic is simply the application of technical knowledge of science to solving daily needs of people in automobile maintenance and repairs. In Nigeria, most of the vehicle maintenance and repair jobs are performed by roadside mechanics. However, as important as this role is to society, there is clear gap of divide between the learning of science and technology and the actual practice of it in the society and in different organised setups like the mechanic villages, Abakaliki.

MECHANIC VILLAGE, ABAKALIKI
Mechanic Village, Abakaliki is the base of roadside automobile maintenance in Ebonyi State. It is situated at Abagana Street, off Ogoja Road of the Capital, Abakaliki, which is located at about the mid of the South Eastern, Nigeria, latitudes 4°20' and 7°00'N and longitudes 5°25' and 9°35' (Wilberforce, 2015). Ebonyi State is in the South-Eastern Geopolitical Zone of Nigeria. It is located within 6°15′N 8°05′E, occupying 5,533 km2 (2,136 square miles), with population (2006 Census) of 2,176,947, density of 390/km2 (1,000/sq mi) (Wikipedia, 2018).

The study area - Mechanic Village, Abakaliki is located 1500m from the central part of the town and about 200m to Abakaliki Rice Mill Industry (Wilberforce, 2015). Furthermore, Wilberforce opines that themechanic village is characterized by beehive activities from 8.00 am in the morning to6.00 pm in the evening. A section known asMotor parts is where people buy and sell different parts of vehicles. The remaining sectionis occupied basically by the four majoridentifiable groups such as (a) mechanics, (b) welders, (c) electricians and (c) panel beaters. The mechanics and electricians focus on repairing themechanical and electrical aspect of the vehicles respectively. The welders and panel beaters fix damaged parts of vehicle. All these activities bring about the practice of science and technology in the setup.
Importance of Mechanic Village, Abakaliki
One must not lose sight of the importance of such setups in a developing Nation like Nigeria. Very crucial among the importance are as follows:

a. Guaranteed Continuity in Road Transport
The use of automobile vehicles on our roads plays a key role in road transportation system. In Nigeria where land transport (through automobiles) is largely in use compared to water transportation and other modes of transportation, the use of automobile vehicles, either diesel or petrol driven is predominant. However, the vehicles cannot remain new forever, as the parts breakdown and wear out, and so, must be maintained. The presence of this setup guarantees their continuous functioning for a longer period of time.

b. Revenue Generation
The Mechanic Village, Abakaliki, being a home for Small and Medium Scale Enterprises (SMSE) is a hub for revenue generation in the State. Payments are regularly made for tickets, workshops, environmental agencies, etc. These revenues assist in the repositioning of the State specifically, and the Nigerian society at large.
c. Job Creation
In a country where the unemployment rate is rising, a setup of this nature has engaged many youths. This, to a large extent reduces unemployment rate in the state and Nigeria at large as well as reduction in number of redundant youth who may have been engaged in crimes to fend for themselves. Such setups must be supported in all angles (even educationally) for it to move to the expected level where its impact can fully be felt in the society.

SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY IN MECHANIC VILLAGE, ABAKALIKI
There is a well-known adage that one cannot give what he does not have. Suffice it to say that one cannot act beyond what he knows. Such is the case in Mechanic Village, Abakaliki. The extent of scientific knowledge possessed by the skilled men in that industrial setup attest to the fact that science and technology education must move from the classroom into several setups of such nature scattered around the Nigerian society so that science and technology teaching as well as its actual practice may become meaningful to the society.

The continuous theorising of science and technology education in different institutions of higher learning against the continuous decay of its actual practice is a bane to the development of the Nigerian society. A simple look at such industrial setups scattered round about Nigeria will reveal to a large extent that that science and technical knowledge has largely been cocooned only in the four walls of the higher institutions of learning, with very poor application in the real society. There is the grave divide between science and technical conditions taught in the higher educations and their actual application in the real industrial setups in Nigeria.

Fig. 4: The widening gap between science and technology in the classroom and its actual practice in the society

The above scenario must not be allowed to continue. For science and technical knowledge to be fully operational for the growth of the Nigerian society, it must be taken beyond the classroom to the actual fields where it is practiced.

A walk along the Mechanic Village, Abakaliki, will at a glance reveal how much scientific knowledge is neglected – health conditions are highly not maintained, environmental sanity is highly not practiced to the detriment of nature and in utter disregard to the tenets of environmental education, etc. Technical knowledge of simple machines is not also well applied and that accounts for the use of crude implements and even human force (muscles) in day to day activities in such industrial setups to get things done.

The continuous downplay of the actual practice of science in the society, especially in industrial setups like the Mechanic Village, Abakaliki is clear testimony to the science and technical advancement of the Nigeria Society. Nigeria cannot grow scientifically and technologically if science and technology is not made virile. A virile science and technology goes beyond the classroom situations to full scale practice – from the campus to the society that houses such citadels of learning. It must move from classroom to practical setups for it to be fully impactful to the society. Science and technology must go beyond the classroom to the sites of actual application in the society if the Nigerian society must share in its gains for national development.
THE WIDENING GAP – IN BRIEF
Some critical areas lending credence to the widening gap between science and technology in the classroom and the actual practice in the setup will, at a glance show the urgency of taking science and technology beyond the classroom to the society. Therefore, the following are some outcomes in the Mechanic Village, Abakaliki occasioned by the widening gap between the teaching of Science and Technology taught in the classroom and its actual application in the society:

Poor Working Conditioned
Some poor working conditioned occasioned by poor knowledge/application of modern science and technology is as follows:

a. Inadequate Tools
The use of inadequate/outdated/worn tools in the execution of jobs in the workshops lead car owners into unnecessary danger. Most of these technicians use tools of low quality because they cannot afford the high-quality ones to enhance the proper fitting required. A critical consideration of these shows that such is the case because of the level of scientific advancement and the technological know-how of the technicians in the mechanic village. The following basic maintenance activities go on in the mechanic village day by day with these crude tools: Brake Fluid, Engine Oil, Coolant, Power Steering/Transmission Fluid, Battery Fluid & Terminal, Vehicle Lighting, Air Filter, Tyre works, Panel beating, painting, engine works, etc.

Keeping in mind that these basic maintenance practices are on moving objects that make use of the road on daily basis, carrying people, goods and services from one location to another, one must consider that any mechanical fault occasioned by inadequate tools used on vehicles during maintenance may be very fatal to occupants of such moving vehicles as well as the general public who either use the roads also in carrying out their normal activities and business around the roads and on those whose residences are around the roads. Having this in mind must compel every stake holder in the society to actually have a rethink on the plausible connection of increasing rates of accidents on the road usage to the level of maintenance given to vehicles at mechanic sites. The usage of inadequate/outdated tools in present day mechanic works is a direct consequence of the level of scientific and technological education and awareness in the mechanic village.

The above scenario is a compulsive reality that must propel the need for advanced science and technology taught in the classroom to be taught and enforced in setups like the Mechanic Village, Abakaliki in order that vehicle maintenance brings about vehicles that are road worthy and not death traps to its occupants and other road users.

Suffice it to say that automated/computerised vehicle diagnosis and repairs can also be a veritable option in the 21st century for safety vehicular maintenance. Science and technology education must go beyond the classroom to the actual places of application in order that its impact can be fully harnessed and utilised for national development.

b. Inadequate Shades/Shelter/Structures
The world over, nations are getting concerned about global warming and its accompanying high intensity of direct sun rays on living things, especially man and animals. It is no long new that one basic advice to man is to endeavour to shelter himself regularly from the increasing high intensity of the sun, to avoid the dangers thereon. In disregard to this simple precaution, many mechanic outlets are nothing more than tattered shades, some even work under the sun
without any form of shelter, reaping the adverse effects thereof. Little do we wonder how effective jobs can be done on vehicles in such traumatising heat condition of the sun. This again is akin to the poor scientific knowledge possessed by many of these workers and to the general negligence of supervisory authorities to ensure that current best practices are maintained in the setup. This must not be allowed to continue. Science and technology must go beyond the classroom in order for it to be more impactful on the populace.

c. Inadequate Personal Hygiene Practices
In an advancing world where health is key to every action of man, it is often wondered why it becomes difficult to differentiate a lunatic from a mechanic on the road. The principles of personal hygiene are far neglected by a majority of auto technicians in the setup. There is vivid appearance of tattered and worn clothes, dirty clothes stained with oil and not washed for days or even months, exposure to oil and petrol into the body occasioned by the use of the mouth by many to suck oil or petrol from motor parts. It is also not difficult to find mechanics working or walking bare-footed within the setup. More so, the principles of handwashing before eating are often highly neglected thereby exposing many to health hazards occasioned by neglect of simple personal hygiene practices. One may wonder and ask: Do they really know the health implications? Or are they acting against what they know because it seems to be a norm for many in the setup? Regardless of which one is true, it calls for a repositioning of science and technology in the setup through teaching and supervision to ensure that personal hygiene standards are maintained. Continuous negligence on this can only be endangering the setup as well as the housing community to disease outbreak. Scientific knowledge on personal hygiene must go beyond the classroom to such areas to become more impactful.

d. Inadequate attention to precautions/instructions (dependence on apprenticeship training for professionalism)
Scientific and technology educational background holds that every manual/instruction on a product must be read and understood before it is used. Not undermining the fact that most of the personnel in the mechanic village are poorly or not educated at all, yet the culture of reading and writing is critical to all and a ladder on which true application of science and technology can be attained. In an advancing world where science and technology continue to get sophisticated by the day, inability to read and write will adversely affect activities negatively. This has caused a major setback in the setup in that most of the auto technicians are ignorant and not quite familiar with the advancing technological know-how of the trade and as such, pay less attention to instructions; some cannot read and write and so find it difficult referring to instruction manuals – they wholly depend on what they learnt during their periods of apprenticeship. This is not enough in an advancing world where new things are invented/produced on daily basis. Current trend even encourages auto technicians to become digital as most new fittings in modern vehicles will require looking up their operations in the internet before any meaningful job can be done on them. The teaching of science and technology must go beyond the classrooms to this kind of setups for it to actually be more useful to the society.

e. Inadequate attention to health
The poor working conditions bring serious health challenges to auto technicians in the setup. According to Folashade & Osungbade (1996), a questionnaire-based survey was conducted among automobile mechanics and allied technicians in a semi urban city. Three hundred people were interviewed. The questionnaire sought information on health problems associated with work, the presence of chronic illness and where workers seek help when they fall ill. The
interview was followed by an examination of the hands for dermatitis. Musculoskeletal disorders were the commonest work-related health problems reported by respondents. Of the 50 respondents who recorded musculoskeletal disorders, 27 (54%) had low back pain. Seventy-five (25%) of the respondents had signs of hand dermatitis: commonest among panel beaters and welders. Hand dermatitis and musculoskeletal disorders are the predominant health problems among automobile mechanics. Such was the case as far back as then. The situation has not changed today. Mechanics still work with crude tools and bare hands, exposing themselves to health hazards which can be avoided by just simple application of science and technology knowledge and precautions in daily activities. The study conducted by Wilberforce in the same mechanic village, Abakaliki showed that there is high pollution index in the area. According to Wilberforce (2015) based on high pollution indices (PI >1) of As, Cd, Ni and Pb, the presence of these heavy metals pose a risk to the health of the workers in these sections of mechanic village. He advised that if remediation of these toxic metals is not carried out, over a period of time the adverse effect of these toxic metals could become a serious public health concern to the workers there and to the entire hosting community. Science and technology education must go beyond the classroom in order that it can make impact in the society. A repositioned health education in setups like the mechanic village, Abakaliki will be of immense benefit to the society.

**Poor Environmental Conditions in the Setup**

Most obvious among them are the following inherent problems of the setup to the environment due to poor level/application of scientific knowledge and technological know-how in the setup:

- **Pollution occasioned by oil spills**
  Soil is an integral part for plant success. The research by Obini, Okafor and Afiukwa (2013) on the same mechanic village had earlier noted that it is evident from their study that the Abakaliki auto-mechanic site is gradually being contaminated with PAHs (phenanthrenes) arising from indiscriminate disposal of spent crankcase engine oils. They opined that as the city is expanding with more business outlay emerging, recycling and re-use advocacy is being recommended to track the spread of waste oils in the environment, pointing out that the risk associated with the PAHs components of the spent engine oils are grave and needed to be tracked and regularly monitored not only in soils but also in water, air, vegetables and other plants in the area. The extent to how much of this recommendation has been put to use is still a question of concern as not much has been done. This renders the land and water bodies around useless for agricultural purposes. Should there any need for relocation to some other place in future, the soil and water bodies would have been rendered barren for agricultural purposes. It will require a special clean-up if work is not done on time to curb the menace. The teaching and learning science but permeate into this area where it is practiced in order that precautionary measures may be taken to avoid the adverse effects associated with the wrong application/practice of science and technology.

- **Pollution occasioned by improper waste disposal**
  Open waste dump is a land disposal site at which wastes are disposed off in a manner that does not protect the environment, they breed vectors of disease, reduce the aesthetic values of the environment, cause nuisance and produce leachate which infiltrate into the hydrogeological system (Arisi, Esom, Igwe, and Philip, 2015). There are monuments of wastes in the area. Different sources such as garbage’s, spoilt foodstuffs, electronic goods, painting waste, used batteries, spoilt engines, vehicle chassis, seats, tires, tubes, among others constitute the bulk of the wastes discriminatedly disposed off in the mechanic village, Abakaliki. Dumping devoid of
the separation of hazardous waste can further elevate noxious environmental effects. One may actually wonder how much more of waste will be heaped in the area in the next ten years if not checked. Irreparable vehicles, parts, abandoned vehicles and a host of other unusable tools and equipment are packed at different locations in the area. The poor method of dumping and evacuation by waste in the area have made it possible for these wastes to accumulate over time and deteriorate. This has led to the emission of odours and leachates from these dump sites. These monumental wastes not only result to land pollution but also water and air pollution which will pose health challenges to man, animals and plants. A virile practice of science and technology in the area will consider the environment as critical and a stake in all actions. This calls for a proper repositioning of science and technology education in order that it might reach this needed site.

c. Pollution occasioned by chemical deposition

The mechanic village, Abakaliki is not devoid of the use of chemicals in day to day activities. Poor monitoring by special agencies to curtail the kind of chemical used in the setup is a bane to the health of her occupants and that of the hosting community, Abakaliki. The study on Accumulation of Toxic Metals in Soils of Different Sections of Mechanic Village Abakaliki, Nigeria and Their Health Implications has earlier revealed heavy deposition of chemical compounds in the area. According to the researcher, Wilberforce (2015), there is high pollution indices (PI – Pollution Index>1) of As, Cd, Ni and Pb in the area. He noted that the presence of these heavy metals pose a risk to the health of the workers in these sections of mechanic village. He advised that if remediation of these toxic metals is not carried out, over a period of time the adverse effect of these toxic metals could become a serious public health concern to the workers there and to the entire hosting community. Another research work was earlier carried out by Obini, Okafor and Afiukwa (2013) on the mechanic village noted that the results of their study also showed that phenanthrene and benzo[b] fluoranthene PAHs constituted the largest group of compounds with high concentrations in a typical soil sample in the setup contaminated with used engine oils, with the low molecular weight phenanthrene being more dominant with relatively lower concentrations compared to benzo[b]fluoranthene. The posited that it is evident from the results that the soils of Abakaliki auto-mechanic site were contaminated with PAHs at varying concentrations.

Suffice it to say that this metal deposition in the area pollutes not only the land, but the air as well as the water bodies. In times of rain, these metals are washed into water bodies thereby bringing about their accumulation not only in the land but also in the air as well as water bodies connected to the setup. This will definitely have adverse long-term effect if not properly managed as quickly as possible.

In line with the above, a study by Arisi, Esom, Igwe, and Philip (2015) on Evaluation of pollution status of heavy metals in the groundwater system around open dumpsites in Abakaliki Urban, Southeastern Nigeria concluded that the occurrence of various heavy metals such as iron (Fe), nickel (Ni), cadmium (Cd), mercury (Hg), manganese (Mn), lead (Pb) and arsenic (As) as major contaminants in the Abakaliki dumpsites has been established in their research. They recommended that resistivity methods of geophysical survey be carried out in the dumpsites to confirm the presence or absence of an impervious geologic layer underlying the dumpsites as this will assist in confirming whether these pollutants actually migrated vertically down to the groundwater zone or were transported from other areas – like the mechanic village. Science and technology education must go beyond the classroom to the grassroots in order that it will become functional to serve the society in which it is taught.
**d. Pollution occasioned by uncontrolled emissions**

The problem of epileptic power supply in the Nigerian society is no longer news. Consequent on this, all business outlets (small, medium or large scale) depend largely on private power supply for their day to day activities. The use of generating sets to generate power in the mechanic village is general to almost every outlet in the setup. In this regard, emissions are inevitable. Again, the testing and retesting of engines on repairs produces such great and uncontrolled emissions that continue to pollute the atmosphere of the area. Speaking on power matters, The Nigerian Voice (2013) has as headline news - Ebonyi to provide facilities at new mechanic village to support artisans. In the words of the Nigerian Voice, The Commissioner for Commerce and Industry in the state, announced the measure in Abakaliki while addressing members of the Nigeria Automobile Technical Association (NATA), The commissioner… said the state government would provide roads, electricity and water, among others, in the village. He said auto mechanics and other allied vocations were part of the small-scale industries that fast-track the growth of a society and its economy. While the last statement is true, the extent to which these amenities (which includes electricity supply) has been made stable in the setup is still of immense concern.

In a development, The Nation Online (2018) reported that a tragedy struck at the Mechanic village Abakaliki, Ebonyi State capital as more than 15 shops with properties and wares worth millions of naira and about ten vehicles were burnt in an early morning fire. In response to the cause of the fire Christian Enwerem, a victim, narrating his ordeals noted: “We don’t use electricity here, I have generating set to energize my workshop here and I always off it whenever I am through with its use.” This indicating that power was still an issue in the setup as at 2018 and artisans rely solely on their private power generating sets for their day to day activities. In such a situation, emissions cannot be lacking. Where emissions are not lacking, pollution cannot also be lacking.

The above calls for a virile science and technology education in the setup on current best practices to control emissions. Supervisory agencies like the ministry of environment must ensure that these current best practiced are maintained to salvage the ecosystem.

Summing up the above pollutions in auto technician sites, Nkwoada, Alisa and Amakom (2018) stated that the increasing number of malfunctioning automobiles with subsequent increase in emission levels and waste handling is an environmental concern in Nigeria. Accordingly, they stated that the spills from lubricants, gasoline, diesel and by-products of used and spent engine oil constitute the major pollutants in auto mechanic villages in Nigeria. Its environmental pollution has been predominant through soil and groundwater contamination and poses a major anthropogenic threat. In their study, they revealed that the studied heavy metals on contaminated soil showed that studies had focused on common metals of Cu, Cd, Pb and Zn in the east and west regions, while trace metals were studied in the south and radioactive elements in the north. Statistical evaluation showed high occurrences of Cu, Cd, Pb and Zn in the four geo-political zones of Nigeria. The detrimental effects of auto-mechanic village activities were on humans and also disrupted growth and flowering of arable plants. The remediation application showed that soil type and contaminant characteristics play a major role in determining the type of remediation procedure to be applied. Nwite and Ezeaku (2015) further stressed that these contaminations are mainly as a result of anthropogenic activities especially
from automobile servicing and seems to cause heavy metal pollution load in soils around mechanic village. Hence, Nigeria should provide standard repairs and services to automobiles in line with emerging technology and best environmental practices.

**THE SOCIETY AND THE SETUP**

It has earlier been noted that science and technology cannot be practiced outside a society. The extent of science and technology in any given society depend largely on the level of patronage, support and interest from the given society in which it operates. Hence, (Goldman, 1992) pinpoints that science-technology is a social process. In a nutshell, no science or technology can ever exist or be sustained in an ethnic society that has no need for such. Common among these social relationships between the mechanic village and the hosting community are:

**Disregard of Auto Technicians Due to Outlook**

It is of commonplace that you may hardly differentiate most of the technicians from mad men in the streets. They are also dirty, tattered and in rags. This makes the society treat them often as lower class citizens. This accounts for why most of them are often underpaid, even after a laborious effort to fix a vehicle. A repositioned retraining can help them understand the impact of their outlook on their job as auto technicians. As an addendum, structural modification for better working conditions can improve their outlook and make them more presentable.

**Location**

The location of the setup stands to be another major setback from societal patronage. A walk through the town will show that there are countless mini auto technicians workshops scattered around the town. The reason is not far-fetched – the location of the setup is far from the easy reach of populace. In light of this the society basically patronizes the setup only on major repairs. A well-located workshop allows for accessibility and visibility.

**Support and Incentives**

Most auto technicians interviewed have a very low working capital. Some wished they could start spare parts business but cannot do so due to lack of fund. This also implied that most auto technicians’ workshops are of low standard because of low capital base. Many of the technicians established workshops can best be described as oil changing centres. The Government, as well as the general public has not seen the need to support this setup to make it of world class standard for higher revenue generation. There is observable bad road network in the area, occasioned by poor support from the society. Science and technology education must go beyond the classroom in order that it may be meaningful to the society and as well, for the society to fully relate with those who practice it for the solving of their day to day needs, in this wise, auto challenges.

**CONCLUSION**

Science and technology education is critical to nation building. For science and technology to bring about the needed national development, it must go beyond the classroom setting to the actual application areas. Mechanic Village Abakaliki is a viable place for the practice of science and technology. The society (Ebonyi State, Abakaliki precisely) must as a matter of urgency provide the needed support and incentives to turn the setup into a world class industrial centre for employment and revenue generation in the state.
RECOMMENDATIONS
Based on the study, the following recommendations are made:

- Auto technicians in the setup should be educated through the organization of seminars/workshops, exhibitions and the likes for them.
- There should be regular retraining of auto technicians so that they might always be abreast of the ever-changing science and technology.
- Improved health and safety education programmes aimed at eliminating hazardous work practices such as sucking of petrol and poor lifting techniques should be organized for them regularly. This will aid in improving the health and safety of their workforce.
- Government/willing individuals should embark on the development of the mechanic village that should be let out to auto technicians at a subsidized rate.
- However, government should enact laws restraining any auto technician from operating repair centre outside a mechanic village. This will solve some of the problems they are facing on acquisition of land facility and other necessary facilities for their workshops. Such setups should be planned to accommodate improved panel beating, modern painting techniques and digitalised auto electricians as analysis had revealed that when together, their productivity and efficiency are better.
- Also, availability of spare parts and easy access to spare parts market should be taken into consideration when determining the location of such setups.
- The setup should consider ways and means to facilitate the provision of certain expensive facilities required for increased productivity that could be shared for use among the occupant of the setup. This can be easily achieved as people within the same setup can join together to procure expensive equipment and other facilities that are of mutual benefit.

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RESTRUCTURING SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY AND MATHEMATICS EDUCATION (STM) FOR GLOBAL DEVELOPMENT

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ABSTRACT
The need for the inputs of Science, Technology and Mathematics Education (STM) in global development cannot be overemphasized. The world around us is constantly changing and as a result its dynamism, much is expected of the tools necessary to make these changes beneficiary to human lives. As well as the basic things that could help everyone to enjoy the effects of the developments this results from the changes. In view of the needed development in the modern society, there is a need to restructure all the affiliated fields of science disciplines, technologies as well as mathematics education in a form that will help every individual in every society to acquire the needed basic skills through quality education obtainable on the platform of the partnership between concerned teachers, the learners and the learning environment being put into considerations. It is on this note that this chapter focuses on restructuring Science, Technology and Mathematics Education (STM) for global development. Way forward are also made from this chapter which if considered by everyone, every organization and all stakeholders concern will motivate the drive towards restructuring Science, Technology and Mathematics Education for global development.

Keywords: Global development, Mathematics education, Restructuring, Science, & Technology.

INTRODUCTION
Restructuring of Science, Technology and Mathematics Education (STM) is becoming a necessity in the attainment of global development now than in the past. Meeting the needs of the 21st century and beyond calls for more attention to the sensitivities of Science, Technology and Mathematics Education (STM) which are like the quadruplet driving force without which the wheel of development of any nation cannot effectively forge ahead to the next level. Thinking of development is thinking of practical ways of moving the society forward along with the necessary changes for better standard of living because the society is dynamic. This is not limited to tools and equipment for utilities, but the intellectual aspects are also very relevant when it comes to development. We must not forget that these areas of focus are useless without the input of human resources which are very necessary in putting things into use and in the right proportions as expected. Development is a process that gives room for growth, progress and positive changes in a society such that the changes promote the standard of living of the citizens. In any society, every type of development can be categorized under the following:
Global Development, National Development, Human Development and Capital Development. Global development is a combination of every other development which is evident in each society where human beings exist. Both human and capital developments are embedded in global development. However, any type of development is primarily meant to improve the lives of people in the society and to make coordination of administrative duties easier to those in the position of leadership in relation to good governance. This review paper will therefore discuss the following sub-headings with the conceptual framework (figure 1) in the light of the roles of Science, Technology as well as Mathematics Education in Global Development.

**Figure 1: Conceptual Framework**

![Conceptual Framework]

**GLOBAL DEVELOPMENT**
Development is associated with changes in the positive direction for improved standard of living in any society. It is a process that creates growth, progress, positive change or addition of physical, economic, environmental, social and demographic components (Israel, 2018). In the journey to the attainment of global development, every nation has a role to play and every society’s contribution is vital to both the national development and the global development. In global development, no nation or government is solely responsible for the changes that are being expected by all. Every living human being is responsible in one way or the other for making things happen. Individual government or people need to work towards the development by making significant contribution to the general society in which one lives such that every sphere of the society experience positive changes that would be reflected in the social lives of the citizens. Looking at global development, societies that make up the committee of nations contribute to the success of international community at the international summit. One area of
ensuring that development is enforced among nations is through the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) which was introduced by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) in January 2016 to guide the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) in its policy and funding for another one and a half decade which precisely focused 2030 as the expected year for its attainments and possible date of review. Going down the story lane and back to the origin of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), it is evident that the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) was introduced to sustain the pursuit of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) which was a United Nations programme adopted by world leaders in the year 2000. This programme was intended to assist the realization of the proposed eight (8) points agenda designed for year 2015 as the proposed year of its full attainment. The outline of the eight (8) points agenda are:

1. Eradication of extreme poverty and hunger
2. Achievement of universal primary education
3. Promotion of gender equality and women empowerment
4. Reduction of child mortality
5. Improvement in maternal health
6. Combating HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases
7. Ensuring environmental sustainability

Considering the stated eight (8) point agenda of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), not all the member nations of the UN could attain it at the deadline of 2015. This gave birth to a set of another agenda for another 15 years starting from year 2016 to 2030 all in the pursuit of global development tagged as Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). The agenda are further broken down into seventeen (17) instead of the initial eight (8) outlined in the MDGs, for easy achievements and realistic measure of its attainments as follows:

1. No poverty
2. Zero hunger
3. Good health and well-being
4. Quality education
5. Gender equality
6. Clean water and sanitation
7. Affordable and clean energy
8. Decent work and economic growth
9. Industry, innovation and infrastructures
10. Reduced inequalities
11. Sustainable cities and communities
12. Responsible consumption and production
13. Climate action
14. Life below water
15. Life on land
16. Peace justice and strong institutions
17. Partnerships for the goals (United Nations Department of Public Information, 2019)

The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) aimed at working out an end to poverty as well as protecting the planet for human’s peace, security and prosperous livelihood. This calls for conscious efforts by all heads of governments to work out modalities that will ensure its full
attainments even as we approach the targeted year of its realization. There is however a need for every society to workout strategies and modalities based on each locality that formed each nation to adopt a collaborative means of partnerships with experts in the fields of science, technology, engineering and mathematics education to device strategies that will ensure the attainment of these goals.

SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY, MATHEMATICS EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT

The development in Science, Technology, Mathematics Education are development which start from the grassroots include intellectual development, industrial development, structure development and changes which could be visible in terms of provision of social amenities for better standard of living of all people in such localities. In order to ensure a lasting development at the grassroots, Science, Technology and Mathematics Education (STM) must be employed. This is very important especially due to the roles played by these aspects of knowledge in the recent time across the world and in complimenting human efforts in getting things done within the shortest time possible and at greater outputs coupled with alarming accuracies.

Mathematics is an aspect of knowledge which spans across other fields being discussed in this piece. The knowledge of mathematics is needed to be able to gain the needed skills in science and technology. The core of mathematics is in numbers, symbols and signs being used to represent quantities needed in the acquisition of the skills and the knowledge for other mathematics related disciplines. Mathematics helps in logical and abstract thinking, problem solving and precisions in terms of its applications to science, technology and engineering. This shows that mathematics is a discipline that is found everywhere and is being used every day and every time by everyone due to the interrelatedness of mathematics with science and technology at all levels of learning in the school system. It is usually being referred to as the language, tool and queen of other sciences needed in all areas of daily life (Ugwuda, 2014). Everyone speaks the language of mathematics at one time or the other when making reference to time, size, discussing lengths of which distance from one place to the other is a part, arranging things in order of importance, measuring quantities and describing shapes of phenomenon among other utilitarian values of mathematics in relation to other disciplines. The knowledge of other sciences and non-science disciplines cannot be complete in isolation to mathematics. This is to say that no mathematics, no science and where there is no science, modern technology cannot take place, hence modern society can never occur in the absence of modern technology (Augie, 2013).

The practice that encourages the impartation and acquisition of the knowledge of mathematics through trained personnel in schools is mathematics education. It is an art of teaching and learning of mathematical skills that facilitates the learning of needed skills in learning other subjects. The knowledge gotten through the input of Mathematics education forms a vital back ground for science, technology and engineering which are directly needed for the development of the societies. The language of mathematics is widely used in all areas of human endeavours such as in the market places, in politics, economics, health sectors, by the elites as well as the uneducated individuals for transacting daily businesses.

The Federal Government in the National Policy on Education (2013) spelt out the goals of mathematics teaching in Nigeria and part of these aims to:

i. provide technical skills for self-reliance in agricultural science, industry and economic development;
ii. provide well trained individuals capable of thinking independently, rationally and having respect for others views as well as dignity of labour;

iii. provide trained manpower in the applied sciences, technology, engineering related disciplines at sub professional trade and business for lifelong learning particularly at crafts, advanced crafts and technical levels;

iv. give training and impart the necessary skills to individuals who shall be self-reliant economically;

v. inspire students with a desire for self-improvement and achievement of excellence;

vi. offer diversified curriculum that will cater for the differences in talents, disposition, opportunities and for future roles;

vii. foster patriotism, national unity and security education with emphasis on the common ties in spite of our diversity;

viii. develop and promote Nigerian languages, arts and culture in the context of world economy; and

ix. encourage individuals with basic certificate with the opportunity to work and contribute to the national and global economy through entrepreneurial, technical and vocational job for sustainable development.

These listed goals are expected to be achievable through mathematics education which is the pivot on which other fields that aid development hinges on. It also proves the reason why mathematics is made to be a compulsory subject at the primary and secondary schools in Nigeria.

Science is a method of discovery with empirical evidence(s). It is the study that makes finding about the existence and non-existence of things around the globe. The basis of science is in conducting of experiments to be able to assert its reality which could be subjected to reliability verifications by other scientists. Science has come a long way in detecting some ailments, their causes, prevention(s), cure and conditions necessary for their existence. Science subjects in school curriculum include Biology, Chemistry, Physics and Mathematics. Other fields of science include medicine, agriculture, engineering, architecture, information and communication and many science related disciplines. Among these subjects, mathematics is taking the lead row due to its relevance in the other sciences. Science is characterized by specificity, measurable outcome and can be reproduced for verifications by other scientists under similar conditions from time to time using means of controls.

Technology however is an application of scientific knowledge to produce equipment and tools useful to the society. It is an art, skill or ability which is used to create and develop products and acquire knowledge (Tutorials point, 2018). Science gives birth to technology. Technology is more of the applications of the ideas of science adopted to make life easy in terms of speed, accuracy, energy preservations and mass reproductions of materials outside human effort. An aspect of technology that deals with material design, production and maintenance of useful devices whose purpose of production is to increase our efficacy in the world and brings us enjoyment is engineering. It is the creative application of scientific principles to design, develop and construct technological devices that enrich lives of human being for ease, speed and for comfort. Technology is viewed as a practice that proffer solutions to human material problems through the inputs of engineers such that technology is being managed and maintained by engineers in making sure that technology is working. Examples of technologies are bottle or can openers, microwave ovens, electronic mixers used in homes and many appliances that ease human daily activities are technologies. Technology drives the world while engineers maintain the technology and improves it to be able to drive further (Bounsana, 2017).
This is to say that technology is a field managed by engineers and when we talk about technology we are indirectly talking about engineering. However, in order to clarify doubts about the relatedness of technology and engineering, some universities in Nigeria named the faculties of engineering as the faculty of technology or faculty of engineering and technology as the case may be. The learning practices in all these faculties of engineering and technologies are the same. Also, courses of study in engineering or in technologies in these higher institutions of learning are the same. Some could be civil engineering, electrical engineering, mechanical engineering, agricultural engineering, computer engineering petroleum engineering and lots more divisions and classification of engineering are all grouped as fields of technology. One can equally say that engineering is embedded in technology. This sums up why this chapter will dwell more on technology as a single term that talks about engineering and technology. According to Roberts (2016), we can infer that, science knows, while technology/engineering is applying what is found or discovered by science (Science and technology online, 2018).

RESTRUCTURING SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY AND MATHEMATICS EDUCATION (STM)
Restructuring Science, Technology and Mathematics Education (STM) is simply talking about restructuring Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics Education (STM) for global development. It was earlier mentioned that technology is managed by engineers and as such, talking about technology is an indirect way of talking about engineering and technology or vice versa. In a nutshell, science, engineering and technology are interrelated such that, science finds out how and why things work, engineering applies the knowledge of science and mathematics to invent or manufacture things with the creative ideas of technology using new techniques, skills and methods to create goods and services (Lewis, 2017). Restructuring is a phenomenon that suggests that some things need to be adjusted as the world tends towards development. It also indicates that there is a gap to be filled in order to reach our goals based on the world standard and expectations in achieving our targets. The idea of restructuring comes to mind when there are sectors of a society or an area in an organization calling for management attentions in order to attain certain goals. Every aspect of human lives and endeavours needs to be revisited at one time or the other. This becomes necessary in the course of evaluating or appraising how the planning is being implemented. In other cases, when organizations consider it necessary to amend the existing structures from status quo, it becomes necessary to “shift grounds” and put in places the modalities for the attainment of the expected standards among groups.

Considering Nigeria for example among committee of nations, it is not a false that Nigeria is being considered as a developing nation. The areas needed to be visit are Science, Technology and Mathematics Education (STM). This becomes vital in today’s world when the world itself is becoming a global village. Science, Technology and Mathematics Education (STM) makes the world to look very small whereby you do not need to travel or leave your location before you get information about things going on across the globe. Science, Technology and Mathematics Education (STM) has done much in connecting everyone to the outside world and getting updates of the developments and inventions being done or carried out among host of other nations. It is however necessary to come down to our society and put in place whatever needs to be done to get enlisted among those nations that are pulling their weight in the area of Science, Technology and Mathematics Education (STM).
Science, Technology and Mathematics Education need to be restructured in every developing nation in order to reach the expected height in development. Considering the level of development in Nigeria for example, the level of development in science and technology is below the world standard. This is evident in terms of the modern medical facilities needed to take care of certain ailments which due to its non-availability within the country cost extra fund to travel out for medical attention. Another example is in respect of automobiles being used by many Nigerian. It is not a tale that the country imports more used cars than brand new ones. One can easily infer that countries where these cars are being brought from are using this means to dispose those outdated cars in order to create space for new and technologically improved ones. One would have expected that Nigeria should be able to launch her brand of cars by now instead of importing used ones, but the level of technology needed to venture into such project is not currently available. Some other areas where evidences of development are not pronounced are, in agriculture where mechanized farming is still a dream, food processing technology to preserve many of the annually wasted farm products, explorations of natural resources, production of reliable railway transportation for easy of traveling for people and goods across long distances and lots more that technology can offer. This is one of the reasons why restructuring is the solution to the field of science, technology and mathematics education as means to global development.

Haven mentioned earlier in this write up that mathematics is vital in science and technology, it is necessary to look into how mathematics knowledge can be improved upon through the tool of mathematics education. On this note, the followings are to be applied in attaining global development through science, technology and mathematics education.

1. More teachers needed to be encouraged to enroll for mathematics education as a discipline that focuses on the teaching of mathematics. This will allow mathematics teachers ratio to the number of students or pupils to be manageable based on the government and the ministry of Education of students-teacher ratio of 18:1. This is necessary seeing that most of Nigerian public schools are having few number of mathematics teachers such as having one teacher to teach seventy or more students in a congested classroom.

2. More emphasis to be based on the needed knowledge in terms of the topics that are directly related to their applications in science and technology. This is not to say that students will not be exposed to topics that less related in their applications to science and technology, but the period assigned to teach applied topics will be more so that mastery of such topics will be easy for students.

3. Creativity and innovations by mathematics and science teachers is also encouraged to be adopted. This can best be achieved when teachers are mindful of the future outcome of their inputs and intellectual investment into their students. Every teacher is a molder of great talents. The students are like any raw material undergoing processing. They are the transcripts of teachers’ academic inputs which will be read by all who come in contact with them in either the near future or in later life. Creative and innovative investment in these future world changers will produce a lasting dividend of technologically inclined individuals.

4. Every school should be equipped with mathematics laboratory equipment so that the teaching and learning of mathematics will be more of practical based than theory full of rote learning. The idea of “what I hear, I forget; What I see, I remember; and What I do, I can practice” is a statement to look into for a viable results in the teaching and learning of mathematics.
5. Consistent retraining of mathematics and science teachers should be given a priority by the government. This is necessary to help mathematics and science teachers update their knowledge on the teaching methodology and the use of modern technologies that could aid the learning of mathematics at all levels of education.

6. Schools authorities and the educational authorities should discourage the appointment of untrained teachers to teach mathematics and other sciences as much as possible. However, those who are already employed should make it a point of duty to enroll for in-house teachers training course in order to get the needed knowledge and skills for certification in teaching.

7. The use of ICT equipment should be encouraged by every school for both the classroom teaching and learning process and for individual learning. The use of individualized instructions should be emphasized and be encouraged.

8. It is also worth noting that mathematics and science teachers should be given more incentives in order to encourage them in their efforts in schools. This is a necessary point to consider due to the fact that in many schools whether at the primary or secondary school levels, only few teachers are available to teach all students since mathematics is a general subject. Whereas, other subjects such as economics, accounting and other electives are not general for all to register for or to attend.

9. Mathematics should also be made relevant to the need of the society and to individual life endeavour in terms of its applications to day to day human activities. This can be achieved by developing certain topics related to the application of mathematics skills which could be spread across all the mathematics curricula in each level of education.

**RELEVANT AREAS TO BE CONSIDERED FOR RESTRUCTURING STM**

**Innovative Curriculum (IC)**

Innovative curriculum is the type of curriculum that is innovative in approach, that is, creative, cohesive and dynamic which will engage all learners. It focuses more on the psychomotor domain than the cognitive and affective domains. This will help the learners more in the creative intelligence than the knowledge intelligence. Currently, the curriculum is more of knowledge intelligence but there is a paradigm shift in teaching-learning activities. Curriculum represents the total experiences to which all learners must be exposed to attain the projected outcome of learners at every level of education and as well prepare learners adequately for the next level of education (Oludotun, 2018).

The following sections can be identified in the National Curriculum, namely:

i. the topic  
ii. the performance objectives  
iii. the contents of the topic  
iv. the expected activities of both the teacher and the learner  
v. teaching-learning materials  
vi. evaluation guide

The National Curriculum indicates the minimum content to be taught but it is expected of the teachers to be creative and innovative to enrich the content with relevant instructional materials and information from the learners’ immediate environment while adapting the curriculum to learners’ needs and aspiration. The world is dynamic hence the curriculum has to be reviewed regularly reflecting the new things and all stake holders like the industries, and users (teachers, school administrators) has to be involved in the reviewing of the curriculum.
Innovative Teaching Strategies (ITS)
An innovative teaching strategy is the approach a teacher makes use of in handling the subject matter to be taught. Often times in Nigeria, teaching-learning activities has been more of mere chalk and board without meeting the learners’ needs. No wonder many learners memorize concepts being taught for the purpose of passing tests and examinations. This could have been a major point in the high rate of learners’ examination failure in both internal and external examinations.

Innovative teaching strategies are designed to challenge and engage students while teaching. Learners’ engagement will show some level of degree of learners’ attention, curiosity, interest, optimism, and passion during the teaching-learning activities which extends to the level of motivation towards learning. When learners get engage with the subject matter being taught, there is likelihood of learning and retaining better.

There are many innovative teaching strategies that could take learners to the high level of engagement and challenge that he/she never thought of having before the commencement of the teaching-learning activities. Davis (2017) discussed five innovative teaching strategies that can engage learners in the class. These includes; Inquiry-Based Learning (IBL), Quick Response Codes (QRC), Project-Based Learning (PBL), Wisely Managed Classroom Technology (WMCT), and Jigsaws (JS).

Each of the techniques as explained by Davis, use strategies in which learners can ask questions, carry out research and make use of technology to create from provided materials. These techniques permit learners to solve problem with little or no assistance by the teachers, and present findings to schoolmates (Davis, 2017).

Conducive Learning Environment (CLE)
Conducive learning environment is favourable and serene surrounding where teaching-learning activities can take place for effective learning and skill development. It is an environment where learners are more likely to be task-oriented and reflective, and hence more likely to engage in higher thinking. Conducive learning environment has to do with the location of the school where it is noise free, availability of ICT tools and interactive board, availability of instructional materials for teaching, well equipped library, enough and well-ventilated classrooms, well equipped laboratories, and other school facilities to mention few. Conducive learning environment should be clean and comfortable, and free from foul odors or noise. It should at the same time not so comfortable that would be enticing learners to sleep or nap. Conducive learning environment can prevent learners’ behavior issues as well as promote and improve learning. Conducive learning environment does not exhaust with the afore-mentioned but also include a well-arranged classroom or the physical layout of the classroom.

Zpeke and Leach (2010) averred that the learning environment, however, goes beyond the layout and facilities of the classroom. It also includes teacher’s relationship with learners. Although there is little or no control over the physical layout, resources and facilities but there could be much control over the learning climate of the classroom. Researchers asserted that learners become more engaged within a supportive learning environment where teachers respect learners and appreciate their responses towards learning (Dallimore, Hertenstein & Platt, 2004; Mottet, Martin & Myers, 2004).
Professionalism in Teaching (PIT)
Teaching is a process of inducing learning or imparting knowledge. It is a process by which a teacher guides the learners or helps learners to acquire knowledge, skills, competences or values for a period of time to fulfil potentials. Professionalism is the mien, qualities, or attributes that characterize or mark a profession or a professional person. Professionals are known for specialized knowledge and skills having the degrees and certifications that serve as the foundation of the acquired knowledge and skills. Apart from being known for specialized knowledge, professionals get the job done with the touch of an expertise. There is no profession without a governing body to monitor the interest and professional conduct of its members. For teaching profession in Nigeria, the professional governing bodies are Nigerian Union of Teachers (NUT) and Teachers Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN).

Professionalism in teaching is an underrated quality that every teacher must possess. Key components of professionalism include: building and sustaining good relationships with the learners first, school administrator, parents, and the school community; to maintain and provide the appropriate environment necessary to achieve the stated goals and objectives of the school to mention few. It is just unfortunate that so many schools still parade the schools with non-professional teachers which always reflect on the delivery methods, evaluating styles and record-keeping strategies. Every profession is guided with ethics. Professional code of ethics is a guiding principles designed to assist professionals conduct work with commitment, dedication, sincerity, honesty, and with integrity (Sherpa, 2018). Professional code of ethics plays a central role in developing the personality and behaviour of the teachers. It will expedite and guide the teachers towards successful and meaningful teaching. Kramer (2003) categorized elements of professionalism into three; attitude, behavior and communication.

Parental Involvement (PI)
Parental involvement is the level of participation of parents when it comes to schooling of their wards, kids or children. Researchers have averred that parental involvement is proportional to the academic performance of students (Byran, 2005 & Cole, 2017).
Parental involvement includes; setting goals with children and nurturing achievement of those goals; accessing and using children’s academic scores to ensure they’re on pathway; frequently viewing the parent portal (or whichever tool the school uses); developing a relationship with teachers and keeping in touch regularly; asking questions from the teachers or the school administrators when necessary and advocating and supporting for improvements in the school building and the resources they need to provide a world class education to every student among others. The most significant type of involvement is what parents do at home, by monitoring daily the activities at school, encouraging and developing positive self-talk in the kids/children. Parental involvement can reduce the negative peer influence on children.

Students (Interest, Readiness)
Students are the learners to be taught by the teacher. Learners’ interest and readiness to learn cannot be overemphasized when it comes to effective learning. Many times, learners can have the interest to learn and might not be ready for learning. In Nigeria, some parents rush their kids or children education by enrolling them to school as early as one year or two years when the children need the home education. Parents push or shift their responsibilities to school when the children are not ready to learn. Also, teachers sometimes neglect or do not put the interest of the learners into consideration when teaching. Learners’ interest and readiness could make teaching-learning activities less difficult but more interesting.
Learners’ readiness to learning is quite different from the ability or intellectual aptitude. Learners’ readiness is the entry point which is relative to a particular concept or skill at a specific time. There are so many factors that could be responsible to learners’ readiness such as pain, fatigue, anxiety, fear, or lack of learning materials to work on to mention few. For instance, a learner without textbook or workbook is not ready for any concept to be taught in the class or a learner who left home with emotional imbalances cannot be ready to learn for at least the first/second period in school unless the teacher is able to identify the issue and assist the poor learner. Learners’ emotional state can shape how well and much learning takes place.

It is worth noting that learners learn more easily when there is readiness or desire to learn, and conversely, learners learn with difficulty when there is no interest in the concept being taught. Learning can be effective when learners have the feeling of satisfaction, and sometimes when some kind of reward is attached.

Teachers (Mentoring and Role Model)
A teacher is an individual who knows more than and impart knowledge to learners. Teachers play a vital and significant role in the educational process to impart education and bring about needed changes in the behaviour of the learners. There two types of teacher, cheater and teacher. A cheater is an individual who has not acquired the right training to teach but because of some unpleasant situations found him/herself in the teaching profession. And some people develop interest in teaching profession after graduating from another discipline. Such an individual might not likely have the delivery strategies that could lead to an effective teaching. On the other hand, a teacher is someone who has passed through a designed training for a specific period or has fulfilled at least the minimum organized teacher-training requirements for teaching. Having gone through the training, a teacher is expecting to develop and center on the critical elements of attitudes, behavior and communication for good relationship with the learners. A cheater sees teaching as a job while a teacher sees teaching as a calling. Teachers are the most important factor in determining the quality of education that learners received (Oredein & Awodun, 2013).

Enormous responsibilities are placed upon teachers’ shoulder, hence, the need to realise and understand the teaching profession. Some of the responsibilities are to be a mentor and role model to learners. All these play important role in learners’ character formation and in fulfilling the desired goals. Teachers provide children with a basic but indispensable moral education. So, teachers should focus on providing the right path and guidance to students to make them well behaved individuals, and inculcate good attitude within them (Benninga, 2003).

Sherpa (2018) discussed some significant professional code of ethics for teachers that will assist in educating learners efficiently and effectively:
1. Awareness of roles and responsibilities, giving learners maximum opportunities to excel in diverse aspects of development, active service with happiness and satisfaction.
2. Having a definite vision on how to help learners fulfil their needs, requirements and aspirations by being precise about every action in their educational process.
3. Creating and building cordial and reverential relationships with learners and all the stakeholders of schools.
4. Making the class so interactive as much as possible.
5. Avoiding being biased while imparting and evaluating the learners’ performance related with academic and co-curricular activities.
Positive Peer Influence (PPI)
Peer influence is the direct pressure or social influence exerted on an individual by peers that can change attitudes, values, behavior to conform to those of the influencing group or individual and this could be positive or negative. Positive peer influence is when an individual’s peer influence to do something positive or for growth building. Researchers have established that peers have a direct influence on adolescent’s risk behaviours and academic performance (Tomé, Matos, Diniz, 2008 & Piko, Hamvai, 2010). Response to peer pressure is unavoidable because it part of human nature. Some learners can are more likely to give in and others are better to resist which could be due to so many factors like; learners’ upbringing, family status, home environment to mention few. Peer influence is can be more pronounced in learners when he/she is independent that is away from home or parents.

CONCLUSION
Development is not a sudden phenomenon but a process which has a starting point that could be sustained if every necessary input is made available. It is not a tale that there are nations of the world that are still struggling to cub poverty and employment. Things can really take a new and progressive turn if the right measures are put in place. Also, if the relevant areas discussed above are revisited and restructured then global development can be realized. The government and all concerned could work towards contributing to global development when the right approach is used to make the world a better place for all to live, work and be fulfilled.

WAY FORWARD
The following are hereby suggested:
1. More emphasis should be placed on professionalism in teaching hence, cheaters who claimed to be teachers should be encouraged to enroll for a short-term teacher training to improve the delivery strategies.
2. More emphasis to be based on the needed knowledge in terms of the topics that are directly related to their applications in science and technology;
3. Every school should have a well-equipped science laboratories with current equipment so that the teaching-learning activities will be more of practical based than theory full of rote learning;
4. Consistent training and retraining of mathematics and science teachers should be given a priority to update their knowledge on the teaching strategies and use of modern technologies that could aid learning at all levels of education;
5. Only qualify mathematics and science teachers should be employed to teach in all schools;
6. The use of ICT equipment or tools like the use of an interactive board should be encouraged by every school for both the classroom teaching-learning process and for individual learning;
7. The use of individualized instructions should be emphasized and be encouraged;
8. All stakeholders are to be involved when curriculum is to be reviewed
9. All schools should be made conducive for learning as much as possible.
10. Mathematics and science teachers should be given more incentives to encourage and increase job satisfaction and performance; and
11. Parents to get more involved in their kids or children academic pursuit by buying textbooks, and other necessary things for learning. Also, monitoring their children’ school work and behavior.
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PART 5
WOMEN & GIRLS/GENDER
5.1

POSITIONING WOMEN AND GIRLS IN AFRICA FOR SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT IN THE LIGHT OF THE CONTINENTAL EDUCATION STRATEGY FOR AFRICA 2016 – 2025

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ABSTRACT
Most Sub-Saharan states have made national, regional and global commitments to gender equality in education and to the availability of high-quality and safe education for all. However, education of girls and women in Sub-Saharan Africa still meets many challenges. Working within the ambit of the global SDGs 4 and 5, the vision of AU Agenda 2063 and the tenets of CESA 16-25 this chapter focuses on approaches of how FAWE and its like-minded partners will continue to push for the gender equity and equality agenda in Sub-Saharan Africa. Continual investing in education and life-long learning for women and girls in Africa remains valid and paramount in realizing the Africa we want. Taking a holistic approach to women and girl’s education in Africa is recommended. There is need for tremendous commitment by everyone involved – from governments, donors and international organizations to civil society organizations, school authorities, teachers, students and their families. Innovative partnerships as well as deliberate commitment and endeavour to address the challenge of accurate data are discussed. The Gender Equality Strategy for CESA 16-25 is advocated as one of its important reference materials for addressing all the 12 strategic objectives of CESA16-25.

1.0 INTRODUCTION
Education is the path that can lead to full participation of all individuals in the activities necessary for the development of a nation. Education is synonymous to power and is the road map to all possibilities (Sulaiman, 2013). The African Union Commission (AUC) Agenda 2063 framework defines the envisioned socio-economic transformation of the continent in the next 50 years. Generally, it seeks to transform Africa and put a phase of peace and security, social integration, democracy and assured sustainable livelihood options across the globe. Education is a fundamental pillar if the Africa’s dream were to be a reality, an element which is underscored not only by UN Agenda 2030 but also the Sustainable Development Goal 4. To better respond to dynamic education demands, AUC developed a ten-year Continental Education Strategy for Africa 2016 – 2025 (CESA 16-25). The strategy seeks to transform the education system in Africa into one that will provide the continent with efficient human resources capable of achieving the vision and ambitions of the African Union.

For sustainability, the education programme planning design seeks to reorient Africa’s education and training systems to ensure that it integrates transformative learning. Specifically, the focus is to ensure the system meets the knowledge, competencies, skills, innovation and creativity required to nurture African core values and promote sustainable development at the national, sub-regional and continental levels. The success of the process is an assured move
given the potentials with the continent specifically the demographic dividend and the resource base. For instance, by 2055, the continent’s youth population (aged 15-24), is expected to double from 226 million (UNDP, 2017). The continent’s population is estimated to grow from 1.2 billion to 2.2 billion people between 2015 and 2050. About 41% of the people in the continent are below 15 years old while another 19% are youth between 15 and 24 years old (African Institute for Development Policy). Notably, more than 50% of Africa’s population is women, and more than 80% of these reside in rural areas (CSW, 2018).

If proper investments are made in health and education and there is an enabling economic environment for decent jobs and investments, this demographic dividend can be a stimulus for an empowered Africa through sustained and accelerated economic development (African Institute for Development Policy, 2018).

Three of the guiding principles of CESA 16-25 are important for reflection and consideration in this paper. These are (1), that the knowledge societies called for by Agenda 2063 are driven by skilled human capital, (2) a holistic, inclusive and equitable education with good conditions for lifelong learning is absolutely necessary for sustainable development and (3) quality and relevant education, training and research are core for scientific and technological innovation, creativity and entrepreneurship. Nonetheless, there are key questions that come to mind when addressing education of women and girls in Africa. Where is the African woman and girl today? Is she equipped to effectively participate in the dynamic and challenging world that she finds herself in? Is she claiming her stake in contributing to the Africa we want? Is her full potential has been realized? These questions come at a time when the world is changing fast, spurred by innovation, globalization and increasing human mobility. At the same time, it is adversely impacted by climate change and diverse humanitarian crises that impact heavily especially on women and girls. Whether the issue is improving education in the developing world, or fighting global climate change, or addressing nearly any other challenge we face, empowering women remains critical part of the equation as accentuated by Former President Bill Clinton addressing the annual meeting of the Clinton Global Initiative in September 2009.

2.0 CHALLENGES FACING GIRLS AND WOMEN EDUCATION IN SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA.

Most Sub-Saharan states have made national, regional and global commitments to gender equality in education and most have pledged to ensure an end to gender inequality in education and to the availability of high-quality and safe education for all girls and boys. In fact, there has been considerable expansion in providing education to girls and boys over the past 20 years even in the poorest countries. However, education of girls and women in Africa still meets many challenges. Some of the persisting challenges include:

2.1 Education Exclusion: According to data from the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) 2018 about 263 million children and youth are out of school worldwide. This includes 61 million children of primary school age, 60 million of lower secondary school age and 142 million of upper secondary school age. Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) has the highest rates of education exclusion. Over one-fifth of children between the ages of about 6 and 11 are out of school, followed by one-third of youth between the ages of about 12 and 14. Furthermore, almost 60% of youth between the ages of about 15 and 17 are not in school. Rural primary school-aged children are twice as likely to be out of school compared to their urban counterparts; while only 23% of poor rural girls complete their primary education in SSA (Beijing20.UNWomen). The situation is likely to worsen as the region faces a rising demand
for education due to a still-growing school-age population. Across the region, 9 million girls between the ages of about 6 and 11 will never go to school at all, compared to 6 million boys (UIS, 2018). Their disadvantage starts early as 23% of girls are out of primary school compared to 19% of boys. By the time they become adolescents, the exclusion rate for girls is 36% compared to 32% for boys. Young people especially females living in the rural areas face particularly bigger challenges resulting from early motherhood, low education qualification culminating to limited livelihood (job) options. This indeed is a barrier to “inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all” as per the SDG 4.

2.2 Poverty: This is one of the major barriers to efforts aimed at tapping into girls and women education potential and economic contributions. In SSA, only 65 of the poorest children for every 100 of the richest go to school according to GEM Report analysis at the same time for every 100 boys in lower secondary schools only 85 age girls. On the other hand, at upper secondary school level, only 77 of the poorest girls for every 100 of the poorest boys attend. In Northern Africa, Western Asia and Southern Asia, the number rises to 90 of the poorest for every 100 of the richest. Undoubtedly girls are more likely never to set foot in a classroom than boys despite all the efforts made over the past two decades. According to UIS data, 15 million girls of primary-school age will never get the chance to learn how to read or write compared to about 10 million boys. Over half of these girls live in sub-Saharan Africa (UIS, 2018).

2.3 Low Literacy: Literacy rates among youth and adults are the test of an educational system. Globally, the youth literacy rate increased from 83 per cent to 91 per cent over the last two decades, while the number of illiterate youth declined from 170 million to 115 million (UIS, 2014). Regional and gender disparities persist, however. Literacy is lowest in least developed countries and higher among males than females. In the most recent years for which data are available, young women accounted for 59 per cent of the total illiterate youth population (UIS, 2017). About 60 per cent of the countries and areas for which data are available have eradicated or nearly eradicated illiteracy among youth (UNICEF, 2018). Moreover, in several countries in West and Central Africa, youth literacy rates remain below 50 per cent. These are countries that have struggled to increase school enrolment at both primary and secondary levels. However, even when universal primary education is within reach, some countries, such as Malawi and Zambia, show low youth literacy rates (UNICEF, 2018). This suggests that enrolment as well as retention in school is important, as is the quality of education. In Niger for example the Gender parity index (ratio of the number of literate female youth to the number of literate male youth) is 0.44, meaning that there are 44 literate women for every 100 literate men (UIS, 2015) based on survey data for the most recent year available during the period 2005 – 2013.

2.4 Low participation of women and girls in Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) careers

The proportion of women pursuing degrees in STEM is very small on the global scale and even more so in Africa. According to statistics released by the UNESCO Institute for Statistics, Women worldwide pursuing careers in science are only 28%, and just 30% of professionals in the sciences in Sub-Saharan Africa are women. These statistics bring to light the huge gap between women and men pursuing careers in STEM. The reason for this poor show is attributed to the masculinity wrongly attributed to the disciplines, stereotypes and associated prejudices. In Kenya for example, participation in STEM shows a clear gender disparity of between 30 and 35 per cent ( ). Few Kenyan women enroll and even fewer complete their studies in STEM-
opting for other courses. Upon graduation, women score lower grades compared to their male counterparts, a situation common in other developing countries as well. It is for these reasons that the number of women earning university degrees in STEM keeps declining as they move up the educational ladder, a phenomenon known as “the leaky pipeline”.

Why does STEM matter for Africa’s girls and women? There is no evidence that girls are less capable in these fields, but it is rather a perception, and stereotypes labeled on them worsened by culture as defined by the patriarchal society. Secondly, STEM jobs generally pay better meaning that the low representation of women in these careers contributes to the gender salary gap. Thirdly, a shortage of women in these fields means fewer female role models for both the current female workforce in STEM and for the young girls still making career choices. Lastly, what about the anticipated growth of STEM careers which is expected to steadily rise - the rewarding positions of STEM in the AUC’s Agenda 2063, CESA 15-26 and country specific aspirations such as the Kenya’s Vision 2030? Girls and women should prepare adequately to reap the benefit of being in STEM. Indeed, I dare say the future is STEM.

3.0 OPPORTUNITIES AND SELECTED EFFORTS TOWARDS IMPROVING EDUCATION AND TRAINING OF GIRLS AND WOMEN IN AFRICA

3.1 The Gender Equality Strategy for CESA 16-25: After extensive consultation and research, commissioned by FAWE and the African Union International Centre for Girls and Women’s Education in Africa (AU/CIEFFA) the Gender Equality Strategy for CESA 16-25 was developed. This was through a highly participatory process involving the following partners: the UN Girls’ Education Initiative (UNGEI), UNESCO IICBA, UNICEF ESARO, and Civil Society Organizations through the Gender Is My Agenda Campaign (GIMAC). The objectives of the Gender Equality Strategy for CESA 16-25 are (1) to ensure all learners especially the historically excluded and those in emerging challenging circumstances are assisted in achieving their full potential, with regards to access, participation and learning outcomes and (2) that education policy makers, planners, managers and teachers understand the implications of their interactions on the teaching and learning process. The strategy provides guidance on how African member states may purposefully create, grow and develop young women and men for the Leadership Agenda on promoting gender equality and inclusion in and through education, with special focus on advancing girls’ education in STEM; facilitating learning in emergency situations, responding to the emerging need for Technology, Habitat and Climate change. The strategy further provides guidance and direction on how Education leaders and managers may best integrate Gender Equality in the agenda of creating and growing female and male leaders for African Education Systems’ Management development and monitoring and evaluation. Gender issues and considerations run through all the twelve strategic objectives of CESA. The CESA strategic objectives can successfully be achieved only if gender issues are completely integrated into each of them. It is imperative therefore, that the cluster on girls and women education have representation in all the other CESA clusters and at all levels of education to make their products gender sensitive and responsive. Ministries of Education in member countries through FAWE are the biggest partners in the education of girls and women. This avails opportunities for making of policies relating to inclusive education as well as other areas in governments where gender needs to be given due diligence.

While appreciating differentials in member states’ development levels, resource availability and technical capacity to mainstreaming gender in the national education strategies, plans and
programmes, the Gender Equality Strategy defines minimum standards that member states should meet to ensure gender is integrated in each of the 12 strategic objectives of CESA 16-25. Furthermore, the GES gives an illuminating view on conceptualizing Gender Equality for CESA 16-25, holistic view on Strategic thrust towards gender equality. It is therefore paramount that all the CESA Clusters embrace the Gender Equality Strategy for CESA 16-25 as one of its important reference materials.

Africa’s universities should be at the centre of re-orienting their activities to Agenda 2063. There is need for these universities to step in and popularize CESA 16-25 and the Gender Equality Strategy for CESA 16-25. This would most effectively be through academic discourses such as conferences and publications as happened with the Millennium Development Goals (Mugenda et al., 2006; Mwayuli, & Pouchouta, 2015). It is important to note that the Gender Equality Strategy for CESA 16-25 was endorsed by partners during the Conference on Girls Education in Zambia in 2017. FAWE via the GIZ partnership embarked on lobbying for Members states adoption of the GES traversing the continent as far as Namibia, Egypt as well as Kenya. During the April 2018 High Level Pan African Conference on Education in Nairobi over 30 ministers of education endorsed the strategy. Furthermore, in C10 meeting in Malawi FAWE popularized GES to visiting ministers of Education from Malawi and Sierra Leone.

3.2 Popularizing and demystifying STEM education and innovation: Countries where women are largely involved in STEM had to make a deliberate effort to bring women on board. A good example is the Republic of Korea. Realizing the value of women resources in a knowledge-based economy the Ministry of Science and Technology commissioned a study that culminated in the establishment of the National Institute for Supporting Women in Science and Technology -NIS-WIST (Jhon, Lee and Lee, 2006). In Korea in 2005, only 12% of the total Science and Technology workforce were women. NIS-WIST’s mission was to raise the rate to 25% by 2014 (Jhon, Lee and Lee, 2006). In the years 2006 to 2013 the percentage of women scientists in Korea increased from 16.1% to 18.9% (AASSA, 2015) even though there is still low level of female participation in public life both in public and private sectors.

The lesson from the Korean example is that given a chance woman will claim their stake in STEM education. FAWE with its partners continue to contribute towards empowering the girls and women of Africa in the same line. For example, in December 2018, FAWE entered into partnership with the Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation (NORAD) to implement the ‘Sustained business start-ups through enhanced female youth employable skills’ project in Mali and Zanzibar from January 2019 to June 2021. The main aim is to build a strong cadre of adolescent girls and women with livelihood skills through innovative training, in line with SDG target 4.4: ‘By 2030, substantially increase the number of youth and adults who have relevant skills, including technical and vocational skills, for employment, decent work and entrepreneurship’. The project is envisaged to increase livelihood opportunities for girls and women in Mali and Zanzibar through the acquisition of relevant skills, remove institutional obstacles to female school drop-outs who are generally excluded from technical and vocational training owing to gender bias in the socio-cultural environment and address risks responsible for the vulnerability of adolescent girls and young women in the labour market.

3.3 FAWE Strategic Plan 2019 -2023: The Strategic Plan was developed with input from the diverse like-minded partners that FAWE has, who will be involved in its launch as well as in its implementation, Monitoring and Evaluation. The challenges to girls’ education in Africa are still many. Some countries are ready to move on to addressing second generation issues,
such as girls’ safety in and out of school, transforming school environments to account for the needs of both sexes, girls’ transition rates and their learning achievement, especially in Science, Technology, Engineering, Art and Mathematics (STEAM). Others however are still addressing the basic issues of limited access to education. Coupled with these challenges are emerging global and regional challenges, such as the financial crisis, the rising poverty levels and increase in sub-Saharan countries with political insecurity that are affecting the quality of responses to the needs of girls and women in education and training. Working within the ambit of the global SDG 4 and 5, the vision of AU Agenda 2063 and the tenets of CESA 16-25 FAWE will continue to push for the gender equity and equality agenda in SSA, which is at the heart of the Strategic Plan.

Guided by the goal of empowering girls and women in Africa with skills, values & competencies they need to achieve their potential, FAWE will adopt a development approach that mitigates both the cause and effect of girls’ and women’s education, promotes the rights and welfare of girls and women and empowers them to be self-reliant. Consequently, the organization will blend the needs-based approach with a rights-based approach to programming in order to address the complexity of girls and women’s needs in education. The organization’s strategic approach is pillared on four strategic objectives which of necessity play a guiding role in the education and training of girls and women in Africa. These strategic objectives are:

1. Girls and young women across Africa, especially those in extreme adversity, have access to quality education and training opportunities to develop relevant skills for world of work,
2. Education systems in Africa integrate gender responsive approaches and policies to nurture skills and competencies for girls and women to contribute to their societies,
3. The institutional capacity (networking, leadership, technical & financial) be strengthened to deliver FAWE’s mandate, and
4. Research and knowledge management systems to inform policies, new approaches and set pace for girls’ agenda in Africa.

Furthermore, FAWE is committed to boost its research portfolio especially in generation as well as being custodian of data on women and girls education in Africa.

3.4 Continue addressing girls’ and women issues in education and training while coming up with innovative ways of addressing them: Over the years, FAWE has come up with innovations, tested them and lobbied for inclusion in the school curriculum. FAWE will continue to upscale its successful models such as the Gender Responsive pedagogy at all level of education, Centres of Excellence, Tuseme, STEAM which governments across Africa have adopted.

Strengthening innovative partnerships and working with different stakeholders including local communities to address different aspects of women and girls education in African is key. For example, FAWE as the sitting chair of GIMAC and with collaboration with UNWomen will continue to co-convene the civil society organizations to prepare for the annual participation and contribution of women and youth in Commission on the Status of Women meetings in Africa and in New York. With the persistence poverty, lobbying for more scholarships for most vulnerable girls and women will continue as well as Resource mobilization and Capacity building. For African states to realize these commitments to counter barriers to girls full participation in and benefit from education, the need to have strong political will, partnerships and skills to ensure that gender equality is fully integrated into Education Sector Plans (ESPs) becomes paramount. As an initiative of (UNGEI) and the Global Partnership for Education
(GPE), with support from UNICEF, in 2014, a manual; *The UNGEI-GPE Guidance for Developing Gender-Responsive Education Sector Plans* was developed to support existing and eligible GPE developing country partners in preparing gender-responsive ESPs. The guidance is designed to supplement and enhance the existing tools on education sector analysis and plan preparation and appraisal. So far, GPE and UNGEI, with technical support from Plan International and UNICEF, have delivered workshops for Eastern and Southern Africa; West and Central Africa; and for South Asia. The Nairobi workshop was attended by Kenya, South Sudan (Eastern) and E-Swatini, Lesotho, Somalia, Somaliland and Puntland (Southern Africa). The three Somali states decided to work as one team. The aim of the training was to build, in each target country, a cadre of education leaders to spearhead efforts to strengthen the commitment and capacity of Ministry of Education staff and members of the Local Education Group -Ministry of Education officials as well as other sectors, including academia, civil society and others- to develop equitable and inclusive education sector plans. The workshop was a step by step process to clarify how to more effectively integrate gender into Education Sector Analysis (ESA) and Planning (ESP). It was designed using adult education principles, with full respect for the considerable experiences and insights that participants brought with them.

A post workshop meeting with AU/CIEFFA and UNGEI recognized the strong relationship between FAWE’s Gender Equality Strategy for CESA 16-25 and the GRESP. It was clear that the Gender Equality Strategy for CESA 16-25 emphasizes ‘what’ African states need to do to get gender mainstreamed in the ESP while the GRESP gives the ‘how’ the mainstreaming can be done. Given that the Gender Equality Strategy for CESA 16-25 has already been adopted by the AU STC-EST, FAWE and AU/CIEFFA continue to engage Permanent Secretaries from all AU countries to solicit their support to national efforts to integrate gender in their ESP using the FAWE Gender Equality Strategy for CESA and the UNGEI-GPE Guidance for Developing Gender- Responsive Education Sector Plans. Support Gender Responsive Education Planning in E- Swatini: develop strategies for engaging policy makers to advocate for incorporation of gender recommendations in the selected documents.

Popularize and implement the African Girls Education Fund (AGEF) spearheaded by FAWE Alumni who are spread all over Africa. This AGEF was launched in Lusaka, Zambia in 2017 and has potential to contribute to improved education of girls and women in Africa.

4.0 RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

Continual investing in education and life-long learning for women and girls in Africa remains valid and paramount in realizing the Africa we want. Taking a holistic approach to women and girl’s education in Africa is recommended. There is need for tremendous commitment by everyone involved – from governments, donors and international organizations to civil society organizations, school authorities, teachers, students and their families. Women and girls especially those living in rural areas continue to be at the greatest disadvantage in terms of schooling, literacy and adult education. Greater and more systematic investments are required to eliminate gender disparities in education and ensure women’s and girls’ full and equal participation and completion of quality education (primary, secondary, tertiary, vocational and technical). In line with CESA objectives, this means providing access to good school infrastructure and technology, reducing the distance to school and ensuring safe environments. Similarly, it is important to have in place quality teachers, school retention programs and the eradication of sexual harassment in schools; ensuring re-entry and other educational means for girls and young women who dropped out of school because of early marriage and pregnancy, child marriage, poverty, conflict and other factors which persist. Adequately resourced
initiatives targeted at girls enhancing their educational opportunities living in rural areas should be enhanced to expand the scope of ICT-enabled mobile learning, STEM and literacy training. Programmes should be designed to facilitate women’s and girls’ access to formal and non-formal education. For this to be achieved appropriate and well-disaggregated data is needed. Gender data gaps and gender statistics remain a key challenge to evidence-based policy formulation, monitoring, implementation and programming and makes it difficult to achieve the agenda of ‘Leave No One Behind’ as per the global Agenda 2030 and AU’s own Agenda 2063. All the above need to be effected alongside the ever-present call for eliminating all forms of sexual and gender based violence, harmful practices and child marriage in Africa.

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Commission on the Status of Women (CSW) “One Africa One Voice” 2018 Report for the CSW 62nd session
5.2

EDUCATION OF WOMEN AND GIRLS AND THE IMPORTANCE OF ACCESS OF WATER AND SANITATION IN SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA

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ABSTRACT
In 2010, the United Nations declared access to clean water and sanitation a fundamental human right (UN General Assembly 2010). Limited access to water and sanitation services adversely affects an individual’s health, limits their access to educational and economic opportunities, and affects their ability to be productive and live full and secure lives. The challenges posed by a lack of access to water and sanitation will have to be addressed if countries are to meet the 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) adopted by the United Nations in 2015 to address poverty and ensure shared prosperity for all. SDG Goal 4 is Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all; while SDG 5 is Achieve Gender equality and empower and women and girls. The attainment of these goals is linked to the attainment of Goal 6, which is Ensure availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation. This book chapter will review the importance of educating women and girls, with a focus on sub-Saharan Africa and will explore the role that access to water and sanitation plays in helping to empower women and girls.

Keywords: Education, Girls, Sanitation, Water & Women

INTRODUCTION
Water is essential to human and economic development of all countries and is at the center of any sustainable development initiative or policy to promote economic development and poverty alleviation. In 2010, the United Nations declared access to clean water and sanitation a fundamental human right (UN General Assembly 2010). However, globally, there are still 2.1 billion people that lack safe water at home, 844 million people that lack even a basic drinking-water service, including 159 million people who are dependent on surface water (JMP 2017). In sub-Saharan Africa, only 24% of the population have access to a safe source of drinking water, while 28% have access to basic sanitation services (JMP 2017). Limited access to water and sanitation services adversely affects an individual’s health, limits their access to educational and economic opportunities, and affects their ability to be productive and live full and secure lives.

The challenges posed by a lack of access to water and sanitation will have to be addressed if countries are to meet the 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) adopted by the United Nations in 2015 to address poverty and ensure shared prosperity for all. The SDG goal relating to water and sanitation is SDG Goal 6 – Ensure availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation. However, the attainment of this Goal is at the heart of many of the other 16 SDG goals. SDG Goal 4 is Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all; while SDG 5 is Achieve Gender equality and empower and women and girls. The attainment of these goals is linked to the attainment of Goal 6. This book chapter will review the importance of educating women and girls, with a focus on sub-
Saharan Africa and will explore the role that access to water and sanitation plays in helping to empower women and girls.

**IMPORTANT OF EDUCATING GIRLS AND WOMEN**

All children have a universal right to access good quality education. However, in a lot of developing countries, women are not educated beyond a certain age. Only 45% of girls in sub-Saharan Africa are enrolled in primary school, while 40% are enrolled in secondary school (The World Bank 2014). Education saves and improves the lives of girl and women. It leads to more equitable development, stronger families, better child health (UNICEF 2003). An educated girl can make informed decisions from a wide range of options, understands her rights, has more opportunities to engage in productive work and can make better health and nutrition choices to support the health and well-being of her family and community.

There is a positive relationship between girls’ education and economic development. Low investment in female education also reduces a country’s overall output, work by Klasen (1999) showed that from 1960 to 1992, gender inequality in education had a significant negative effect on the economic growth of countries in Africa and South Asia. In a study of 146 countries, Barro and Lee 2013 found that there is a positive correlation between education and output. A 5-12% increase in economic growth for each additional year of schooling in the average population was observed. In the same study, they found that for a particular year, female education levels had a significant effect on an increase in growth and life expectancy.

In a study of 30 countries by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD 2012), it was a 50% increase in economic growth over a 48 year period was attributed to an increase in the educational attainment of the population. Most of the growth was attributed to an increase in female education. A study of 100 countries (Dollar and Gatti 1999) also found that increasing the number of women completing secondary education by 1%, led to an 0.3% increase in economic growth.

Educating women and girls has proven to be one of the most important mechanisms for breaking poverty cycles and improving their opportunities to access formal employment. Studies in Egypt and Mozambique that increasing the education level of women to at least primary education, reduced the proportion of the population below the poverty line by 23.2% and 33.7% for Mozambique and Egypt respectively (Datt et al. 1999, 2000). 78% of women in sub-Saharan Africa work in vulnerable and informal employment (World Bank 2018) that does not provide secure wages, stability or benefits. Education provides women with an opportunity to earn higher wages in formal employment.

In sub-Saharan Africa, women provide the majority of labour used for the production of agricultural produce, but limited access to education and to labor, fertilizer, and other inputs than men. When women obtain the same levels of education, experience, and farm inputs that currently benefit the average male farmer, studies have shown that this results in an increase in agricultural productivity (Udry et al. 1995; Quisumbing 1996). An increase in educational opportunities based on a Farm Field Program, in three East African States (Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda), increased the value of agricultural produce, resulting in a 61% increase in agricultural income (Davis et al. 2012). The program’s impact on female farmers was particularly significant and led to a 120% increase in crop productivity and a 187% increase in agricultural income.
When mothers are educated, children are healthier and child mortality reduces, as children of more educated women tend to be better nourished and get sick less often. LeVine and Rowe (2009) found that maternal literacy improves a child’s chance of survival, as an educated mother is better able to communicate with health care providers, to describe their child’s illness and thus access appropriate care. A study of child mortality in 175 countries over a 39 year period, found that increases in women’s educational attainment resulted in a 50% decrease in child mortality rates (Gakidou et al. 2010). Another study of 58 countries found that if all women completed primary education, under-5 child mortality rates could reduce by 15% and if all women completed secondary education, under-5 mortality rates could reduce by 49% (UNESCO 2013).

In sub-Saharan Africa, majority of all births are performed without the presence of a skilled medical attendant, which increases the risk of child and maternal mortality. Around 40% of all under-5 deaths occur within the first 28 days of life, the majority being due to complications during delivery (Liu et al. 2012). An educated woman is more likely to ensure that a skilled medical attendant is present during childbirth. Demographic and Health Survey for 57 countries showed that a literate mother is more likely to have a skilled attendant at birth (UNESCO 2013). The same study found that in 2012 in Mali, a literate mother was 3 times more likely to have a skilled attendant at birth, while in Nigeria and Niger, the effect of mother’s literacy on the presence of a skilled attendance was about 30%.

The maternal mortality ratio of developing countries is 240 deaths per 100,000 live births, with over 50% of the deaths occurring in sub-Saharan Africa (WHO et al. 2012). Mothers die because of various complications during pregnancy and child birth. Educated women are more likely to avoid these complications by attending antenatal sessions at health care facilities, where there health indicators will be monitored regularly. A study of 108 countries showed that in sub-Saharan Africa, if all women completed primary education, the maternal mortality rate would reduce by 70% (Bhalotra and Clarke 2014).

Stunting is a manifestation of malnutrition. An educated mother will ensure her child receives adequate nutrition and will adopt appropriate health and hygiene practices to prevent illness. In Ethiopia, mothers with primary education and access to antenatal care, were less likely to have children with stunted growth (Klugman et al. 2014). In Nairobi, the chance of child stunting is 29% higher for mothers with no education or just primary education, in comparison with mothers with secondary education (Abuya et al. 2012).

A well educated child is more likely to be more knowledgeable about the risks of various diseases and is more likely to have her child immunised. Demographic and Health Surveys showed that if all women in developing countries completed primary education, the probability of a child receiving immunisation against diphtheria, tetanus and whooping cough would increase by 10% (UNESCO 2013). The same report showed that if all women completed primary education in sub-Saharan Africa, the probability of a child receiving immunisation could be as high as 80%. Education also plays an important in the prevention of preventable such as malaria. The more literate a mother is, the more likely she is to take basic precautions such as the use of mosquito nets to prevent malaria. In sub-Saharan Africa, a study showed that a women with at least primary education had a 27% better chance of preventing malaria infection in her child, in comparison to a woman without education (Siri 2014).
ROLE OF ACCESS TO WATER AND SANITATION IN THE EMPOWERMENT OF WOMEN AND GIRLS

In most developing countries, lack of access to safe drinking water and sanitation affects women and girls in particular, as the burden of providing water to sustain their families’ livelihood depends often on them. Women and girls are responsible for water collection in 80% of households without water on the premises (JMP 2017). It has been estimated that 40 billion hours are spent annually collecting water in sub-Saharan Africa (UNDP 2006). Time spent collecting water is time spent out of school and time spent away from productive work, which can help to break the circle of poverty experienced by many girls and women in developing countries. The water collected is often contaminated and close contact to the water results in various water borne diseases, leading girls to miss many days of school each year due to contaminated water related illnesses. Lack of access to a toilet at home or decent public toilet puts women and girls at the risk of harassment, if they have to use a toilet that is open and not secluded and many girls around the world, attend schools without a toilet or single sex toilet, this lack of privacy results in many of the girls dropping out of school, when they reach puberty.

Economic opportunities are lost when women have to spend hours each day collecting water. This is time that could have been spent on productive work, education or politics. These obstacles will make it difficult for countries to achieve SDG Goal 4 and Goal 5. With improved access to water and sanitation, girls and women are more likely to be healthy, stay in school, engage in productive work and break the cycle of poverty for themselves and their families.

The water and sanitation sector can help to address inequality and impact positively on the social, political and economic status of women in the society (Rop 2010). Provision of water and sanitation services will free up time that can be spent on decision making and profitable endeavors.

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RÉSUMÉ
La stratégie mise en place par la Commission de l’Union Africaine à travers son département des ressources humaines, des sciences et de la technologie repose sur l’intégration et la prise en compte du genre dans les politiques éducationnelles sur le continent. Dans les établissements de l’enseignement supérieur et universitaire de la RDC en général, et de la capitale Kinshasa en particulier, les statistiques hommes-femmes présentent des inégalités remarquables. Les agents employés dans onze établissements recensés et un service spécialisé sont, en effet, majoritairement hommes contre une minorité femmes. Les différentes tendances exprimées à travers les tableaux des statistiques illustrent cet état des lieux. Diverses causes expliquent cette situation qui, à la base se justifie par les pesanteurs qui accablent la jeune fille en famille, à l’école et dans la société. Trois autres causes sont relevées dans cette contribution:

• Un niveau d’instruction des femmes travailleuses à l’ESU globalement limité au baccalauréat équivalent au diplôme d’état en RDC ;
• L’absence d’une formation continue ;
• L’environnement d’hyper pauvreté.

Pour corriger cette situation, d’abord les différents comités de gestion de 12 établissements, ensuite la tutelle c.à.d. le ministère de l’ESU, enfin la femme elle-même sont tous et toutes interpellés(es).
Mots-Clés:
• BAROMÈTRE : toute indication qui permet de mesurer certaines tendances ou variations et les exprimer (Le Petit Larousse illustré 2012 p.106). Dans le contexte de cette contribution le baromètre est constitué d’un condensé des statistiques hommes – femmes du personnel et leurs grades de commandement. Le même concept est défini
comme ce qui est sensible à des variations et permet de les apprécier, d’évaluer une 

- **PARITÉ** : C’est l’égalité parfaite, la concordance. En politique et gestion des 
  ressources humaines, la parité s’applique à l’égalité de représentation des hommes et 
  des femmes dans toutes les structures et à différents niveaux. De même que dans 
  l’éducation.

- **INÉGALITÉS** : Sont des caractères ou état de choses inégales entre eux. Les inégalités 
  à corriger dans le cas de ce texte, sont des disparités et des écarts.

- **GENRE** : C’est le caractère commun à une espèce, un groupe. Le cas du genre humain 
  qui est l’ensemble des hommes du sexe masculin et féminin. Le genre est aussi une 
  espèce qui, dans les établissements d’enseignement supérieur et universitaire est 
  constitué des hommes et des femmes. Il s’agit sociologiquement de la dimension 
  identitaire, historique, culturelle et symbolique de l’appartenance biologique au sexe 
  masculin ou féminin (Le Petit Larousse illustré, op cit, p.497).

**INTRODUCTION**
Cette contribution à la rédaction du manuel sur la stratégie continentale pour l’éducation en 
Afrique rassemble les résultats des études menées par le Réseau des femmes de l’enseignement 
supérieur et universitaire (REFESU), une plateforme qui regroupe les associations des femmes 
travaillères dans les établissements d’enseignement supérieur et universitaire de Kinshasa. 
La banque des données du Point focal Genre du ministre de l’ESU a également servi à alimenter 
ce baromètre.

Les statistiques sexospécifées recueillies dans 11 établissements et un service spécialisé 

Les établissements concernés dans ce baromètre sont :

- L’Institut Supérieur Pédagogique de la Gombe (ISP/Gombe)
- L’université Pédagogique National (UPN)
- L’Institut Supérieur de Commerce de Kinshasa (ISC/Kinshasa)
- L’Institut Supérieur de Technique Médicales (ISTM/Kinshasa)
- L’Institut Facultaire des Sciences de l’Information et de la Communication (IFASIC)
- L’Institut Supérieur de Statistique de Kinshasa(ISS)
- L’Institut Supérieur de Techniques Appliquées (ISTA)
- L’Académie de Beaux-Arts(ABA)
- L’Université de Kinshasa
- L’Institut Supérieur d’Architecture et Urbanisme (ISAU)
- L’Institut Supérieur des Arts et Métiers(ISAM)
- Presses Universitaires du Congo (PUC)
- L’Institut National de Bâtiment et Travaux Publics ‘INBTP)

La méthodologie scientifique suivie est la technique documentaire par la récolte des données 
dans différents services.

L’état des lieux de la situation des femmes à travers les indicateurs disponibles dans 11 
établissements récences et un service spécialisé affiche des disparités qui exigent une 
correction (Gertrude META et Béatrice MAKAYA, 2016).
Pourquoi s’attarder et accorder une importance dans la gestion des ressources humaines œuvrant à l’enseignement supérieur et universitaire sur le respect de l’équité du genre et de la parité ?


Les tableaux des statistiques, les listes déclaratives et répartition du personnel récoltés par les expertes du REFESU restent un indicateur c.à.d. le baromètre de la prise en compte du genre et de l’atteinte de la parité à l’ESU.

La présente étude analyse dans une première phase l’état des lieux des effectifs hommes-femmes et dans une seconde phase les constants et défis pour nous permettre de suggérer quelques pistes des solutions dont le projet de production annuelle du baromètre.

I. ÉTAT DES LIEUX DES EFFECTIFS HOMMES/FEMMES

I.1. Institut Supérieur Pédagogique de la Gombe

**Tableau n°1.** Effectifs hommes-femmes du personnel de l’ISP/Gombe : cadre de commandement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Désignation</th>
<th>Femmes (Séries 1)</th>
<th>Hommes (Séries 2)</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Pourcentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corps académique</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corps Scientifique</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(C. T)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corps administratif</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source : Apparitorat, Secrétariat Général Académique ISP/Gombe/Kinshasa, 1er semestre 2017-2018*

**Tableau n°2.** Tableau synthétique des effectifs hommes-femmes du personnel de l’UPN SYNTHESE DES EFFECTIFS DE L’UPN / KINSHASA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GRADE</th>
<th>HOMMES</th>
<th>FEMMES</th>
<th>%Hommes</th>
<th>%Femmes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>0%</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>211</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>488</td>
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<td>94</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>487</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grades</td>
<td>EFFECTIFS</td>
<td>HOMMES</td>
<td>FEMMES</td>
<td>%Hommes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>--------</td>
<td>---------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Professeurs ordinaires</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Professeurs</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Professeurs Associés</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Chefs de Travaux</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>88%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Assistants1</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>92%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Assistants2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>88%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 En formation</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 DCS</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>68%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Dir</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>74%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 C.D</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>61%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 C.B</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>76%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 ATB1 Commandant</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>69%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>487</td>
<td>403</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>83%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source** : REFESU/Section UPN, mars 2017 DCS/UPN

**Tableau n°3** : Synthèse des effectifs du personnel de l’ISC/Kinshasa, Répartition hommes femmes
TOTAL GENERAL

Source : Direction du personnel ISC/ Kinshasa, Mars 2017

**Tableau n°4. Statistique Hommes/Femmes du personnel de l’ISTM Kinshasa**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grades</th>
<th>Femmes</th>
<th>Hommes</th>
<th>%femmes</th>
<th>%hommes</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Académique</td>
<td>03</td>
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<td>75</td>
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<td>4</td>
</tr>
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<td>23</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>100</td>
<td>13</td>
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<tr>
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<td>1</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Chef de travaux</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Assistants 1er cl</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Assistants 2ème</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Agents</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 DCS</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Dir</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 CD</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 CB</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 ATT1</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>221</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 ATT2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 Agents d’exécution</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>739</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>875</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Réseau des femmes de l’enseignement supérieur et universitaire/ section ISTM Kinshasa/Mars 2017

**Tableau n°5. Synthèse des effectifs de l’IFASIC**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grades</th>
<th>Effectifs</th>
<th>Hommes</th>
<th>Femmes</th>
<th>%Hommes</th>
<th>%femmes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Professeur ordinaire</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Professeur</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>01</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Professeur associé</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>02</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Bibliothèque Principal</td>
<td>01</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>01</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N°</td>
<td>Position</td>
<td>MASCULIN</td>
<td>FÉMININ</td>
<td>OBSERVATION</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----</td>
<td>---------------------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Chefs de travaux</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>01</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Bibliothèque1</td>
<td>03</td>
<td>03</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Assistants2</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>08</td>
<td>67</td>
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<td>02</td>
<td>90</td>
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<td>03</td>
<td>01</td>
<td>02</td>
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**Source**: Direction du Personnel IFASIC/Kinshasa, Mars 2017

**Tableau n°6.** Effectif du Personnel de l’ISS: Répartition des grades par sexe

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<tr>
<th>N°</th>
<th>EFFECTIF</th>
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<th>MASCULIN</th>
<th>FÉMININ</th>
<th>OBSERVATION</th>
</tr>
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<td>01</td>
<td>Comité de Gestion</td>
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<tr>
<td>02</td>
<td>Professeurs</td>
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<td>7</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>03</td>
<td>Chefs de Travaux</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04</td>
<td>Assistants</td>
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**I. ACADÉMIQUEMENT ET SCIENTIFIQUES**

**II. PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATIF**

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<th>FÉMININ</th>
<th>OBSERVATION</th>
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En détachement
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<th>N° 1ère classe</th>
<th>N° 2ème classe</th>
<th>N° 3ème classe</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>06</td>
<td>Chef de Division</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Agent de Bureau 1ère classe</td>
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**Source** : Association des mamans de l’ISS/Kinshasa/REFESU, Mars 2017

**Tableau n°7** : Répartition du personnel enseignant de l’Institut Supérieur de Technique Appliquées (ISTA)

**Source** : Division des services académiques, Direction enseignement et programme 2015-2016
### Tableau n°8 : Statistique de la situation Genre à l’Académie des Beaux-Arts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N°</th>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Effectifs</th>
<th>Hommes</th>
<th>Femmes</th>
<th>%Hommes</th>
<th>%Femmes</th>
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<td>0</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
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<td>3</td>
<td>Prof Associé</td>
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<td>Chef de Travaux</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Assistant 1ᵉʳ Mandat</td>
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<td>97%</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>Assistant 2ᵈᵉ mandat</td>
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<td>28</td>
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<td>100%</td>
<td>7%</td>
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<tr>
<td>8</td>
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<td><strong>98%</strong></td>
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<th>%Femmes</th>
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<td>0%</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>83%</td>
<td>17%</td>
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<tr>
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<td>% Hommes</td>
<td>% Femmes</td>
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Source : Direction des ressources humaines ABA, 2015-2016

Tableau n°9 : Statistique des effectifs Hommes - Femmes du personnel de l’UNIKIN
**Source :** Division des ressources humaines Unikin, Mars 2017

**Tableau n°10 :** Effectif du personnel de l’Institut Supérieur d’Architecture et Urbanisme par le service et par le sexe.

<table>
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</table>

**Source :** Point focal genre ESU, secrétariat général Mars 2017

**Tableau n°11 :** Liste déclarative du personnel de l’ISAM Kinshasa : Données synthétiques 2016-2017

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N°</th>
<th>Catégories Corps</th>
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<th>Hommes</th>
<th>Femmes</th>
<th>%Hommes</th>
<th>%Femmes</th>
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<td>Personnel Académique</td>
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<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
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<td>Personnel Scientifique</td>
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<td>-</td>
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<td>Personnel Administratif</td>
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<td>14</td>
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</table>
Tableau n°12 : Effectifs Hommes- Femmes aux grades de commandement des Presses Universitaires du Congo /PUC

<table>
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<th>N°</th>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Effectifs</th>
<th>Hommes</th>
<th>Femmes</th>
<th>%Hommes</th>
<th>%Femmes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>1</td>
<td>Directeur chef de service</td>
<td>6</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
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<td>2</td>
<td>Directeur</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Chef de division</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
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<td>9</td>
<td>74</td>
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</tr>
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<td>20</td>
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Source : REFESU, section ISAM, Mars 2017

II. CONSTANTS ET DÉFIS

La tendance générale des effectifs hommes-femmes dans les 11 établissements et services des presses universitaires du Congo est un indicateur important de la réalité hommes-femmes au sein de l’enseignement supérieur et universitaire en RDC.

Les statistiques de l’Institut Supérieur de Techniques Appliquées (ISTA) présentent une originalité par l’absence quasi-totale du personnel féminin. Cela est justifié par la nature de l’établissement qui offre une formation aux métiers longtemps réservés aux femmes. Il s’agit des techniques appliquées en mécanique, électronique et électricité.

De même que l’Institut Supérieur des Arts et Métiers où les indicateurs n’affichent aucun enseignant du corps académique c.à.d. aucun Docteur PhD. Cela relève des métiers réservés traditionnellement aux femmes dont la formation fut longtemps planifiée à la régence et plus tard au bac+3 en graduat.

Les disparités sont également manifestes dans l’exercice des fonctions de prise de décision et les grades de commandement : les statistiques des femmes professeurs, des membres des comités de gestions le prouvent.

La tendance moyenne cumulée tourne autour de 20% des femmes contre 80% des hommes dans les effectifs globaux tant des 11 établissements que de l’unique service spécialisé récenté.

Les causes décelées sur un simple constat de terrain et la longue expérience du métier en milieu d’enseignement Supérieur sont :

- Le niveau d’instruction des femmes travailleuses à l’ESU en deçà de celui de leurs collègues masculins autour du simple baccalauréat ;
- L’environnement d’hyper-pauvreté dans lequel évolue la femme ;

Source : REFESU, section PUC, Avril 2016
• Le us et coutumes qui véhiculent des stéréotypes sur la femme ;
• Le faible niveau d’instruction de la femme par rapport à son collège masculin ;
• L’absence d’une formation continue.

III. CONCLUSION
Les écarts et les disparités qui ont été traduits dans les 12 tableaux contenus dans cette contribution exigent un travail de fond pour déceler les causes profondes en vue d’apporter des corrections visant l’attente de la parité. Une enquête à travers tous les établissements publics et privés de la ville province de Kinshasa ainsi que tous les services spécialisés du ministère de l’ESU permettra une récolte des données pour traduire les réalités et déceler les causes.


Il s’agit ici, d’un prélude au projet « BAROMETRE DU GENRE ET DE LA PARITÉ A L’ENSEIGNEMENT SUPÉRIEUR ET UNIVERSITAIRE EN RDC » pour produire annuellement et régulièrement les indications de parité. Des données à utiliser par les chercheurs en éducation et genre pour corriger les disparités et injustices.

SIGLES ET ABRÉVIATIONS
• AB: Agent de Bureau;
• ASS : Assistant ;
• ATB : Attaché de Bureau ;
• CB : Chef de Bureau ;
• CD : Chef de Division ;
• CPP : Chargé de la Pratique Professionnelle ;
• CT : Chef de Travaux ;
• D : Directeur ;
• DCS : Directeur Chef de Services ;
• ESU : Enseignement Supérieur et Universitaire ;
• IFASIC : Institut Facultaire des Sciences de l’Information et Communication ;
• INBTP : Institut National des Bâtiments des Travaux Publics ;
• ISC : Institut Supérieur de Commerce ;
• ISP : Institut Supérieur Pédagogique ;
• ISS : Institut Supérieur des Statistiques ;
• P : Professeur ;
• PA : Professeur associé ;
• PE : Professeur Emérite ;
• PO : Professeur Ordinaire ;
• PUC : Presses Universitaires du Congo ;
• REFESU : Réseau des Femmes de l’Enseignements Supérieur et Universitaire ;
• UPN : Université Pédagogique Nationale ;
• UNIKIN : Université de Kinshasa ;
• ISAM : Institut des Arts et Métiers ;
• ABA : Académie des Beaux-Arts ;
• ISAU : Institut Supérieur d’Architecture et Urbanisme ;
• CRESEDIP : Centre de Recherche Scientifique, d’Édition et de Diffusion des documents Pédagogiques ;
• P.C.A.M.E : Programme Commun des Associations pour le bien-être de la Mère et Enfant ;

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5.4

GENDER INEQUALITY IN STAFF STRENGTH OF SELECTED FACULTIES OF THE UNIVERSITY OF BENIN: ANY IMPACT OF SDG NO.5?

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ABSTRACT
The study investigated gender inequality in the staff strength of selected faculties of the University of Benin vis-à-vis the impact of the SDG no 5. The ex-post facto research design was adopted for the study because the study relied on secondary data. The data for the study was retrieved from the staff records of the University of Benin. The population of the study comprised all the lecturers in the selected faculties, and the total number was 4071 as at the 2016/2017 academic session. All the lecturers in the selected faculties (Faculties of Dentistry, Education and Engineering) also constituted the sample for the study. Simple percentage was used to analyze the data. The findings of the study showed a very wide margin between the number of male and female lecturers in two out of the three faculties selected for the study. Based on the findings, the researchers recommended among others that the Ministry of Women Affairs and Social Development at both federal and state levels should continue to engage in vigorous enlightenment and advocacy campaign against all forms of discrimination against women. This could be in the form of jingles on the radio and television. Monographs and pamphlets could be produced to show the potential abilities of girls and women, and such should be distributed to schools, libraries and public places. Also, universities should give good percentage of jobs available to qualified women, especially in the Faculties of Dentistry and Engineering.

INTRODUCTION
Most contemporary societies, especially in developing world can be described as patriarchal because they operate a social system characterized by male dominance and gender inequality. Gender inequality is a social system that deprives women and girls of their basic rights and opportunities. Achieving gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls requires more vigorous efforts, including legal frameworks, to counter deeply rooted gender-based discrimination that often results from patriarchal attitudes and related social norms. Nwanna-Nzewunwa (2010) remarked that as a patriarchal society, Nigeria exhibits support for male dominance over female. Earlier, Nwanna-Nzewunwa (2000) had posited that as a result of discrimination, the educational gap between the male and female is wide in favour of the male. Salau (2016) identified the factors that influence gender disparity in education as socio-cultural factors, gender bias and stereotyping, misplaced value system and discriminatory legislation and policies. According to Salau, it is no longer news that inadequate or discriminatory
legislation and policies often present a barrier to gender parity in education, and in particular inhibit girls’ equal access to quality education. In countries like Afghanistan and Pakistan, formal or written threats to close girls’ schools or end classes for girls have fuelled gender motivated attacks on schools. In situations where schools are not close to homes, there is an increased likelihood of non-enrolment or non-attendance and dropping out after enrolment for girls. Conscious of safety and security, parents are less likely to allow their daughters to attend school if they have to travel long distances. Hausmann, Tyson and Zahidi (2009) posited that there is no country in the world that has yet reached equality between female and male in different critical areas such as economics and education. In developing countries like Nigeria and Jordan, gender stereotyping is still prevalent in almost all aspects of life (Albedour, 2004). Salau (2016) observed that at the national, societal or community levels in Nigeria, cultural influence is played out in traditions, customs, attitudes, preferences, collective expectations and fears. Traditions are invoked to maintain the status quo. For example, preference for male children is more pervasive and more strongly felt than that for female progeny. The male child is generally socialized to be inquiring, adventurous or venturesome to subdue, conquer or at the very least understand nature; while the female child is expected to be obedient, malleable, traditional and preserver of nature.

The African culture views women as second-class citizens who should be relegated to the background. The female child is traditionally assigned subordinate roles in most African cultures because it is believed that women are to be seen and not heard and that their place is in the kitchen. She is expected to accept her traditional role of child bearing and rearing and also helping out with household chores as well as maintaining the welfare of the family. Nwagbara (2016) noted that a girl child is made to understand that there are differences between her and the male siblings in most homes, even as they become adults. Women are made to feel inferior before the men. They are made to believe that their place is in the home; doing household chores, bearing children as well as being at the beck and call of their men. History has shown that in Africa for instance, a man whose wife bears only female children, goes for another wife who will give him male children. This is due to customs and traditions of the African society which deem it very important for every man to have a boy child, who will take his place when he dies. In Igbo land (eastern part of Nigeria), the generation and dynasty of a man come to an end the day he dies if he is survived by only female children. That is why their male children, especially first male children are usually called Afamefune which literally means my generation will not go into extinction because I have a boy child. This shows that they do not see any continuity of their dynasty through their female children. In other words, they believe that any family without a boy child will collapse once the father who is the head of the family dies, because there will be no boy-child to succeed him. This myopic cultural view is obviously oblivious of the fact that with good education, the girl-child can grow to become a better housewife, mother, successor and a useful citizen to her country. It is the persistence of gender inequality in many parts of the world that informed the inclusion of gender equality and empowerment of women and girls as one of the goals of the Sustainable Development agenda.

The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), officially known as Transforming Our World: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, is a set of 17 global goals with 169 targets among them. Spearheaded by the United Nations through a deliberate process involving its 193 member States, as well as Global Civil Society, the goals are contained in paragraph 54 of the United Nations Resolution A/RES/70/1 of September 2015. The SDGs is the successor of the
Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The 17 Sustainable Development Goals are as follows:

1. **No Poverty** – End poverty in all of its forms everywhere.
2. **Zero Hunger** – End hunger, achieve food security, improved nutrition and promote sustainable agriculture.
3. **Good Health and Well-being** – Ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages.
4. **Quality Education** – Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all.
5. **Gender Equality** - Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls.
6. **Clean Water and Sanitation** – Ensure availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all.
7. **Affordable and Clean Energy** – Ensure access to affordable, reliable and modern energy services.
8. **Decent Work and Economic Growth** – Promote sustained, inclusive and sustained economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all.
9. **Industry, Innovation and Infrastructure** – Build resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialization and foster innovation.
10. **Reduced Inequalities** – Reduce income inequality within and among countries.
11. **Sustainable Cities and Communities** – Make cities and human settlements inclusive, resilient and sustainable.
12. **Responsible Consumption and Production** – Ensure sustainable consumption and production patterns.
13. **Climate Action** – Take urgent action to combat climate change and its impacts by regulating emissions and promoting developments renewable energy.
14. **Life Below Water** – Conserve and sustainably use the world’s oceans, seas and marine resources.
15. **Life on Land** – Protect, restore and promote sustainable use of terrestrial ecosystems, sustainably manage forests, combat desertification, halt and reverse land degradation; halt biodiversity loss.
16. **Peace, Justice and Strong Institutions** – Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable inclusive institutions at all levels.
17. **Partnership for the Goals** – Strengthen the means of implementation and revitalize the global partnership for sustainable development.

Achieving gender equality and empowering all women and girls is the fifth of the seventeen SDGs. Before the advent of the SDGs, there was the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) which captured the promotion of gender equality and empowerment in its goal number 3. The MDGs kicked off in September, 2000, while the SDGs started in September, 2015. In spite of the worldwide crusade and campaign for gender equality and empowerment of women and girls through the MDGs and its successor, the SDGs, there seems to be gender inequality in the academic staff strength of selected faculties in the University of Benin (UNIBEN). It is against this background that the researchers became eager to investigate the extent to which the SDG number 5 has been achieved in the University of Benin, after two years of its implementation. The investigation was done through the analysis of the number of male and female lecturers in three faculties in UNIBEN.
1. What is the difference between the number of male and female lecturers in the Faculty of Dentistry, University of Benin as at 2016/2017 academic session?

2. What is the difference between the number of male and female lecturers in the Faculty of Education, University of Benin as at 2016/2017 academic session?

3. What is the difference between the number of male and female lecturers in the Faculty of Engineering, University of Benin as at 2016/2017 academic session?

**METHOD**

The ex-post facto research design was adopted for this study since the study relied on secondary data. The data for the study was retrieved from the staff records of the University of Benin. University of Benin is a Federal Government owned university located in Benin City, Edo State, Nigeria. The population of the study comprised all the lecturers in the selected faculties, and the total number was 407 as at the 2016/2017 academic session. All the lecturers in the selected faculties (Faculties of Dentistry, Education and Engineering) also constituted the sample for the study. Simple percentage was used to analyze the data.

**RESULTS OF FINDING**

**Research Question One:** What is the difference between the number of male and female lecturers in the Faculty of Dentistry, University of Benin as at 2016/2017 academic session?

**Table 1: Percentage Analysis of Male and Female Lecturers in the Faculty of Dentistry**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total No. of Lecturers in the Faculty of Dentistry</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Female Lecturers</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Architecture</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>75.6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>24.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

![Bar graph showing the number of male and female lecturers in Dentistry Faculty](image)
Figure 1: Graphical Representation of Result in Table 1
Table 1 shows that out of 37 lecturers in the Faculty of Dentistry, only 9 (24.4%) are females while 28 (75.6%) are males.

Research Question Two: What is the difference between the number of male and female lecturers in the Faculty of Education, University of Benin as at 2016/2017 academic session?

Table 2: Percentage Analysis of Male and Female Lecturers in the Faculty of Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total No. of Lecturers in the Faculty of Agriculture</th>
<th>No. of Male Lecturers</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>No. of Female Lecturers</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>156</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>49.4</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>50.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2: Graphical Representation of the Result in Table 2
Table 2 shows that out of 156 lecturers in the Faculty of Education, 77 (49.4%) are males while 79 (50.6%) are females.

Research Question Three: What is the difference between the number of male and female lecturers in the Faculty of Engineering, University of Benin as at 2016/2017 academic session?

Table 3: Percentage Analysis of Male and Female Lecturers in the Faculty of Engineering

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>48.8</td>
<td>50.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50.6</td>
<td>50.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50.4</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50.2</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49.8</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49.6</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49.4</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49.2</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49.0</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48.8</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

303
Table 3 shows that out of 214 lecturers in the Faculty of Engineering, 189 (88.3%) are males while 25 (11.7%) are females.

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS
The findings of this study show a very wide margin between the number of male and female lecturers in two out of the three faculties selected for the study. In the Faculty of Dentistry of the University of Benin for instance, findings revealed that out of 37 lecturers in the faculty, only 9 (24.4%) were females while 28 (75.6%) were males. Similarly, out of 214 lecturers in the Faculty of Engineering, only 25 (11.7%) were females while 189 (88.3%) were males. It was only in the Faculty of Education that a slight difference in favour of the female gender was recorded as the finding revealed that out of 156 lecturers in the faculty, 77 (49.4%) were males while 79 (50.6%) were females.

The findings of this study are in conformity with the findings of Nwanna-Nzewunwa (2010). The author found a disparity (in favour of male) in the employment of lecturers in the Faculties of Sciences, Engineering and College of Medicine in the University of Port Harcourt. The findings are also in agreement with the previous findings of Okechukwu and Ekwukoma (2018). The two authors carried out a similar study in the same University of Benin, although different faculties (Faculties of Agriculture and Arts, and the School of Basic Medical
Sciences) were used. They found a very wide margin between the number of male and female lecturers in the three faculties selected for their study. It is very worrisome that seven years after the study of Nwanna-Nzewunwa and two years of implementation of the SDGs, there is not even a marginal improvement. Could it be that parents are not giving their girl-children access to formal education as a result of the old belief that the woman’s place is in the kitchen? Or could it be that the university is not striking gender balance in the employment of lecturers in these faculties? The findings of this study are further supported by the report of the Federal Government of Nigeria that most of the Education-for-All (EFA) goals and the MDGs 2 and 3: Achieve universal primary education; and promote gender equality and empower women, were not met (FGN, 2015).

CONCLUSION
From the findings of this study, one can say without mincing words, that the SDGs no.5 has not made any impact in the staff strength of the Faculties of Dentistry and Engineering of the University of Benin. More efforts should be made to promote women’s access to economic, educational and job opportunities. The two faculties (Faculties of Dentistry and Engineering) where the study found a very wide gender gap in staff strength are science-based faculties. This is a reflection of the poor participation of women in sciences in developing world.

RECOMMENDATIONS
Based on the findings of the study, the following recommendations were made:
1. The Ministry of Women Affairs and Social Development at both federal and state levels should continue to engage in vigorous enlightenment and advocacy campaign against all forms of discrimination against women as suggested by Salau (2016). This could be in the form of jingles on the radio and television. Monographs and pamphlets could be produced to show the potential abilities of girls and women, and such should be distributed to schools, libraries and public places.
2. Universities should give good percentage of jobs available to qualified women, especially in the Faculties of Dentistry and Engineering
3. Religious and socio-cultural factors inhibiting the achievement of the SDG number 5 should be tackled head-on.
4. There is an urgent need to promote women’s access, interest and participation in sciences.

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RURAL WOMEN’S ACCESS AND CONTROL OVER PRODUCTIVE RESOURCES

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ABSTRACT
Women constitute around 50% of the total populations in Kenya. Agriculture is the base of the economy as it generates income and employment for the country. Resources and their effective use are crucial for development of agriculture and this leads to gender balance in the country. Socio-cultural dimensions of Kenya pose varying situation for males and females in the country. A study conducted in Central Kenya, Kenya revealed grass root situation by focusing on the role of women in access, use and control over resources. Having patriarchal context, males usually dominate in different resources as they have better access and authority to use than their females. In case of agricultural land, social system provides more cushion to males and as a result land use and related affairs are attached with their control over land. Likewise, is the case in labour markets and agricultural credit where females are not in good position. Many hindrances and discriminations block women’s way to have equal rights like males. They are paid low, late and deferentially as compared to men in labour markets. The cumbersome and lengthy process of getting loans with stringent requirements also pose challenges and limit access of women over getting such loans. Such scenario instigates women to approach non-institutional sources of finance though costly and even harmful for them. Women are not taking active participation in marketing of agricultural produce and this is one of the factors responsible for their weak position in the families and society. However, it is suggested to implement the existing legal cover and community engagement to motivate and sensitize women about their strength and rights. Gender balance in productive resources access, control and use will help developing agriculture sector of Kenya with improved standard of living for working women and their families.

Keywords: Access, Control, Equal Rights, Gender Balance, Productive Resources, Use & Women.

INTRODUCTION

What is Resource?
Resource is defined as a source from which any kind of benefits can be produced. Generally, resources can be divided in to four categories. Firstly, depending upon the availability of resources, they are divided into two categories as renewable and non-renewable resources.
Secondly, they can also be classified on the basis of development and use as actual and potential resources. Thirdly, on the basis of origin, they can be classified as biotic and abiotic, and fourthly resources can be classified on the basis of their distribution as private resources (that a person owns), community-owned resources (that community owns), natural resources and international resources. An item can change into a form of resource with time and developing technology. Resources are also included materials, energy, services, staff, knowledge, skills, or other assets that are shifted to produce benefits and in the utilization of them. It is believed that resources are always scarce and their efficient utilization is needed for generating benefits which can be multiple like increased wealth, better life standards, proper and smooth functioning of a system, or enhanced betterment of the consumers. So overall, resources are beneficial for society and they should be used for the betterment and welfare of human beings (Wana Gopa et al., 2011).

It is important to talk about productive resources which are defined as the resources, which are used to produce goods and services. Productive resources can be tangible and intangible and include physical, human, capital resources. Some other forms of productive resources include time management, stress and effort management and entrepreneurship. Generally, human efforts are used to convert ordinary resources into productive resources using their skills and knowledge. A positive approach is needed for such conversion. Talking about human resources it is important to talk about gender context, because it is said that both males and females have different potential to work and hence have different implications for productivity outcomes. Land, labour and capital are fundamental resources which have got importance especially for agriculture sector.

**Agricultural Land**
Land is directly linked with social status and political strength in social context. In Kenya’s social context it is considered as a symbol of power both within and outside the household. Land is also one of the major productive resource because from land, wealth and sustainable livelihoods are produced. Land can be used to achieve better livelihoods and to improve the standards of life. If we look at different aspects of distribution and control of property, unequal distribution of land is found among men and women and which generates one of the worse forms of inequality. Some indicators of fairness of land system as productive resource include access to land and ownership, control over land, and decision making about the use of land to check the equal distribution of property and land related rights. In most of the developing countries like Kenya, equal rights of land use and control over production of land by women have not attained much consideration (Anwar et al., 2001). Women are mostly excluded from direct benefits and indirect benefits of land. Direct benefits include benefits like control over decision that what is and should be produced on that land, while indirect benefits include right to credit, make use of that credit according to their own choice.

**Land Tenure System in Agriculture Sector of Kenya**
Land tenure is defined as legal administrated system in which land is possessed by an individual (tenant) for use from the land owners. Land tenure defines who can use land, for how long and under what conditions. Tenure systems includes both formal or official and informal systems. Formal system consists of laws and governmental policies whereas informal system consists of customs and traditions. The word tenure is derived from the French word "tenir" means "to hold" and "tenant" is the present participle of "tenir". All private owners are either its tenants or sub-tenants. As such, tenure shows the relationship between tenant and owner, not the relationship between tenant and land.
Land Tenure Types in Kenya
In Kenya land is categorized as state land, privately held land or land subject to communal rights or village common land under customary law. If a land has no rightful owner it is devolved in the county government if existed within a county, or with the national government if situated outside the county jurisdiction (GOK, Constitution 2010; UN Habitat 2012b). Major tenure types in agricultural systems of Kenya are summarized as follows;

Individual Ownership: Ownership is the most common form of tenure system in Kenya. Private individuals and persons can take ownership rights to land, and communal ownership rights according to customary law (Anwar et al. 2005; World Bank 2007a; GOP 2006a).

Landlordism and Tenancy: it means to take land on rent or lease for use. It is a common practice in the agriculture system of Kenya. These lease arrangements are made on contract of one year and sometimes more than one years with fixed leasing amount for the period. Most of such arrangements are unwritten and informal in nature. In Kenya, almost 26 percent of tenant farmers hold leases (Anwar et al. 2005; FAO 2011c).

Communal Land Ownership: This type of tenure is common for small and medium sized portions of agricultural land (less than 30 hectares). According to rough estimation, 71 percent of Kenya’s marginal areas especially pastoral regions is communally owned and 84 percent of households with communally owned land tenure are feared to live under poverty line (Jamal, 2017). Communally owned land tenure systems are often transferred from one generation to other, over time through clans, kinship and family ties. These kinds of relationships prove beneficial for both young generation and old generation (Khan et al. 2017). Communal land ownership helps to solve problems of landlessness and land disputes (Anwar et al. 2005; Khan et al. 2017).

Legal Arrangements for Agricultural Land in Kenya
Statutory laws: Kenya like many other developing countries has constituted laws to protect women’s land rights. Though these formal laws by themselves are not enough because there is need to implement those laws, only formal law cannot bring noticeable change in society (USAID, 2008; ARD, 2006). Under the statutory law, women in Kenya have a legal right to own land and according to religious and customary laws, women also have right to own land. However, if we look at the participation of women in labor force, women are involved in 72.7 percent of the agricultural labor force (UNDP, 2016c). But in spite of being involved in agricultural labor force, most of the women do not own land. Women own only 4 percent of land (either alone or having share with someone) as compared to 31 percent of men and it shows very unequal distribution (UNDP, 2016d).

Customary laws: In some countries, governments have acknowledged and supported customary laws in ways that put emphasis on the rights of women (FAO, 2007; Fitzgerald, 2005). Most of the women in Kenya do not inherit land in spite of existence of constitutionally protected land right. They are often harassed or threatened with violence if they do not surrender their rights to land and property. Land distribution patterns among women are different in rich and small land holders. Women belong to landed families may be more likely to inherit land rights, to avoid land redistribution policy (Khatak, 2010).
Empirical research shows that poverty and land ownership have an inverse relationship. Poverty can be decreased by increasing the land ownership especially among women, so women’s lack of access to land and equal property rights could become the major causes of poverty. While there are significant variations in land ownership rights depending on the status of women, it is generally observed that women’s access to land is facilitated by men tied with her role as a daughter, sister, wife or mother. Women are given these rights on fulfilling the set of responsibilities which are defined by men who owns that land (Crowley, 2001). Customary laws also protect the rights of widow by allowing them to use their land rights including land utility and control over land, until they got married again or their children come up to the age of 18. Land ownership of women depend upon the practices of that family from which women belong, daughters may have land rights but half than the son (Ali, 2015). In addition, following the norms and principle of obedience, women often do not challenge male relatives who grab their land rights as they really do not want to become the cause of disappoint for their parents because they do not want to lose the love and support of other family and relatives (Ahmad et al. 2016). Another culturally accepted thought is that women that believe that they received dowry instead of land, so they give up from the right of land (Khatak et al., 2010).

Islamic Law: According to Islamic law or Shariah, there are clear instructions about assets rights for women including land. Women have a definite share in inheritance, have right to own land, though less than that of male, but this practice is not truly implemented in society. Religious parties that work for implementing Shariat throughout Kenya do not have much emphasize on this issue. The state sees it a private concern and just focuses on agricultural policies while not taking serious note of women’s rights.

International Conventions: According to the Article 17 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights “Everyone can enjoy the right to own property alone, as well as in association with others. No one will randomly be deprived of property rights.” While Article 16 of CEDAW focus on those countries need to take suitable and quick steps to “eradicate discrimination and make sure for the same rights for both genders in respect of the ownership, attainment, management of land, administrative decisions of land, enjoyment of property.” Article 14 of CEDAW, protects the land rights of rural women by supporting for their equal treatment in land reforms and land relocation schemes. The International agreement on Social, Economic and Cultural Rights appeals for states to make sure that women have full and equal access to income generating resources like the right to own credit and use of credit according to their own choice, access to technology and land/ property.

The Constitution of Kenya: It is written in the constitution of Kenya that all citizens can enjoy the right of property and land ownership. Islamic law and Shariah also insist on land rights for women. Thus, international laws as well as national laws support for women’s right to land ownership, yet the ratio of women who own land is very low and fewer have effective control over land. In 2011, Parliament, according to Criminal Law Amendment Act, passed The Prevention of Anti-Women Practices which among other provisions bans depriving women from getting any movable or immovable property which is transferred to them inherently including land.

It is an admitted fact that Kenyan society is a patriarchal society practicing unequal patriarchal social norms across the country depending on area of residence (urban/rural). The patriarchal norms can vary according to region, province, and family system. If we make comparison of rural and urban women regarding right to own land. In urban areas, qualified and professional
women are increasingly purchasing plots in their own names, but rural women’s ownership of land seems to be rare in most areas, despite of having the knowledge of provisions in customary and Islamic laws that clearly provide such rights. Men are supposed to own and control land and other family resources (Mehdi, 2002; SDPI, 2008b; Khatak et al., 2010; Malik, 2013).

**Relationship between Women Social Status and Land**
The patterns of women involvement in agricultural activities in Kenya differ from one region to another, also women’s role in managing land differ from one ethnic group to another. The status of women regarding involvement in agriculture and land related issues vary according to the social class. Traditional role of women is acknowledged by landless farmers in sowing, weeding and harvesting, and said women have always been active part of the agricultural labor force. In upper classes the involvement of women has been going through change now women do not go to fields or do not take part directly in agricultural activities. Women are mostly involved in field crops production. Generally, rural women are involved in directly in non-economic activities like preparing the land, sowing seeds, weeding, harvesting and transportation of farm produce while men are involved in economic activities such as purchasing farm inputs, land preparation using farm machinery, marketing and making major decisions on which type of crops to be grown. According to FAO (2016) women economic dependency on men make them stand at the risk to violence and less access to income generating activities.

**Agricultural Labour**
Mostly women are involved as laborers in different agricultural activities. They face different circumstances and challenges. Labor work is of two types, one is paid work and other is unpaid work. Unpaid work consists of all productive activities outside the official labor market. Unpaid work is not paid any kind of wages or payments. Unpaid work is done by individuals for their own households or for others persons. Unpaid work depends on the willingness of the worker. These activities are considered productive in the sense that they use available resources to fulfill human needs. But there is no recognition of unpaid work and most of the unpaid work is done by women. Unpaid work includes care for children and for sick and old people, preparing food, washing, cleaning, voluntary community work or work in NGO’s, agricultural participation, help in family businesses, building the house for family etc. (Bruyn-Hundt, 1996).

In spite of making progress from last two decades, participation of Kenyan women in labor force is still low than other countries. Even women achieving higher level of education are not participating in labor force. Only 25% university degree holder women go outside the home to work. Due to the social norms, culture and social security issues women mostly do unpaid jobs and are not involved in paid employment. Almost 40% of women who are not working report that the main reason for this is that male family members do not permit them to work outside the home. According to a survey 15% women said that they do not want to work outside the home, some women said that they are not allowed to go outside home alone and 30% said that they want to work but inside the home (Ray, 2000).

**Labour and Gender Segregation**
Gender segregation is defined as difference in participation of male and females in different occupations and activities. Males are usually treated as superiors to females, because females are treated as inferior and weak sex. This gender difference is the basic cause of this segregation. A study by UNDP (2015) It was found that due to some religious, social and
cultural restraints women are restricted to participate in labor market and activities. It was further found that in Kenya there are inequalities between men and women earnings and their access to labor market. The major reasons behind these disparities are cultural barriers, lack of education and experience. These gender segregations exert great impact on motivation, satisfaction, enthusiasm and stress level of the labor force.

**Seasonal Variation of Labour**

There are variations in demand and supply of labour in agriculture sector especially women. Demand exceeds than supply in sowing and harvesting seasons. This results in greater demand for female labour force. This is the time when labour is assumed to have better bargaining position than normal days. Female labour is mostly engaged in vegetables, livestock and other crops. They are involved in nursery transplantation, harvesting/ picking, and cleaning of the produce including grading.

**Access and Control over Labour**

Women perform productive chores in agriculture, at farm as well as in home. In agricultural work women are involved in taking care of livestock, busy in seed management, plantation, and also are engaged in processing and marketing of agricultural products. In livestock farming, women provide fodder to the animals, clean the dung and also take care of animals. Women are also taking care of sheep, goats or rabbits, raising poultry and are also performing the responsibility for breeding and nurturing the animals.

As far as access and control over labour is concerned, mostly rural labour which is engaged in agriculture is accessed through a group which is generally headed by a male contractor. That contractor set the terms of engaging labour like working hours, wages and other conditional ties. That person also exert control over female labour in terms of decision to send them to work, working hours and other nature of work in agriculture sector. The findings of the survey in Kenya showed that most of the women workers were satisfied with such arrangement because they think they themselves are not able to make bargaining and other arrangements including logistics (Republic of Kenya, 2017).

**Why Women have Less Access to Labor**

Now the question arises that why women have less access to productive resources and labor force participation? The experiences from all around the globe tell, that women participation in the labor market is less than men. According to a very recent survey in 2017, women’s global participation in labor force is 26.5 percentage points lower than of men (UNDP, 2017). Similar is the case with Kenya, where very low percentage of women labour actually participates in various economic activities and these further declines in case of agriculture where a nominal percentage of labour is engaged. The major reasons identified during survey of rural labour in Kenya are traditional approach, social taboos, lack of education and male domination in rural areas. However, lack of resources, reasonability of taking care of their families, and some economic obligations in terms of loans forces women to participate in various agricultural activities.

**Labour Migration**

Migration is defined as movement from one place to another. International Labour Organization defined labour migrant as a person who moves from one country to another for the purpose to have employment over there and to earn livelihood for his family. Labour migration sector is also male dominated, mostly male members of society move out of their homes for earning purpose (ILO, 2015). In context of women access to resources, migration
for women is not a decision which is independent of their families. Usually they take decision to migrate either in consultation with their males or due to their males. But in some circumstances, when a woman becomes widow, she may have to change her residence and move back to her parent family. In case of agricultural labour, women move with their group and sometimes migrate on temporary basis.

Wages of Women in Agriculture Sector of Kenya
The situation of unpaid women labour force in rural areas of Kenya is not very good. According to a report by United Nations named as Rural Women in Kenya status 2018, around 67 percent of women are involved in agricultural work in the rural areas of Kenya, while 60 percent of their work is being considered as unpaid (UN, 2018). The report explored that the ratio of women involved in unpaid work is higher among rural women as compared to urban women, only one percent women are entrepreneurs in the country while 20 percent rural women are classified as own account workers. Women access to loans for their own business is also limited.

Another element of the wage payment of female workers is the variation in amount of pages and their payment period. In Kenya, wages do not base on professional skills. Researches have shown women those are highly skilled and are working in low-wage sectors such as agriculture. Not only they have less opportunities for work, but also have to face unequal wage structure. In Kenya, wages are related to gender, not working skills. It was found in Central Kenya, that most of the female workers were getting almost half less than their male counterparts. Though the nature of work varies but still payment to these female workers is not according to work being taken from them. These female workers are also paid late, and most of the workers said that even they complained about that to their employers but they never feel the grudge and continue their practice. Another aspect of the wages for women explored that wages are not being given according to national minimum wage policy especially in agriculture sector. Minimum wages bill was passed by the national government in 2015, according to that wages were raised from Ksh. 6,000 to Ksh. 9,000.

Labour /working conditions (sexual harassment, pension, social protection, child labour, contracts)

Working Conditions at Work Places
Much of the agricultural work involves physical force and it takes time and consumes energy as well. And because of unrecognized and unvalued work, women face exploitation by the owners of land. Women are mostly involved in field work like sowing and preparing nursery, transplanting nursery, harvesting, using pesticides and chemical fertilizers and also in livestock care. Most of these tasks are dangerous in terms of their exposure to stakeholders. Females are exposed to such hardship cases and suffer from various injuries and diseases which include skin problems, backache, allergies, and also some serious cases of asthma and cancer. Working women are not provided with basic precautionary measures or any first aid if they got injured on the working place (Nadia, 2017). Another aspect is the non-compensation for such cases, if suffered from events like these, female workers are not offered any medical or other compensation or allowance by their employers. Female workers are also exposed to extremes of weather either hot or cold. Misery of the situation is that their children especially the kids are also not free of such hardships. Kids usually accompany their parents especially mother while they work in their fields. And as such children also suffer from exposures to such risks. In the field, it was observed most of the
owners do not give any precautionary training or instrument to their employees to protect themselves from such risks and even if some of them give such material that is not being used by the female workers and reasons recorded were their hesitation and socio-cultural barriers.

**Sexual Harassment**
In developing countries as Kenya, where society is strongly male dominated, women face difficulties in every sector and one situation is harassment at workplace, at home (may be in the form of violence) or at any other public place (Sadruddin, 2013). In addition, due to the patriarchal system and male dominant social structure, harassment is not being considered as inhuman and immoral act against women. It is observed at workplaces like fields, farms, factories and offices but affected females do not usually complain or raise voice against that because lack of resources and social power (Sadruddin, 2013). Another important issue in Kenya is that most of the males don’t want to discuss on this issue and like is the case with females. But some of the NGOs and public sector development agencies are now working to spread awareness about the topic and also about the remedies.

**Child Labour**
Child labour is not very common in agriculture but present in some field activities where some young boys and girls are engaged to perform various tasks. These children usually accompany their families while doing work at fields and it is very rare that children are engaged separately on work places especially in agriculture. Major factors explored from the field for the engagement of children in work include economic crisis, big family size and in some cases the broken families. These children face the similar situation like other agricultural labour as they are provided with nominal wages, no protection at work and even no respect by their employees. Sometimes they are physically punished and harassed too.

**Social Protection**
Social protection is an important concern of labour force and specially for female workers. It is one of the essential rights of labour but seldom observed truly in the field. Though legal cover is provided but not exercised at grass root level. Most common social protection is the social pressure by the peers. In case of any problem, the elders of the labour group or head of the family take up the responsibility to provide social protection. Even if any woman faces any sort of harassment, their parents or head of the group will proceed for social justice not herself.

**Agricultural Markets**

**Access to Markets**
Women are the important part of society and society cannot move smoothly without the equal participation of women. Women participation in economic activities can boost up growth process and development of nations. Women entrepreneurship has been mostly acknowledged all around the world as an important mean for economic growth and development of the country’s economy. Though in Kenya, women are working in agriculture sector, but their participation is rare in marketing affairs. Mostly marketing is performed by males. Kenya has introduced some marketing reforms for agricultural commodities but access of women to those markets is still questionable. Few women participate in marketing work and that for too not trading just in some of the market aids like cleanliness etc. However, in some urban markets which are held on weekly basis in some town, woman sellers come and sell agricultural commodities particularly vegetables.
Sexual Division of Labour to Market

Researches have shown that women’s participation in income generating activities can help them to raise their status in achieving empowerment (Rose, 2008). Believing this, woman, to some extent participate in marketing activities of the agricultural products. Mostly males perform strenuous or physical work whereas females perform some allied work like they are involved in cleaning, grading and packing the commodities. Further they are also involved in cleanliness of markets, to some extent. Males, on the other side, perform physical work like loading, deloading, handling, weight lifting etc.

Gender Power Relations in Marketing

Women farmers and entrepreneurs face many difficulties including access to productive resources, low wages or low prices of their produce, limited access to market, transportation problems etc. (Gurung, 2006). Power lies with males in making any decision related to marketing of agricultural produce. Mostly women are involved in vegetable production activities. Vegetable picking, preparing and cleaning are predominantly considered the activities related to females (Hassan et al, 2002). It is anticipated that with the introduction of vegetable production, the demand for women labour force will increase (Taj et al., 2006).

Women are not much involved and also have limited access to marketing of agricultural products, as mentioned earlier. But, women are involved actively in selling the livestock products such as chicken, eggs and milk. It was estimated from the field that women were intensively involved in marketing of above mentioned products than males. Unfortunately, women are involved in production and harvesting activities, but they are not free to take decisions by their own, they still have to follow those boundaries which are defined by men of society and their household (Jamali & Kwoja, 2015).

Public or Private Marketing Initiatives (Chambers of Commerce)

In Kenya, some marketing reforms are being introduced to strengthen the budding entrepreneurs and marketing improvements are also part of such initiatives. As there are no labour union in agriculture sector but they are present in industrial sector though they have almost no women representation. Considering the constraints faced by women, establishment of Kenya Chamber of Commerce and Industries was a step up which got much appreciation in the country. However, its main emphasize is on industrial activities but it is expected to concentrate on agricultural related aspects of women engagement as well.

Major Challenges in Marketing and Way Forward

Following are some of the challenges and recommendations faced by women in marketing sector.

*Mobility*: The first challenge is lack of mobility. Women in our society, are not given permission to go outside home as according to their desire and need as men are free to move anywhere. And women cannot travel in local public transport alone, reasons are that family does not allow them and also due to social security and safety reasons. This limitation put constraints on their access to markets which should be resolved by providing equal access to them.

*Employment*: Lack of employment opportunities and equal access to employment opportunities are also big issues for women. If they get some work, they don’t get equal wages. It is therefore suggested to provide them equal opportunities and facilities with on job protection.
*Self-Exclusion:* Women are socially excluded at different stages, in different situation by different sectors. It has been estimated that 19 percent of Kenyan women are financially excluded. Most of the common reasons behind this exclusion are poverty, religious beliefs and lack of awareness. Again, they should be provided equal rights.

*Financial Literacy:* Often women have no awareness of the services which are available and can be used. They have little awareness about how to handle credit productively for their work or businesses. They must be literate to use their rights for their betterment.

*Discrimination:* Women get very less amount of financial assistance and aid because there is a lot of gender discrimination found in related institutions. Such discriminated practices should be discouraged by the business persons, social leaders and common citizens.

*Agricultural Credit/Finance*

Most of the stakeholders involved in agricultural related activities directly or indirectly face financial constraints and for that they usually need some alternative solution like financial support. According to filed findings, financial stress is one of the major constraints in women empowerment and access to other productive resources.

**Major Sources of Finance**

*Non-Institutional sources of credit:* Since ancient times non institutional credit markets are playing an important role in rural areas of the region comprises of Kenya (Shehla et al, 2007). In Kenya, women have greater access to non-institutional sources of credit as they have groups for table banking (Jan et al, 2012). Men have little access to institutional sources of credit because a few have formed groups others use property as collateral to access credit from businessmen (Nouman et al, 2013).

*Institutional sources of credit:* Institutional sources are defined as those sources which needs some proper procedure, documentation and guarantee to get any type of credit. There are many commercial banks such as Kenya Commercial Bank (KCB), National Bank of Kenya (NBP) Cooperative Bank Equity bank among others which offer agricultural credit. Other sources include microcredit banks, SACCOS, AFC, crop boards which offer credit to farmers at subsidized rates and conditions of repayment (Jan et al., 2012). Commercial Banks are also playing an important role for the provision of agricultural credits. It offers a number of special loan programs, including production loans, development loans, agricultural loans, off-farm income generating loans and cottage industry loans. It also helps farmers to buy new technology (Khandker and Faruqee, 2003).

**Agricultural Credit Types**

There are three types of agricultural credits offered institutional sources of finance in Kenya (Fayaz et al., 2006; Rehman et al., 2015).

* a) Short term credit:* This type of credit is provided to farmers to purchase the farm accessories like improved seed varieties, fertilizers, pesticides, etc. This credit is given for 18-month period.

* b) medium-term credit:* This type of credit is provided to purchase the livestock and modern implements and improvements in water courses. The duration of this loan scheme is 1 to 5 years.
c) **Long-term credit:** It is provided to buy tube wells, building, machinery etc. The duration of this scheme is for a period 5-7 years (Iqbal et al., 2003; Kabir et al., 2006).

**Credit Needs vs. Credit Utilization**
Kenya’s economy is based on agriculture. When the prices of technology and agricultural equipment like machinery, fertilizers, pesticides and good variety seeds increase, the need for credit also increases especially for small farmers (Chandio et al., 2016). Other reasons include delayed sale of agricultural produce, weak financial position of farmers and limited resources to deal with risk management on behalf of most of the farmers. Different banks which offer agricultural credit to stakeholders have their own system of estimating credit needs and required documentations and guarantees. Women can access to credit advanced by either institutional or non-institutional sources.

Credit utilization is a separate thing which needs special attention if policy makers want to anticipate any outcome by credit offering to farmers. Mostly in case of women in agriculture, credit is taken by them but decision to use that credit lies with their males. This situation usually results into non-productive utilization of credit. These credit amounts are then used for some non-agricultural purposes which surely show no development effects.

**Condition for Accessing Credit**
Agricultural credit plays vital role for the women and men of rural areas. But the problem is that the conditions of accessing credits are very difficult so the rural people and especially women cannot have access to these credit sources easily. Usually institutional sources need some sort of guarantee before advancing credit to women but due to meager resources, these women do not have the requisite and as such they fail to obtain credit from institutional sources. This motivates them to search for some alternate sources like non-institutional sources. There they have to pay higher interest rates, but advantage is that they get loan quickly on personal guarantee. One of the major reasons for this situation is low levels of education, lack of collateral and lack awareness among rural women. They should be provided with quickly accessible and easily understandable condition for getting credit. These steps can make instant changes in agriculture sector and can help women to make their lives better (Iqbal et al., 2003).

**Decision Making in Access and Control of Credit**
Women have almost no access over making the decisions about credit and control over credit. Mostly credits are considered the men’s task; women are not allowed to make such kind of money related decisions. This lack of access to credit and control really restrict women to flourish properly (Hanif et al., 2004). Males usually take decision to apply for loan, in some cases with consolation of their females. Once the loan is taken, then decision about its use and repayment etc. all will be taken by males.

**Challenges of Accessing and Utilization of Credit**
There are many challenges that rural women have to face to access to utilize the credit. Lack of guidance is the main reason for rural women as they have no guidance regarding sources, procedure and requirement of getting loans and they also don’t know which sector they can make better use of their credit. Social constraints also aggravate the situation, as society does not allow women to utilize credit according to their own wish. Males do not give freedom and right of utilization and decision making about credit use to their women. Low literacy levels
are also a great hurdle because women are not aware about their own rights so they can’t have control over the use of credit (Tariq, 2013).

Other resources
In addition to above mentioned major resources, in Kenya there are some other resources which must be taken into account in context of women empowerment.

Water
Water is one of the rapidly depleting precious resources especially for Kenya which is getting seriously hit by water scarcity in future. So, water management has become one of the core areas for agricultural policy whereas involvement of women is not only increasing but also getting importance. Women are playing vital role in water management in agriculture. They are also playing their part in land conservation, rainwater harvesting, and watershed management. In Kenya, both women and men use water for different purposes including domestic, agriculture, health and sanitation. Men are generally concerned with use of water for agriculture and livestock whereas women deal with the water that is used for domestic purposes. But now women are also playing their role in water management and using agricultural water, but their work is unpaid and remain unvalued in mostly cases. Access to water is directly linked with land right and has devastating effect on women farmer’s productivity and income. Mostly in rural areas, men are considered linked with agricultural water because they are in better position regarding their ownership to resources including land which are required to have legitimacy over use of irrigation water.

Equal access to agricultural water can empower rural women and can solve the root causes of poverty and gender inequality. It can also help to give a feel of gender equality and women liberty. Access to land and water are directly linked with women having less access to land rights can become the cause of their lack of access to agricultural water. This is one of the major reasons of poverty in those homes which are headed by females. Agricultural water resource management can serve as a pathway towards gender equality, it can reduce gender inequality and can improve the inferior status of women. The requirement is to recognize the role of women as farmers and irrigators and focus on addressing their issues. Involvement in irrigation will increase their access to productive resources, services and decision-making spheres.

CONCLUSION
Access to and use of productive resources is crucial for gender balance and development in agriculture. Land, labour, capital, markets, water etc. are important resources and Kenya is lucky to have enough amounts of all these resources, but unfortunately poor management of resources is hindering in the way of desired outcomes. Women empowerment is slogan which will remain in complete without effective access and use of productive resources by women, who are around fifty percent of the total population. Women in Kenya’s agriculture sector face different issue of ownership and use in land, have discriminations in labour market and challenges in agricultural credit as well. Water management and marketing are two potential and emerging areas where female focus needs to be diverted to enhance benefits form this sector.
REFERENCES


PART 6
HIGHER EDUCATION
ABSTRACT
Higher education which involves all types of training and research endeavours, undertaken at the post-secondary school level has evolved over the years giving rise to the development of individuals and their societies as well as fostering economic growth. Government bodies and institutions like UNESCO have contributed immensely to promote the activities of higher education. Higher education faces various challenges especially in the developing countries at various phases but there is no doubt that there are greater hopes and aspiration for the advancement of higher education for the betterment of the society.

Keywords: Development, Higher education, Research & Training.

6.1 INTRODUCTION: WHAT IS HIGHER EDUCATION?

The term Higher Education has an open-ended semantic coverage such that, various definitions have been provided for it, with some quite extensive and broad having different implications depending on the perspective or angle of interest from which it is viewed.

In the world declaration on Higher Education adopted by the world conference on Higher Education in 1998, higher education was defined as, “all types of studies, training or training for research at the post-secondary level, provided by universities or other educational establishments that are approved as institutions of higher education by the competent state authorities”. Institutions like UNESCO, the World Bank, UNDP and others use this basic definition.

On a broader or more comprehensive scale, Encyclopaedia Britannica presents Higher education as any of the various types of education given in postsecondary institutions of learning and usually affording, at the end of a course of study, a named degree, diploma, or certificate of higher studies.

Higher Education is provided at universities, academies, colleges, seminaries, conservatories and Institutes of technology. Also, higher education is available through certain college-level institutions, including vocational schools, trade schools and other career colleges that award academic degrees or professional certificates.

Tertiary education at non-degree level is sometimes referred to as further education or continuing education as distinct from higher education. In this chapter our focus on Higher Education will examine the aims and purposes of higher education, the evolution, trends and roles of Higher Education in the society, issues in higher education, UNESCO and higher education, higher education in Cameroon: A unique situation and then conclusion.
6.1.1 Aims and purpose of higher education

Higher education includes teaching, research, exacting applied work (e.g. in medical and dental schools), and social services activities in universities. This aspect of teaching in Higher Education include the undergraduate and post-graduate levels. The undergraduate level is accomplished between three and four years after which there is the post graduate level of education.

The different degrees obtained at the Higher Education are each associated with various specific skills. These skills which are quite extensive are each associated with a wide range of specialties, to the extent that, graduates from any specialization alongside the specific skills obtained in their various disciplines are each expected to show evidence of critical thinking and analytical reasoning skills, information literacy, ethical judgement, decision making skills, fluency in speaking and writing, problem solving skills, and a wide knowledge of liberal arts and sciences for greater marketability in the current very competitive atmosphere of job seekers of today’s world—especially in the developing countries. Higher Education is important to national economies, both as an industry in its own right, and a source of trained and educated personnel for the rest of the economy. In a nutshell, higher educational institutions—most prominently universities have three functions in total. These include, education, followed by research and contributions to society. The research and education functions are two sides of a coin in the sense that, research makes higher level education possible and education in turn, develops the human resources to do research. In recent years, the society has been making greater demands on Higher Education. This is in the form of contribution from higher education institutions such that cumulated knowledge acquired is transformed into meaningful activities and circulated directly back into the society to optimize the living standards of member of the society resulting to economic growth. There has been accentuation in science and technology. In fact, much emphasis has shifted towards technical and vocational training highlighting what is called professionalization in higher education especially in the developing countries.

6.1.2 Evolution, trends and roles of higher education in the society

Higher education has evolved and developed following the environments and needs of the societies in which they are based even though impacted by western models of universities. Due to rapid changes which characterize the recent quest for a knowledge based society from an industrial one, it is realized that these have great effects on higher education. Therefore, in the wake of social, economic and information globalization, increased demand for higher education and changes in the political and social environment of developing countries all strongly linked, have influenced higher education in significant ways. Higher education is called upon to play a pivotal role in the transformation from industrial society characterized by mass production industries based on established technology to the new knowledge based society whereby, soft and hardware innovation creation take their place. Modern knowledge application results to accelerated economic growth.

Therefore, in the modern knowledge based societies, it is incumbent for higher education institutions to assume their traditional roles as cradles of knowledge creation, dissemination and application in the form of modern technologies for a generally improved economic welfare.

Due to strides made in information technology in recent years, movement of people, goods, money and information has been facilitated and globalization of the world economy has increased tremendously. There has also been a great rise in demands for higher education. This
is essentially so, due to the fact that, there has been the dire need to acquire and master new knowledge and technology. Again, the rise of a society based on educational credentials has given rise for the need of demands for higher education. Higher education is expected to contribute to the development of a healthy civil society and the cultivation of social cohesion following changes in the political and social environment especially for the developing countries.

Furthermore, higher education plays an outstanding role in the means of self-realization. In this regard, higher education is an avenue for developing the human resources necessary for economic development. It is also a means for accomplishing self-realization for individuals. In real terms, individuals can improve their income and quality of life through increasing knowledge or skills and later expand on their own opportunities available in life, alongside those related to their work life. In addition, lifelong education, which constantly renews individual knowledge and skills, needs to be guaranteed throughout the life time to respond to individual learning needs.

Summarily, in the same manner that one should justify basic education for all, so there is the need to guarantee opportunities for higher education for everyone based on their hopes and abilities.

6.1.3 Trends in higher education
From the foregoing, some trends of higher education can be deciphered. It is observed that certain trends have characterized the evolution of higher education. The period after the second world war saw the creation and development of Higher educational institutions especially in the developed countries. Following the decolonization period of the 1960’s whereby many African countries gained independence there was a rapid establishment and growth of higher education institutions as there was great need to produce leaders for both the government and private sectors of the new states. This process continued up to the early 1980s.

However, from later 1980s to early 1990s there was a slowdown in higher education due to the world economic depression. Much emphasis was placed on the promotion of basic education. This culminated to the events of 1990 whereby, “The world conference on Education For All (EFA) was held in Thailand and a consensus for Education For All was reached.

From the latter part of the 1990s, rapid globalization of society and information technology revolution brought about changes in the society. The role of higher education was re-evaluated and accentuated due to the fact that the importance of knowledge in economic and social development had evolved.

The world bank played a critical role in this regard as it took for its theme in its annual world development report for 1998/99 “knowledge for development” and discussed the role of knowledge in promoting economic and social development. In connection to the field of education, the report stated: “To narrow knowledge gaps, societies must ensure basic education for all and provide opportunities for people to continue to learn throughout their lives.”

In October 1998 as this movement to re-evaluate the role of higher education was strengthening the World Conference on Higher Education (WCHE) was held in Paris led by UNESCO. In this conference, much discussion was undertaken on the future of higher education and various articles were signed by participants to forge on with the amelioration of higher education.
6.1.4 Issues in higher education
Despite the evolution of higher education and the significant roles it is called upon to play in the advancement of modern society especially in the promotion of economic growth, it is observed that certain issues which characterize it affects its potential in the realization of its goals. These issue range from enrolment expansion and disparities, limited financial resources, declining quality to diversification in needs. The various issue will be addressed in turns:

6.1.4.1 Enrolment expansion and disparities between groups
It is observed that there has been a tremendous growth in the number of enrollees into higher education. Statistics from Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) reveal that the number of higher education enrollees in 1960 which stood at twelve million rose to eighty-eight million by 1997 indicating a sevenfold increase. It is also important to note that this growth is most remarkable in the developing countries as compared to the developed countries.

From the above quoted source, it is also stated that this increase is to the extent that Africa alone has a twenty-four-fold increase, followed by Latin America with a sixteen-fold increase, while Asia and the Pacific have an eleven-fold increase. Although there has been a remarkable increase in the number of enrollees into higher education, it is noted that disparities exist amongst enrollees in terms of gender according to male and female as well as different ethnic groups. To upset the male versus female gender disparity, there is the need for the creation of more awareness and substantial assistance to be made for more females to pursue higher education.

6.1.4.2 Limited financial resources
The issue of limited financial resources is very crucial to the discussion of the development of higher education. Despite the fact that there has been great increase in the demand for higher education, it is observed that, this increase has not been matched with a corresponding rise in the budgets allocated for higher education. Higher education institutions face crisis associated with limited budgets and this constantly put administrators of these institutions in very awkward situations as they are unable to meet the needs of the institutions. Apart from South Africa, many higher education institutions in Sub-Saharan Africa experience severe financial crisis which hamper the smooth running of these institutions. This results to rampant strike actions undertaken by students, academic and non-academic staff, causing a lot of instability in the system. The cases of higher education institutions in Nigeria and Cameroon are evidence.

To cope with the problems of financial shortages there is the need to make the students finance some of the expenses incurred in the running of these institutions. Some of the final products of the institutions could be marketed to generate funding. These include products from the different workshops, agricultural products from the schools of agricultures and many others. There is need to seek funding from various organizations and better placed countries. The need to design programs with high cost performance through making use of information and communication technology is a good option.

6.1.4.3 Declining quality
A burning issue which affects higher education due to its expansion is the decline in quality. This decline in quality is very obvious in the developing countries. It is worthy to note that to
secure quality education and at the same time meet the extended demand for higher education, there is need to address some problems associated with aspect of higher education.

Some of these aspects will be discussed in turn. In this regard there is the need to examine the teacher aspect. Many teachers are over laden with too many courses offered at different levels such that their performances fall below expectations. They hardly find time to carry out research to enhance their knowledge and methodology. Furthermore, it is impossible to address the needs of all the students when they are many, as well as the fact that crowded classrooms present a management challenge.

Another issue is the student aspect. On the part of the students, insufficient interaction with course masters due to overwhelming population adversely affect their performance. This could degenerate into many vices like corruption, insubordination, lack of zeal resulting to a decline in quality. The aspect of facilities is note-worthy. Due to expansion with no corresponding increase in budgets, there is bound to be shortage in facilities. Such facilities include lecture rooms, laboratories, libraries and workshops for technical students just to name these. In fact, it is quite bewildering to learn that lecturers and students undertake lectures under trees and garage spaces for want of lecture rooms!

On the aspect of equipment, there is usually gross shortage of laboratory appliances and chemicals to meet the needs of the students. This result to cancellation of practical sessions such that at the end of the program the students are ill prepared. Along the same line of shortage in equipment, there are cases of scantily equipped workshops such that, students lack basic appliances to carryout practical exercises. All of these plus more give rise to declining quality in higher education.

6.1.4.4 Diversification of needs:
The next issue to be addressed is the diversification of the needs of the various individuals in the society. As a result of the expansion of higher education, increase complexity of the society and economy, there is the necessity for higher education to target the diverse backgrounds and needs of its students. It is observed that higher education needs to extend its levels of training to meet the extended and varied needs of students from diverse background. In as much as there is increase need for secondary school leavers to gain access into higher education institutions, there is need to provide space for the general public who also find the need to pursue training is different aspects of their lives and at various phases of their lives.

6.2 UNESCO AND HIGHER EDUCATION

6.2.1 Introduction
At this juncture, it is very important to examine the relationship that exist between UNESCO and higher education because UNESCO has contributed immensely in the advancement of the activities of higher education. The only UN agency which has a mandate with higher education is UNESCO. In this regard, therefore, UNESCO contributes to developing evidence-based higher education policies. In October 1998, following the re-evaluation of the role of higher education, the World Conference on Higher Education (WCHE) was held in Paris led by UNESCO. This conference had 2500 education specialists in attendance from 162 countries. At the conference, a declaration on higher education was adopted and a consensus was reached among the institutions involved on the importance of higher education and its future direction. The declaration contained seventeen articles delineating a future direction for higher education.
reform and priority action for change at three levels including national, systems and institutions and international levels. These respective levels have since been working in collaboration with UNESCO to evolve the course of higher education. In connection with the contribution of UNESCO and higher education, we will examine the following sub-topics: The role of UNESCO in higher education, higher education and the SDGs, policy reviews and quality and recognition of higher education qualification.

6.2.2 The role of UNESCO in higher education
UNESCO has done so much to foster the course of higher education. Its focus has been on developing countries notably in Africa whereby UNESCO supports national efforts to build inclusion and fairer and more sustainable development. Increasing globalization has given higher education a new dimension. Its action contributes to achieving the education 2030 Agenda and in particular target 4.3 of Sustainable Development Goal 4 for education.

UNESCO develops and monitors normative instruments; produces knowledge and information; promotes knowledge sharing across borders; facilitate policy dialogue; promotes and supports renovated research capacities in higher education institutions and contributes to enhanced national capacities. It facilitates the sharing of good practices and proven innovative approaches to widen access and equity to higher education, to reform curricula to match changing labour markets and sustainable development, and to address new digital learning and teaching.

UNESCO works with higher education stakeholders in member states (including policy-makers, higher education institutions, faculties and researchers, students, employers and regional economic bodies) to provide counsel on policy issues.

Through its UNITWIN/UNESCO chairs programme, UNESCO partners with higher education institutions to advance teaching, learning and research that supports the development of sustainable knowledge societies.

6.2.3 Higher Education and the SDGs
Sustainable Development Goal 4 (SDG4) of the seventeen sustainable Development Goals adopted in 2015 is dedicated to education. Higher education is mentioned in target 4.3 of SDG4 which aims to “By 2030, ensure equal access for all women and men to affordable and quality technical, vocational and tertiary education, including university.” Higher education also forms an important part of other goals related to poverty (SDG1); health and well-being (SDG3); gender equality (SDG5) governance; decent work and economic growth (SDG8); responsible consumption and production (SDG12); Climate change (SDG13); peace, justice and strong institutions (SDG16).

The way forward for SDG14 in the Education 2030 Framework for Action (FFA), has two central policy pillar which focus on monitoring and improving learning outcomes and those who are excluded.

The FFA calls for progress in connection with existing international agreements in favour of higher education and recognizes that a well-established, and well-regulated tertiary education system can improve access, equity, quality and relevance. It can also reduce the disparity between what is taught and what needs to be learned to ensure sustainable development and take advantage of technology, open educational resources and distance education.
Target 4.3 is officially monitored by the UNESCO Institute for statistics through the indicator “gross enrolment ratio for tertiary education.” At the same time, UNESCO is developing initiative at regional and national levels and working in close cooperation with donors, Member States and Stakeholders, to address Quality enhancement, internationalization and digital education. UNESCO considers equity an integral part of quality education and recognizes the efforts made by countries in this regard and that renewed efforts are needed to strengthen well-informed higher education systems based on strong normative instruments and institutions with a focus on access for all.

6.2.4 Policy reviews and quality assurance in Higher Education
Considering the major role that higher education plays in the development of any society and its economy there is the need to undertake policy reviews and ensure quality assurance. This happens as higher education use strategies which not only reiterate the values shared by the education system stakeholders but also provide a “health-check” of the system, compares it performance against others and particularly those that are well performing, communicates goals and future orientations, and expresses political commitments to advancement in this field. Quality assurance in higher education has come to the lime light the world over during the last two decades. The major reasons for the projection of higher education quality assurance include: Increased public demand for better performance of higher education institutions, widening of access and a clear call for stakeholders for greater efficiency and accountability, the need for better quality graduates to drive national economies, better use of public resources for higher education and increasing cross-border provisions. Some challenges in the endeavour include: a mismatch between higher education graduate skills and those demanded by the labour market and industry, and imbalance between the number of students studying sciences and those in arts based courses, as well as the proliferation of private providers. This has resulted to the building of capacity for equality assurance particularly in developing countries by UNESCO and its member states.

6.2.5 Digital Higher Education
In the wake of the digital education era, and its gross contribution to learning, higher education is called upon to upgrade such that it exploits the facilities provided by the new system. Therefore, there are new demands on higher education systems and institutions which include developing innovative curricular, study programmes and alternative learning pathways and routes to higher learning, all facilitated by online distance, open education, blended learning delivering models and short skills-based courses such as Massive Online Open Courses (MOOCs) and Open Education Resources (OERs). The potential of online learning in general, an in particular in the form of MOOCs, is enormous and builds new paths to higher education as well as expanding lifelong learning opportunities. It also helps to reduce individual and institutional educational costs by offering flexible alternatives.

This represents a key opportunity for content generators to improve quality and inclusion in higher education provision. Digital environments offer countries a strategic opportunity to contribute to meeting local needs and developing capacities related to them. The framework for action recommends that governments develop policies and programmes for the provision of quality, well-funded, technology-based, distance tertiary education, in particular through massive open online courses, that meet quality standards to improve access.
UNESCO provides technical support and advice on innovative approaches to widening access to higher education, courses and study programmes with an emphasis on developing new types of learning opportunities both on-campus and online. Support to faculty and teachers to adapt and develop traditional tertiary provision for online, distance and blended-learning modalities is provided. The focus of the UNESCO 3rd World Conference on Higher Education (2020) will be on universities as communities of lifelong learning.

6.2.6 Recognition of Higher Education qualification
UNESCO has lent a hand in the matter concerning the recognition of higher education qualifications. Since its creation, it has served as a global platform for discussion on the recognition of higher education qualifications as well as the promotion of academic mobility. A number of conventions have been established in connection with this. UNESCO provide technical support on regulation issues. This is done through the implementation and monitoring of regional conventions on the recognition of higher education qualifications as well as supporting member states to improve their quality assurance.

6.3 HIGHER EDUCATION IN CAMEROON (A UNIQUE SITUATION)
The introduction of higher education in Cameroon in this study is essentially because of its unique feature of bilingualism in education. The historical background of Cameroon which exposed it to two colonial masters, Britain and France left a legacy of Bilingual education in Cameroon. Following the end of colonisation and the departure of the colonial masters from Cameroon English and French were adopted as official language vestiges of the colonial heritage. With the multiplicity of national Cameroonian languages, the choice of English and French were seen as an easier option to resolve the linguistic factor in education Cameroon is made up of ten administrative regions. Two of the ten regions were administered as colonies of Britain known as British Southern Cameroon which got its independence on the 1st of October 1961. The other eight regions were part of the French colonies administered by France colonies administered by France and received independence on the 1st of January 1960. Two systems of education were implemented in the national territory at the Basic school level (which included Primary Secondary and high schools). Therefore, the former British colony undertook the English system of education with English as the medium of instruction while the former French colony implemented the French system of Education with French as the medium of instruction in schools. At that point the nation operated a two system federation states the English and French parts of Cameroon.

In 1962, to cater for post-secondary education in Cameroon the lone federal state university was opened in Yaounde, the federal capital. Post-secondary school graduates from the former British section of the country joint their compatriots from the French system to undertake higher education studies in the dominantly French lone state university of Yaounde. It was a very challenging and frustrating situation to many of the students who came in contact with French for the first time for educational purposes at that level. A good number of them dropped out and sought Post-Secondary educational possibilities outside the country for those who could afford it. Others ended their studies at that level. With the great increase in the population of the country, the lone state university could not handle the intake of those who sought to study at the university level. Therefore, in 1992/1993 a series of presidential decrees transformed the Higher Education landscape immensely by dissolving the university of Yaounde and creating six new state universities. Decree No. 92.074 of 13th April 1992 transformed the university centres of Buea and Ngaoundere into fully-fledged universities. Another decree, No. 93/026 of 19th January, created the universities of Yaounde I and II, of
Douala and of Dschang. It should be noted that prior to these presidential decrees creating fully-fledged universities in Buea, Ngoundere, Dschang and Douala, there were university centres in these places which acted as different faculties of the then state University of Yaounde. For example, the University centre of Dschang ran solely agricultural programmes as a faculty of Agriculture for the University of Yaounde before its transition into a full university with its different faculties. More so, worthy of note is the fact that of the six state universities created, one of them, the University of Buea was patterned in the Anglo Saxon model whereby post-secondary education students from English sub-systems of education could go there and pursue their university education in English.

Once more, on the 14th of December 2010, another presidential decree was signed. This was decree No. 2010/371 which created the University of Bamenda, the second Anglo-Saxon style patterned university of Cameroon. There was also the creation of the University of Maroua. Altogether, there are eight state universities in Cameroon of which two of the eight are patterned after the English models with a Vice Chancellor at the helm of each while four operate in both French and English and the other two in French. There are a number of private and mission state universities as well as other higher education institutions in the country.

The universities in Cameroon specifically were aimed at achieving among others, the following objectives;

- To provide universities with more academic and management autonomy;
- To provide all Cameroonians equal opportunity to obtain university education;
- To increase the participation of different stakeholders in financing higher education institutions;
- To expand and increase higher education opportunities and make university programmes more professional and more responsive to market forces;
- To make rational and optimal use of existing infrastructure, facilities and services.

Thus far, the higher education in Cameroon has been striving to attain its goals but also face challenges like many higher education institutions in the developing countries. In 2016, with the emergence of socio-political crisis which has since then degenerated into serious armed conflicts in the nation, higher education has embraced its own share of the problems.

6.4 CONCLUSION

From this study, it is evident that over the years, higher education has contributed immensely to foster development and to enhance economic growth. Its mission to educate, train and undertake research has evolved greatly. Innovative educational approaches and modern creations have advanced the course of development tremendously. Knowledge sharing within and across borders characterise new trends in higher education. In a nutshell, modern technology and advanced economies have reduced the world into a global village all thanks to the efforts of higher educational promoters. As a matter of fact, the challenges of the 21st century have their effects in the development of higher education, however, stakeholders continue to make efforts to advance the course of higher education.

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EXPANDING THE UNIVERSE OF AFRICAN UNIVERSITIES THROUGH THE SOCIAL LABORATORY

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ABSTRACT
The paper presents an expanded vision of INDUSTRY that encompasses a wider universe of the fruits of industriousness that yield socio-economic dividends to society. It aligns this expanded vision with the concept of SOCIAL LABORATORY that should break the barriers between Town and Gown. This is with a view to transforming African universities from isolated intellectual ghettos to socially-responsive, development-oriented functional social engineering institutions working in synergy with various strata of the productive and active sectors of wider society.

Discussions on university-industry linkage strategies have tended to lean heavily towards striking collaborative deals between higher institutions and big business, as represented by big time corporations. The dominant discourse has also dwelt more heavily on corporations aiding universities with funding and technical equipment, and sometimes with human capacity development.

This paper will attempt to broaden the scope of the discourse in three main dimensions. First, ‘industry’ goes beyond big business to include all manners and types of socio-economically productive activities – large, medium, small mini and micro. Second, ‘collaboration’ is a restrictive concept that should be replaced by synergy strategies that involve equal partnerships for mutual benefits. Thirdly, as implied in the synergy metaphor, the help required should not be uni-directional; the university should be helping ‘the world out there’ to become continuously more serviceable to Society, just as this ‘world’ would be helping higher education to enhance its relevance to societal needs.

The paper also discusses the concept of SOCIAL LABORATORY, which is a platform on which higher education should operate to reach out to the ‘world out there’, a world to which its owes the duty of responsive social engagement. This is with a view to addressing the issue of what are universities (and all higher educational institutions) there for—an issue of concern to all classes of socio-economically productive sector operators. The Social Laboratory also represents the expanded operational horizon into which today’s higher education must fit to enhance its usefulness to itself and its usefulness to wider Society.

AN EXPANDED VIEW OF ‘INDUSTRY’
Industry is the sum total of efforts relating to industriousness, especially in the socio-economic wealth creation and productive domain. It is not synonymous with factories. In today’s African environment, this domain is a very expansive one. It ranges from the transnational companies engaged in manufacturing, distributive and a variety of service enterprises through what is generally known as SMEs (small and medium enterprises) to a multitude of micro and mini
business ventures. Big business is big for the size of its capital while medium, small, micro and mini businesses are big because of their sheer superior number.

Figure one below is an attempt to illustrate the point that has just been made. The blue columns represent dominance from the financial strength point of view of big business, while the red columns represent the demographic dominance of small business.

![Figure 1: Relative Financial and Demographic Strengths of Big and Small Businesses in the African Setting](image)

This presentation canvases the point of view that ‘Industry’ should be seen as a combination of big and small business. The paper further postulates that future wealth creation in Africa would depend on small business, that this class of socio-economically productive activities would have to be empowered to absorb the teeming youthful population of Africa and that appropriate synergy strategies with higher institutions would be a royal road to the capacity building tasks ahead.

There has also been a declining influence of government as provider of employment. As figure 2 tries to illustrate, the trend in the past was for government to be the major provider of employment opportunities, with big business coming in as a distant second provider, and with medium, small and micro enterprises providing very little.

The emerging situation has changed this scenario radically. Government capacity to create employment opportunities directly is steadily declining. Big business is also not growing in terms of enhanced capacity for job creation. The small-medium category of enterprises is taking the lead while small-mini ventures are also on the rise, as large numbers of young persons are venturing into ‘start ups’ as a response to the prevailing situation of job scarcity in the midst of so much work to be done to enhance people’s welfare and to create wealth.
Figure 2 illustrates the point earlier made that the future direction for most African countries lies in the development of smaller-type businesses. Entrepreneurial and technical talents will be needed to champion socio-economic development in that direction. For this to happen, and for relevant and quality programmes of techno-entrepreneurial skills to be developed, appropriate university-industry synergy strategies would be helpful.

THE SOCIAL LABORATORY CONCEPT

The forgoing section makes reference to the ‘world out there’; referring to life and its daily activities in the real life of actively living people functioning in society and engaged in socio-economically productive activities. This is the world of the expanded meaning of ‘Industry’ that higher education must integrate and serve. The starting point lies in universities fine-tuning their missions in order to effect a paradigm shift, away from the ‘Ivory Tower’ ideology, as outlined in table 1.

Society—its structures and feature, its needs and aspirations, its natural, social and intellectual resources, its belief systems and organizational structures, its processes for meeting its needs, for keeping life going, effecting and managing change—must become the determiner and the determinant of the foci of attention of higher education.

This implies opening the intellectual tower gates to extra-academic actors, interacting systematically with these actors for mutual enrichment in the cause of knowledge management for the continuing development of Society and the continuous growth of knowledge.
Table 1: Universities Effecting a Paradigm Shift to a Social Laboratory Orientation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IVORY TOWER ORIENTATION</th>
<th>DESIRED SOCIAL LABORATORY ORIENTATION</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Disconnect from practical concerns of everyday life</td>
<td>• Embedded in the practical concerns of everyday life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Esoteric and over-specialised focus</td>
<td>• Easy to understand procedures, accessible to the average person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Useless (not easy to use) research</td>
<td>• Useable research, applicable to genuine societal challenges</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Academic elitism</td>
<td>• Participatory academic processes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Outright condensation</td>
<td>• Ready acceptance of other knowledge practitioners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• No lingua franca with laymen</td>
<td>• Closer link and mutual intelligibility of ‘academic’ and ‘practical’ language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Living in intellectual isolation</td>
<td>• Opening up to wider society</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Working in concert with ‘extra-academic’ actors</td>
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</table>

In summary, the social laboratory approach means that Society (of which the campus should be an integral part) should become the source from which relevant academic and intellectual engagements spring and the theatre in which the practical applications of academic-intellectual pursuits are translated into action for the sustained development of society.

The Social Laboratory concept extends beyond the world of business (big, small or mini) to the life, preoccupations and activities of CIVIL SOCIETY, defined by Wikipedia as

The "aggregate of non-governmental organizations and institutions that manifest interests and will of citizens. Civil society includes the family and the private sphere, referred to as the "third sector" of society, distinct from government and business at large’

The wide social space also encompasses all types of structures and institutions of Society into which education must neatly fit.

Why is the ‘world out there’ considered a Laboratory?
Society is not simply a melting pot of people. It is also the springboard for ideas, the platform for interpersonal communication and cooperative endeavours. It often witnesses the sprouting of ideas and often transforms ideas into products and services. It often creates opportunities for the trying out of ideas, the thrashing of complex issues, and frontal confrontation with divers challenges. Its challenges do task human ingenuity, often giving rise to innovations that help to advance human progress. In summary, the ‘world out there’ is the ideal learning space. Universities would be worth very little if they neglect this energizing resource.
Further still, *why do universities need to be an integral part of the Social Laboratory?*

Universities in Africa just must synergize with the Social Laboratory for reasons related to their continuing search for relevance

- Universities are an emanation of Society and so cannot be divorced from Society
- The Social laboratory is a veritable arena for sourcing and applying both tacit and codified knowledge
- To fit into today’s knowledge-innovation-driven, Economy, Universities would require a curriculum revolution for a society in which qualifications/certification count less than personal qualities
- The needed revolution must lead to the inculcation of 21st century skills (see table 2) by Universities
- Fitting into today’s world of work requires competence in both ‘social sense’ and ‘street sense’ as manifestly evident in the Social Laboratory.
- Today’s world of work also requires the inculcation of learning at the highest cognitive level (see Table 3)
- Today’s world requires a mind-set that follows the principle of ‘all hands-on deck’ calling for the educating ALL TALENTS, not just the simply ‘academic’. (See figure 3).

*A more compelling justification* is that non-university structures are progressively taking over the ‘quartiary’ education aspect of higher education. This they are doing from a solid base of synergizing with the real, practical world of ideas-into-action that is the hallmark of the Social Laboratory.

Knowledge has become the major component of human individual, social and corporate tool for productivity, wealth creation and sustainable human development. In a world in which we are all knowledge workers, all human activity would rely on knowledge for its continuous growth, while enterprises of all manners and forms would have knowledge as the main feature that would bestow on them any measure of comparative advantage. It then follows that knowledge generation, knowledge transmission and knowledge application (or sharing) are bound to become prime preoccupations of institutions and organisations outside the universities and other higher institutions, and in fact completely outside the formal education sector.

This point can be illustrated by examining the following concrete examples from developments in Nigeria:

1. Industry and commerce, with their growing emphasis on innovation and research and development (R and D) in support of a quest for competitive advantage
2. Continuous re-tooling and re-skilling of the work force in industry and commercial undertakings, involving continuous inculcation of new knowledge for continuous human resources development
3. Professional organisations with programmes of mandatory continuing professional development for practitioners, as a means of ensuring continuous updating in knowledge and skills
4. Intensive ICT-penetration in clinics, the public service, defence and security services, in banks, marketing outlets, publishing, journalism, air travel, hotel and catering
concerns, etch as a means of accessing and using knowledge to fast track business activities

5. Scientific and technical research laboratories and other specialised research activities in high performing industries – generating and applying and sharing knowledge to ensure continued high performance

6. Consultancy firms engaged in high level training for a wide variety of professions, all of which involve updating of knowledge and skills

7. The emphasis in all areas of human activity on ‘international best practices’, implying a continuous search for excellence.

8. Government owned research institutes in Education, Science, Technology, Agriculture, Medicine, the social sciences, strategic studies, military and police sciences (staff colleges), law, diplomacy, mass communication, management, etc., all of which are engaged in generating and transmitting knowledge for the benefit of high-level personnel

9. Public (academic/professional) lectures and related events now more likely holding in hotels and event centres than on campuses

10. Fellowships and other awards by professional bodies gaining increasing currency and higher recognition than academic degrees.

This long list is meant to emphasize the fact that modern society is replete with institutions outside the higher education nexus that are also concerned with knowledge generation, transmission and application. There is a growing tendency for socio-economic operators to rely more on these institutions than on the universities. The reason is that programmes of these institutions are considered as being of direct relevance to the needs of the work place. It is also because the work of these institutions rely more on the case-study/social laboratory methodology that uses the world of work as the main determinants of their curricula and pedagogy.

Higher institutions therefore face the challenge of enhanced relevance and responsiveness. They will need a rapprochement strategy that would draw their curricula and pedagogy more in alignment with the needs of the ‘world out there’ to remain afloat (i.e. enhance their competitive advantage) in a knowledge-intensive environment in which a wide variety of social laboratory institutions are stoutly challenging the monopoly of the ivory tower.

The reverse side of the coin: Why would the World out there need Universities?

The answer that readily comes to mind is that Industry would require a steady flow of skilled manpower from the Universities. More importantly, Industry is operating in a highly competitive environment that requires constant application of knowledge and innovation. More importantly still, this era of competitive advantage requires continuous refinement of systems and processes in every aspect of human endeavour. Universities (through their research function) are expected to be the source of knowledge and ideas that can engineer and sustain innovation. Through their teaching function, they are expected to align curricula and teaching to the ever-changing demands of the world out there. And, through their societal engagement functions, universities are expected to serve as participant observers in the socio-economic domain to enable them to continuously nurture the socio-economically productive sector with new ideas, knowledge, products, tools and processes that should contribute to enhancing the competitiveness of Industry.
PRACTICAL HINTS ON UNIVERSITY SOCIAL LABORATORY SYNERGY STRATEGY

I. Service-Intensive Universities
The best-ranked universities in the world have been described as the most ‘research intensive’. Working within the context of the Social Laboratory would require a service-intensive posture, which is not in total disagreement with the research intensive posture of world class universities. It is instead an attempt at enhancing the social responsiveness of universities in Africa. This latter term simply means that the development challenges of Africa must be the core concern areas for African universities. Knowledge is the best tool for getting Africa out of underdevelopment, and since Knowledge is the major raison d’être of universities, African institutions should harness their research to seriously and systematically seeking answers to three key questions:

- What is it that is tying Africa down in terms of sustainable human development?
- How can we direct our knowledge arsenal to understanding and addressing our major ‘tying-us-down’ challenges?
- What methodologies, systems, processes and tools should be developed for applying our knowledge arsenal to demonstrable and replicable solutions to these ‘tying-us-down’ challenges?

II. Deploying the Knowledge Arsenal of universities to Responsive Social Engagement
The knowledge arsenal of a University should spring from the strength of its core functions that are centered on Knowledge, as manifested in the tripartite mission of universities:

- Knowledge generation (or Research), extending the frontiers of knowledge
- Knowledge transmission (or Teaching), inculcating knowledge acquisition and knowledge application skills
- Knowledge sharing (or responsive social engagement), providing and supporting the application of knowledge for evidence-based strategies for addressing society’s development concerns

The customary view of the core functions of universities considers 1 (knowledge generation) plus 2 (knowledge transmission), plus 3 knowledge transfer) as three distinct activities. On the other hand, the responsive social engagement view considers 1+1+1 as equal to one. In other words, each of the components taper into the others and remains really inseparable from the others. Their combined synergy should help to energize the knowledge arsenal of an institution. They may act independently, but all end up sharing and upholding a single goal.

III. A re-definition of Academic Excellence
Excellence is a term that features prominently in the mission and vision statements of universities the world over, and African universities as an integral part of the universe of academia, have wholly embraced the doctrine. The goal everywhere is academic excellence, with research being the major consideration.

The tripartite mission of universities concept however sees universities as dealing principally with one key task, that of KNOWLEDGE -- generating knowledge for transmission to formal students and for sharing with larger society, whose knowledge needs universities must meet in
a world in which Knowledge is the main driver of sustainable human development. It is in
syndic with this new way of looking at the mission of universities that a new way of looking at
academic excellence has emerged.

The new thinking sees academic excellence as standing firmly on a tripod, the three legs of
which should contribute to the realization of the tripartite mission of a university, as further
illustrated in figure 3. The knowledge generation sub-mission calls for the consummate
researcher, who must also in accord with sub-missions two and three, be a creative teacher and
a committed change agent.

In summary, academic excellence –in its contemporary conception-sees the academic who is
seeking excellence as sitting on a firm stool that is supported by three legs of equal strength.
One leg serves as nerve for the academic trait of being a consummate researcher (generating
knowledge); the second leg drives the the trait of creative teaching, while the third drives the
trait of responsive social engagement.

What this means is that academic excellence cannot be achieved by an academic who chooses
to be one-sided (concentrating only on Teaching); not even by choosing to remain two-sided
(concentrating on teaching-research but on nothing else). Knowledge generation must inform
knowledge transmission, while there should be mutual enrichment between research, teaching
and responsive social engagement.

IV. Emphasizing 21st Century Skills

Today’s world of work emphasizes more of the personal qualities of graduates than their
paper qualifications. African universities should henceforth aim at addressing the two
requirements-awarding diplomas and certificates and even teaching the conventional
disciplines but using the disciplines as conduit for inculcating the tripartite skills sets
outlined in table 2.
The productive socio-economic sector is faced with the challenge of getting the right people for the right jobs. Unemployment is at a high rate, but the situation is compounded by the phenomenon of UNEMPLOYABILITY. This in itself has several dimensions:

- inability to fit into employment
- inability to stay in employment
- inability to employ oneself.

Education that inculcates the skills needed by the world out there is therefore a challenge that universities must vigorously address through a curriculum revolution that develops the intellect (through the hard skills), transforms the person (through the soft skills) and arouses the person’s entrepreneurial spirit (through the go-getting skills).

Each of the three components of the tripartite skills has a number of sub-skills that indicate (a) the traits that 21st employers look for, as well as (b) the personal qualities needed for fitting into self-employment life. They can be inculcated in lifelike pedagogical situations that encourage

- team work
- logical/analytical/critical thinking
- practical application of principles
- project (field) work
- independent initiative
- perseverance/assiduity
- self-directed learning
- creativity (out-of-the-box behaviour) in thought and action
- self-confidence/positive self-concept/assertiveness
- hands-on/mind-on experience
<table>
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<tr>
<th>HARD SKILLS</th>
<th>SOFT SKILLS</th>
<th>GO-GETTING SKILLS</th>
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<tr>
<td>Cognitive Intelligence</td>
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<td>➢ Self-Expression Skills (Oral, written, etc.)</td>
<td>➢ Character formation skills (for strengthening the total person)</td>
<td>➢ Creative thinking skills (thinking out of the box)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logical Reasoning Skills (for analysis and problem solving)</td>
<td>➢ Intra-personal Skills (for the individual to understand his/her personal strengths and weaknesses, as well as possibilities/potentialities)</td>
<td>➢ Ideational fluency skills (proclivity in generating novel ideas)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computational Skills (for mathematical reasoning)</td>
<td>➢ Inter-personal skills (for understanding and ‘teaming’ with others)</td>
<td>➢ Opportunity-seizing skills (perceptivity in making the best of opportunities)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Design/Manipulative Skills (for purely technical reasoning and action)</td>
<td>➢ Lifelong learning Skills (knowledge-seeking skills)</td>
<td>➢ Experiential learning skills (making the best use of the lessons of experience; ever working on new ideas)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conceptual Skills (for generating ideas and translating them into ‘action maps’)</td>
<td>➢ Perseverance Skills (for seeing ideas and projects through to fruition)</td>
<td>➢ Idea-to-product (or ideas conversion) skills (Ease and passion for turning ideas into products and services skills, ability to apply head-hands-heart</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: A Tripartite Skills Set for 21st Century Needs
By emphasizing the tripartite skills set, Universities would be forging a curriculum rapprochement with the ‘world out there’ working more closely with Society to provide it with the right type of graduates for all types of socio-economically productive activities.

V. **Optimizing Learning**
Universities would need to ensure that learning results in positive change in behaviour. It entails a hierarchy of positive impact changes in the learner that should manifest at the highest possible level, in a hierarchy that comprises mastering, applying, and innovating.

- **Mastering** entails absorbing from different sources (including the teacher) of factual information, rules and principles. At this level, the student can memorise and recall.
- **Applying** involves using the ‘stuff’ mastered in life situation, like the student masters the rules of reporting and s/he goes into the field to practise reporting an event. At this level, the student is drawing inference from what has been mastered and s/he is making choices, exercising some degree of independent thinking.
- **Innovating**, the highest point in the process of learning making a positive impact on the student, who can now think out of the box, exuding originality and creativity in thought and action.
- There is yet a higher point at the point of innovating, at which the person attains wisdom, as a result of sustained learning and quality practice and diversified experience, and so becomes an authority figure.
- This hierarchy of learning competences forms a taxonomy in which every point in the hierarchy of competences has the lower levels embedded in it. Thus, point three in figure 4 below has all aspects of level one embedded in it. In like manner, levels one and two are embedded in level three.

![Fig. 4: Taxonomy of Learning Competences](image)

Today’s knowledge-innovation intensive economy requires that students attain the third level of the taxonomy. That is the level at which they can act creatively, as they must have mastered.
the material learned (mastering – level one), they must also have applied the principles learnt at the second level.

The highest point on the taxonomy (WISDOM) is not to be dwelt upon at the primary, secondary and tertiary levels. It is mostly acquired post-school. However, a solid foundation can be laid for it by ensuring the promotion of mastering and applying skills in schools.

VI. Educating for All Talents
As figure five below shows, there is a generic talent (common to all human intellectual expressions), while every human being tends to be specifically talented in specific areas. There are at the same time exceptional cases of multiple-talented individuals. Most education programmes tend to have a narrow focus in that they address solely the purely intellectual type of talent.

![Diagram of Human Talents]

*Fig. 5: A Variety of Human Talents that Education Should Address*

Today’s world of work requires versatility for multi-tasking and adaptability in an increasingly competitive global economy. Universities should respond by:

- Discouraging early and narrow specialisation; building learning in every discipline on a solid base of broad general knowledge
- Building a culture of implicit curriculum that allows students to exercise various types of talents
promoting the co-existence of scientific-technological-humanistic-artistic disciplines and providing appropriate meeting points for them all.

VII. Side-by-Side Undertakings

Thriving in the new world of the Social Laboratory can be driven by a systematic give-and-take process and covers virtually all aspects of university life requiring mutual exchange of information, inter-learning, consensus-building and cooperative endeavours. It calls for special exposure to supra-academic competences in academics-negotiation skills, team building, multi-disciplinary work, management of innovation, societal change dynamics, leading to a radical mind-set revolution.

Thus, the following key aspects of a university’s development work should involve systematically reaching out to, and bring in appropriate sectors of the Social Laboratory:

- Missioning and Visioning: taking into consideration the dynamics of the world out there, consulting with opinion leaders
- strategic planning: preceded by a situational analysis of demands of wider society, physical involvement of non-university experts
- curriculum development: continuous analysis of the requirements of the world out there, physical involvement of non-university experts, full scale participation of appropriate institutions/associations, etc. in the world of work
- research focus: mainly development-oriented with emphasis of societal challenges and concerns with a prevalence of participatory-action research
- teaching: learning from field, exposure to social and street sense, involvement of resource persons from the world out there, use of the ‘textbook of life’
- social engagement: student and teacher involvement in analysing and solving social, technical and other issues, feeding lessons from social engagement into teaching and research and feeding research results into all forms of social engagement
- academic staff development: systematic exposure of academics to the world of the practitioners
- university governance: adequate representation of key actors in the world out there
- university-community relations: structures for regular stakeholder consultations

IN CONCLUDING, it would be necessary to recall the following key messages of this presentation, as follows:

i. for the continuing relevance and survival of universities, there is a need for them to integrate the Social Laboratory and take advantage of its resources, in terms of talents, ideas, knowledge, techniques, systems, processes, material and financial resources.

ii. this will entail drastic paradigm shifts in several directions
   a. transformation into service intensive universities
   b. strengthening the responsive social engagement functions of universities
   c. a curriculum revolution that emphasize 21st century skills
   d. promoting learning at the highest level to instil creativity and innovation
   e. caring for all talents—going beyond emphasis on the purely intellectual talents
   f. working side-by-side with the world out there in all aspects of university development-institutional management, planning, curriculum development, teaching, etc.
Finally, it is worth recalling that the Social Laboratory is another name of real life and real living. It encompasses three well known socio-economic productive sectors—government, private, and civil society. Its private sector component is a vast arena that accommodates big business and more importantly, the ever-growing sub sector of medium/small/micro/mini businesses. Reaching out to this rich arsenal of resources must not be a haphazard affair and must not be limited to universities seeking project funding from the world out there. It should, for the sake of enhanced sustainability, be anchored on appropriate SYNERGY STRATEGIES that promote mutual give and take. The University needs the world out there, just as the world out there also needs the University.
ATTAINING THE CESA GOALS: A CALL FOR THE REVITALIZATION OF AFRICAN HIGHER EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT
There is a massive decline in the dedication to scholarship and teaching notwithstanding the remarkable examples of scholars across the continent who have retained their dedication to the ideal of the university. The CESA Higher Education Cluster is expected to catalyze the realization of CESA and Agenda 2063 by mobilizing and engaging higher education bodies and other relevant stakeholders to contribute and participate in the achievement of the goals CESA and Agenda 2063.

A number of CESA Higher Education Cluster activities have been done including, but not limited to, development of CESA Web Page and Reporting Template; ACE events; HAQAA Initiative activities; and the establishment of the AAU Public Broadcasting. If Africa is to meet the Sustainable Development Goals the revival of its universities must be an immediate priority. As the World Bank recognises, universities have a potentially greater role to play in Africa than in other regions of the world, and hence in the achievement of the strategic objectives of CESA.

Keywords: AAU, CESA, Cluster, & Higher Education.

INTRODUCTION
The reasons for the decline of Africa’s universities over the past two decades are well known (Mba, 2017). The story of the deterioration in the physical conditions of most African universities has often been told. What need to be equally emphasised are the consequential transformations in the teaching, learning and research environment. Teaching and residential facilities now cater for multiples of the number of students for which they were built. The quality of teaching and learning as well as research has necessarily deteriorated (Materu, 2007).

In addition to the devastating effects on the conditions of teaching, learning and research, the state of decay in higher education institutions has left university leaders caught in a grim struggle simply to maintain their institutions with a consequent massive diversion of focus from the core business of the university: excellence in teaching, learning and research. There is a massive decline in the dedication to scholarship and teaching notwithstanding the remarkable examples of scholars across the continent who have retained their dedication to the ideal of the university. However, in all too many cases faculty have little time for teaching and those who
do, tend to be demoralised by the bloated classes, inadequate teaching facilities and poor environment.

There is little research and the dissemination of research results through publication has not been encouraging in most African countries, as has the supervision of graduate work (Mba et al., 2015). The research output from African universities is very low. The reasons include a lack of research-experienced faculty, given brain drain, heavy teaching load, moonlighting by faculty, and lack of resources—such as, library facilities, information and communications technology infrastructure, and well-equipped laboratories (Mohamedbhai, 2015).

It is against this background that Africa’s universities now face in the coming decades a huge increase in enrolments from the growth in secondary education while at the same time confronting the harsh and competitive realities of the global knowledge economy (Teferra & Altbach, 2004). The global environment of the 21st century is already unforgiving in punishing those countries not appropriately positioned to take advantage of competitive knowledge dominated economies. The gap between those economies that are reaping the benefits of investing through universities in high-level skills and the promotion of science and technology and those that are unable to do so is growing rapidly. The contrast today between South Korea and some African countries is both painful and eloquent. For example, in the 1950s many African countries enjoyed a higher GNP per capita than South Korea; today the average income of a citizen of South Korea is twenty times that of many African countries (ThemesBros, 2018). Wages in South Korean are growing steadily over the past years and are now comparable of those in Western nations. In fact, as of 2018, there are just a few Western European countries with minimum wages higher than South Korea.

**RATIONALE**

The African Union, in partnership with the Member States of Africa and key stakeholders, developed and adopted the Continental Education Strategy for Africa (CESA 16-25). The strategy is in line with the African Union’s Agenda 2063 and the global Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Agenda 2063 affirms that Africa’s human capital will be fully developed as its most precious resource, through sustained investments in higher education, science, technology, research and innovation. In line with this, CESA seeks to provide each education stakeholder the opportunity to make its best contribution to education and training in Africa.

Harmonized education and training systems, as well as strengthened institutional capacity are essential for the realization of intra-Africa mobility. Indeed, academic integration through regional cooperation are an integral part of the Guiding Principles and Pillars of CESA, which should then form the basis for CESA’s activities.

The CESA Strategic Objective 1 (“Revitalize the teaching profession to ensure quality and relevance at all levels of education”) and the Strategic Objective 9 (“Revitalize and expand tertiary education, research and innovation to address continental challenges and promote global competitiveness”) are in line with the AAU Strategic Plan (2016-2020) and Core Programme. New areas of capacity development have been identified and would require the
Association’s intervention over the next five years. Such new areas include, *inter alia*, strengthening the capacity of African higher education institutions to respond to local and regional challenges. One of these challenges is clearly the lack of requisite leadership and management skills on the part of many brilliant university academics leading to tensions and conflicts on university campuses. In accordance with Article II (page 1) of its Constitution, the AAU seeks to, among other things, encourage and empower African higher education institutions “to contribute to the improvement of leadership, institutional management and the policy environment of African higher education”.

The CESA Higher Education Cluster is expected to catalyze the realization of CESA and Agenda 2063 by mobilizing and engaging higher education bodies and other relevant stakeholders to contribute and participate in the achievement of the goals CESA and Agenda 2063. Accordingly, the African Union Commission (AUC) provides oversight support to the CESA Higher Education Cluster, while the Association of African Universities (AAU) provides the Secretariat and coordinates all higher education related activities of CESA. The International Network for Higher Education in Africa (INHEA) based at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa is the CESA Higher Education Cluster Facilitator.

**CESA HIGHER EDUCATION SUB-CLUSTERS AND KEY ACTIVITIES**

The First Consultative Meeting of CESA Higher Education Cluster was held on 21 and 22 December 2017 with support from the Human Resources, Science and Technology Department of AUC. At that meeting, the sub-clusters depicted hereunder were launched. A total of 12 sub-clusters have so far been established on the basis of their particular relevance and significance to African higher education. These are:

**Table 1: CESA Higher Education Sub-Clusters**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. Quality Assurance and Accreditation</th>
<th>5. Academics and The Profession</th>
<th>9. Internationalization</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4. ICT, Libraries and University Networking</td>
<td>8. Open, Distance and Online Education</td>
<td>12. Leadership and Management</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Each sub-cluster, typically comprising five members, is responsible for identifying specific issues of importance under the sub-theme and developing a concept note that will eventually develop into a fully-fledged proposal.
Official Letter: for membership of the CESA Higher Education Cluster was sent by AAU to AU Member States’ Ministries of Higher Education; National and Regional Quality Assurance Agencies; Representatives from departments in charge of education in RECs; Regional and continental university associations (including IUCEA, SARUA, CAMES, AWAU, ACDE, AVU, and Pan African University); International organizations; Developmental actors; Other stakeholders that can contribute to the achievement of CESA’s strategic objectives related to higher education.

Table 2: Current Members of the CESA Higher Education Cluster

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Name of Institution/Organization</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>IUCEA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Ubuntu Net</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>RUFORUM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Association of West African Universities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Southern Africa Development Community Secretariat (SADC)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Economic Policy Research Centre (EPRC)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>West Africa Research Centre (WARC)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Uganda Cancer Institute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>National Fisheries Resources Research Institute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Advocates Coalition for Development and Environment (ACODE)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>African Heritage Institution (AfriHeritage)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Forestry Research Institute of Ghana</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

CESA Web Page: Considering how critical information is in our modern era, a web-page was created for CESA Higher Education Cluster during this reporting period. The CESA web-page will be used to showcase achievements as well as highlight incoming and on-going CESA Higher Education Cluster activities. It will also aid in the dissemination of information to stakeholders, cluster members and beyond. The web-page is currently hosted on the AAU website and can be found on the link below:

CESA Reporting Template: In order to speed up and track more efficiently reports submitted by CESA Higher Education Cluster members, a CESA reporting template was created during the period under review. The reporting template was designed in a way that will help capture relevant activities that relate to the core objectives of CESA and will make it easier and convenient for cluster members to submit their activities undertaken on CESA. The template is user-friendly and is made up of 9 open ended question items which will take respondents minimum time to complete.

ACE Events: In line with the objectives of CESA, the Africa Higher Education Centres of Excellence (ACE) Project seeks to strengthen the institutional and human capacities of the participating universities and their partner institutions to improve their ability to deliver high quality education to a regional student body and undertake cutting-edge research in key areas that would address Africa’s developmental challenges. There are currently 22 ACEs in eight countries in West and Central Africa, as well as 24 ACEs in nine countries in East and Southern Africa. The Association of African Universities (AAU) is the regional facilitation unit (RFU) for the ACEs in West and Central Africa and responsible for regional coordination and monitoring and evaluation activities. The 22 centres supported under the ACE project have achieved strong results over four years of implementation: (i) 15 programmes have attained international accreditation and several top-performing ACEs have emerged; (ii) 16,000 short-term, 6,500 master’s and 1,600 PhD students have enrolled in postgraduate programmes, including 5,000 regional students; (iii) 3,500 students and faculty have participated in an internship in a company relevant to their field of study, and (iv) US$34 million has been generated by the 22 ACEs through competitive R&D grants, scholarship competitions as well as student fees and testing services.

HAQAA Initiative: The Harmonisation of African Higher Education, Quality Assurance and Accreditation (HAQAA) Initiative has been established to support the development of a harmonised quality assurance and accreditation system at institutional, national, regional and Pan-African continental level. It is funded by the European Union Commission, in the context of the Africa-EU Strategic Partnership. More specifically, the HAQAA initiative aims to support PAQAF – the Pan-Africa Quality Assurance and Accreditation Framework of the African Union and by extension, the CESA and Agenda 2063. (i) Under HAQAA Initiative, the AQRM is recognized as regional tool to support quality assessment of universities. Fifteen (15) institutional evaluations were conducted in 2017, utilizing the AQRM as a key evaluation tool. The 15 institutions evaluated were from different African regions and had the opportunity to participate in a training workshop that would guide their institutional assessment process. (ii) One other primary activity of the HAQAA Initiative was to develop African Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance (ASG-QA). This is a guiding document for QAAs and HEIs across the continent and is instrumental in fostering a shared quality culture, facilitating the cross-border recognition of quality assurance and accreditation decisions. The ASG-QA are a set of standards and guidelines for internal and external quality assurance in higher education. (iii) Between October 2016 and June 2017, the Initiative ‘Harmonisation of African Higher Education Quality Assurance (QA) and Accreditation’ (HAQAA) organised a continental-level Training Course entitled ‘Developing a common understanding for QA in Africa’. The Course, which gathered nationally nominated professionals representing quality
assurance (QA) bodies across 41 African countries and was conducted in English and French, had the objective of promoting a common understanding on quality assurance in higher education in Africa.

**Public Broadcasting (AAU Television):** In order to popularize CESA and other AUC initiatives, as well as increase the visibility and reach of the Association to the higher education community in real time, the AAU TV network has been established which is currently broadcasting live online via Facebook, YouTube and Satellite. There are on-going efforts to reach out to and host diverse stakeholders to interview them on the AAU Television.

➢ Public Broadcasting (AAU Television)
- aims to increase AAU’s visibility and reach the world in real time
- Currently broadcasting live online via Facebook. Available also on Youtube. Feedback have been impressive.
- Responses for the period **24 April – 30 September 2018** as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FEEDBACK TYPE</th>
<th>NUMBER OF RESPONSES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Videos posted</td>
<td>443</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Video views</td>
<td>69,603</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Page Followers</td>
<td>75,816</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posts Reach</td>
<td>1,353 people per post</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Page likes- Total now</td>
<td>75,611</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
AAU TV has hosted the following interviews related to CESA since inception

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Link</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8th June, 2018</td>
<td>Reforms in Higher Education in Africa</td>
<td><a href="https://www.facebook.com/AAU67/videos/2065174257064329/">https://www.facebook.com/AAU67/videos/2065174257064329/</a></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Other AAU Activities (Workshops) linked to achieving the goals of CESA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Workshop</th>
<th>Name of Workshop</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Regional Workshop on KOHA – An Open-Source Integrated Library System (ILS)</strong></td>
<td>Cyber Security Hygiene</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Innovative and Quality Research Methods Knowledge and Skills Training</td>
<td>Atelier de Formation en Assurance Qualité et Pédagogie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>University Advancement</td>
<td>Microsoft Executive Briefing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Communication and Commercialization</td>
<td>Third Resource Mobilisation Workshop (RMW III)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Database of African These and Dissertations plus Research (DATAD-R VI)</td>
<td>21st Century Innovative &amp; Learner-Centred Pedagogical Skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AfriQAN Good Practices Workshop In Quality Assurance</td>
<td>Harmonization of African HE QA &amp; Accreditation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Database of African Theses and Dissertations (DATAD-R V) Training</td>
<td>21st Century Innovative &amp; Learner-Centred Pedagogical Skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutional Repository (DSpace) Training</td>
<td>University-Industry Linkages for African Universities</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
DISCUSSION
If Africa is to meet the Sustainable Development Goals the revival of its universities must be an immediate priority. As the World Bank recognises, universities have a potentially greater role to play in Africa than in other regions of the world (World Bank, 2002; Mba et al., 2015). Across Africa universities are frequently the only national institutions with the skills, the equipment and the mandate to generate new knowledge through research and to adapt global knowledge to solve local problems and to promote social and economic development.

The goals of Education for All (EfA) will not be achieved without the renewal of Africa’s universities. There will be no sustainable development in the primary and secondary schools of Africa without the development of the whole of the education system. Education must be treated holistically rather than being divided into discrete components of primary, secondary and tertiary education. The education policies of the countries of the developed world recognise this fact domestically. Policy towards education in Africa, not least in the support provided by donor countries, should recognise the same principle. The Agenda 2063 and CESA recognize that the revitalization of Africa’s universities is a necessary condition for sustainable development.

The World Bank (2002) recognised that: “Tertiary education institutions support knowledge driven economic growth strategies and poverty reductions by a) training a qualified and adaptable labour force including high level scientists, professionals, technicians, teachers in basic and secondary education, and future government, civil service, and business leaders; b) generating new knowledge; and c) providing the capacity to access existing stores of global knowledge and adapt this knowledge to local use. Tertiary education institutions are unique in their ability to integrate and create synergy among these three dimensions. Sustainable transformation and growth throughout the economy are not possible without the capacity building contributions of an innovative tertiary education system, especially in low income countries with weak institutional capacity and limited human capital.”

Nowhere is this conclusion truer than in Africa. Without a firm foundation in universities science and technology capacity, the indispensable component of the knowledge economy, will simply not develop in African countries characterised by a small and dependent manufacturing sector, low-technology agriculture and weak effective private demand. In Africa only the universities can ensure the development of a sustainable base for science and technology.

Quality assurance in higher education is a relatively new phenomenon in Africa. As a result, less than 50% of the 54 African countries have national quality assurance agencies (Alabi & Mba, 2012). The agencies have been created mainly to regulate the development of higher education provision, especially by the private sector, rather than ensuring accountability or improving quality. The main challenges facing quality assurance in Africa are a dearth of adequately trained professional staff in the national quality assurance agencies, lack of knowledge about the related process among the staff in the institutions, resistance from faculty to get fully engaged in the very time-consuming process of data collection and processing, and lack of funds to establish quality assurance systems in the institutions. Sensitization, capacity
building, and funding are, thus, the main issues that need to be addressed in promoting quality assurance (Mohamedbhai, 2015).

In most African countries universities expect the state to provide public support, while the state seeks to exercise a fundamental right to set national policies for higher education and to monitor the quality of institutional activities. Experience on other continents, as well as within Africa, has demonstrated that the grant of greater institutional autonomy unleashes creativity and greatly increases the ability of institutions to respond to the policy priorities of national governments (European University Association, 2017). An incentive rather than a prescriptive regulatory model should therefore set the framework for all universities that must, as part of their new bargain with society, demonstrate their commitment to openness and to public accountability and to using research and teaching to give more content and direction to the work of the African Union especially in the areas of CESA and Agenda 2063.

As stated previously, CESA Higher Education Cluster has 12 sub-clusters and another 12 organizations have indicated interest in becoming members of the cluster. Sub-regional collaboration within Africa is essential in many areas of policy. For higher education institutions, collaboration and partnership at a sub-regional level provides opportunities for shared problem solving, unified approaches to governments and donors and collaborative partnerships in meeting the needs of industry and society. There is an urgent need therefore for African Union Commission to providing funding to support those regional and sub-regional higher education clusters because these partnerships constitute one of the key mechanisms for sharing ideas, learning from one another, and meeting the challenges that they face, all with a view to achieving the strategic objectives of CESA.

If African universities are to play the roles required of them by their societies, the greatest need is for them to strengthen their human resource capacity. Importantly, the guiding principle of the ACE Project is regional collaboration and partnerships among participating institutions in order to address key development challenges. As this capacity building effort is in line with the ideals of CESA, African governments need to support this initiative and those countries that are not participating in the scheme should be encouraged to do for the good of society.

Africa has had great universities. Higher education in Africa stretches back to ancient Egypt. Today we require a new learning, rooted in the commitment to those standards of excellence that are the hallmark of all great universities, and a new intellectual leadership. Whether therefore from the perspective of the imperatives of the knowledge economy or from the perspective of intellectual leadership and vision the state of health of Africa’s institutions of higher learning are central to the achievement of CESA objectives.

REFERENCES


COMPETENCY BASED LEARNING: A STRATEGY FOR DEVELOPING EMPLOYABILITY SKILLS AMONG NIGERIA UNIVERSITY GRADUATES

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ABSTRACT

The mandate of Nigerian universities is to produce manpower that can contribute towards economic growth and development of the nation. The universities successfully carried out this mandate until late-90s when issues of poor-quality university education, unemployment and lack of employability skills became the centre of discourse. This is worse even now when unemployment has been politicized. A study was carried out by the researcher on 100 lecturers and their students to observe the teaching and learning mechanisms. It was observed that 90% of the lecturers do not believe in lesson planning and working with the intended learning outcomes. Also, 90% of the students learn what the lecturers want them to learn. 10% of them were deep learners, 55% were superficial learners and 35% were strategic learners. The findings showed a gap between what is learned and what is expected to be done by the graduates after graduation. This led to the recommendation of using competency-based learning as a means of solving unemployment in the nation. This model emphasized learning by doing which encourages a shift from lecturer-centred to student-centred learning.

Keywords: Lecturer-Centred, Programme, Student-Centred & University Education.

INTRODUCTION

University education has the mandate to develop manpower to serve in various sectors of the economy towards economic growth and development of the nation. To achieve this, the universities quality assurance body (National Universities Commission) work with the academia to develop curricula that is taught to students. The curriculum is implemented by the lecturers in the various disciplines and programmes to ensure that the students are well informed with the right knowledge and skills.

In the early years of university education in Nigeria, graduates were highly priced and were immediately absorbed on the completion of university education. But this narrative changed in late 90s when universities started turning out higher number of graduates trained for secular jobs. By year 2000, the issue of unemployment was on the increase. By year 2014 unemployment rate rose to 13.4, while in 2017 it was 18.8 and today it is 23.10 (National Bureau of Statistics, Nigeria). In this increase, it was observed that some organisations in Nigeria including private schools do hire the services of expatriates. The question, therefore, is, could it be that the Nigerian graduates are not competent? Or do they lack the right skills? Or could it be there is no creation of more jobs? These are questions that should be answered in order to provide solutions to unemployment in Nigeria.
SITUATION ANALYSIS OF TEACHING AND LEARNING IN NIGERIAN UNIVERSITIES

The analysis is categorised in three parts – Teaching preparation, Learning and Learning resources, and Assessments. An observational study was carried out to observe 100 lecturers (Lecturer II to Professorial cadre) over a period of five years in five Nigerian federal universities, faculties and disciplines on: Lesson planning, teaching methods, provision of learner support, and assessment pattern. On the other hand, their students were observed to ascertain their learning pattern, available learning resources, and their attitude towards learning & assessment. The observation method was adopted because it was observed that most survey questionnaires do not receive true response. The researcher used 10 trained research assistants. Five of the research assistants were students who sat among their peers to note their observations. Descriptive statistics was used to analyse the data collected.

The findings revealed that: 90% of the lecturers see lesson planning as preparing a note that will be given to the students and reading through the topics to master the content to enable them to teach in the class. 10% that agreed to the use of lesson plan, feel that it will be too demanding to implement that at the university level; All of them use teacher-centred method of teaching which was basically lecture method; attention was more on regurgitation of what is taught and less on application, this was evident in their teaching methods and type of assessments; feedback mechanism was low; Learner support was low. All the universities used had libraries, but other supports such as availability of adequate equipment for learning and quick response to students’ challenges were lacking.

It was also observed that most lecturers do not support the use of learning outcomes as guide in teaching at the university level because they feel it is time consuming, learning outcome is difficult to write; and that stating low level learning outcomes such as identify, state, name etc are below university level.

On the side of the students, 90% of them learn what the lecturer wants them to learn. These group of students focus mainly on the lecturer’s note; 10% were deep learners, 55% were superficial learners and 35% were strategic learners. The deep learners had an in-depth study to master the content. They go beyond what the lecturer teaches in the class. They surf the internet and participate in group discussions which most often come as tutorial. The superficial learners go on the surface learning and concentrating only on what is taught in the class, the note given by the lecturers and sometimes take part in group discussions. The strategic learners were found to often ask for areas of concentration in examination and study past questions to perm their topics for concentration.

Most of the lecturers do not give feedback on the continuous assessment and those that do, provide the score feedback. Only about 2% of the lecturers come to class to discuss the continuous assignment/test. Students focus more on higher grades than the knowledge or skills to be learned. They give much attention to examinations not to learn but as a means that will support their graduation from school. Based on this, attention is more on grades rather than knowledge. The lecturers’ attitude encouraged this.

From the analysis given above, it could be concluded that the method of teaching and learning in Nigerian universities do not sufficiently prepare the students for employment or to be entrepreneur. The analysis shows a core teacher centred method which do not give room for student to sufficiently acquire high level competences that will bring out their innovation and creativity in their actions. The lack of competence could be said to have led to the demand of
previous work experience by employers because they want to reduce the amount they spend on training and re-training young graduates. This further increased unemployment.

Some persons have seen unemployment from different perspectives. What we often hear is the demand for government to create more jobs and the politicians making promises of creating jobs. Over the years, this has not really worked because the root source of unemployment which is education has not been addressed. If the cause of unemployment many people claim is inadequate jobs, how come we have non-nationals getting jobs and setting up viable businesses with high level of success in the country? To this end, competency-based learning is recommended for our educational institutions, so that fresh graduates would be able to take up the demands of work when employed without waiting to gain working experience with minimal opportunities which may never come. Also, the employers will be willing to employ fresh graduates with confidence and with minimal spending on on-the-job training. This therefore calls the attention of educational planners to re-direct the mode of educational delivery especially at the university levels.

Competency-based learning could also be described as competency-based education. This form of learning is an approach to teaching and learning that focuses more on learning concrete skills than abstract learning. It is learner centred. Learner centred method of teaching and learning elicit competences from the learner. The learners learn by doing while the lecturer guides. For instance, a learner undergoing a programme in human resources will be given opportunity to demonstrate the requirement of a human resource officer. This can be through case studies, scenarios, internships, observations, group work and presentations.

COMPETENCY-BASED LEARNING
In a broad term the focus of competency-based learning is on knowledge, skills and attitude. The knowledge gives the theoretical and cognitive thought that is translated into practice which is the skill. The perception of the learner on the knowledge and skill is the attitude. The integration of these on a learner brings competency that may be required by employers. The employers of today do not just need a degree. Rather they need graduates with employability skills such as communication skills, team work, ability to give presentation, interpersonal relations, being innovative and thinkers who can contribute meaningfully to the growth of the organisation. These skills are also referred to as soft skills.

There are two types of competency - generic and subject specific. Competences are described as generic when such competences cut across every graduate irrespective of area of specialisation; which will help the graduate find employment; create his or her own business and become a better citizen. For example, the entrepreneurship training offered to all Nigerian university undergraduates irrespective of the course of study is generic competences and will add more value if properly structured. The competences that focus on profession is subject specific. A competency-based learning reduces economic wastages, increases employability and enhances self-directed learning. To structure a competency-based learning, means designing learning that will give the learners abilities to perform the skills required in their profession after schooling. Competency goes with skills. In designing competency-based learning, the focus should be identifying the skills that is required of the learners after graduation.

Designing Competency-Based Student-Centred Approach
Designing or redesigning an existing curriculum into a competency-based learning is often a challenge. Using the Nigerian scenario, there is a common Minimum Benchmark or academic
standard in universities programmes and curricula. In this scenario where there are general curricula, the following stages can be adopted:

**Stage 1:** Identify the existing educational policies and determine the policy for integration. Recently, the National Universities Commission (NUC) has relaxed the rigidity on the BMAS by given the universities 60% autonomy to review the BMAS to meet the institutional goals. This therefore gives opportunity to institutions who want to redesign the curriculum into competency-based learning to do so.

**Stage 2:** Conduct need assessment to determine viable programmes and programme requirements.

**Stage 3:** Determine the competences required in the programme(s) and design tools for monitoring and evaluation. Competences can be classified as knowledge plus skills. Knowledge is the mastery gained through study, while skills could be the ability, proficiency, dexterity, that is acquired or deployed through training or experience (Wingard & Johansson, N.D.). Therefore, competence is the possession of performance level of relevant knowledge and acquisition of a range of relevant skills that include interpersonal and technical components. These would be the focus of competences needed. At this point, involve the industry especially those relating to the programme(s). Get the expectations from the industries and where possible collaborate in the implementation process.

The monitoring and evaluation tool should be such that will show the indicators and evidence that will help to evaluate if the indicators have been met. This will help in monitoring and evaluating performance. It is not enough to state the competences but there must be mechanisms to ensure the competences are met.

**Stage 4:** Fit-in the identified programme competences into courses. A programme may have 20 or more courses. A competency may fit one or more courses as shown in Table 1.
Table 1: Programme Competences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Competences</th>
<th>Course 1</th>
<th>Course 2</th>
<th>Course 3</th>
<th>Course 4</th>
<th>Course 5</th>
<th>Course 6</th>
<th>Course 20</th>
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</table>

Table 1 has 10 competences and 20 courses. Course 2 will cover competence 1; courses 1 and 4 will cover competence 2; courses 3, 5 and 20 will cover competence 3 etc. This implies that those courses must be designed to address those competences.

Note: The BMAS may not have stated the competences. It may have stated the programme objectives. This is different from the required competences that the learners should acquire. It will therefore be worthwhile to align stage 3 which has been conducted into stage 4.

Stage 5: Define the Intended Learning Outcomes for each competency

There are so many models used in defining learning outcomes and goals of programmes and courses. Each of the models have set of verbs describing the level of competency. But here, the focus will be on Bloom’s Taxonomy of Educational Objectives and Bigg’s SOLO Taxonomy. Bloom’s Taxonomy has the original and reverse form. The 1956 Bloom’s Taxonomy or Education Objectives has six levels starting from simple to complex – knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis and evaluation as presented in Table 2.

Bloom has vocabularies to define the verbs used in each level as shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Bloom’s Taxonomy of Educational Objectives (1956)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Taxonomy</th>
<th>Examples of verbs for stating specific learning outcomes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6. Evaluate</td>
<td>Criticise, judge, appraise, compare, appraise, conclude, justify, interpret, summarise, discriminate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of Taxonomy</td>
<td>Examples of verbs for stating specific learning outcomes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Synthesis</td>
<td>Invent, hypothesise, combine, compose, construct, design, develop, plan, modify, organise, rearrange, reconstruct, summarise, rewrite, design, devise, create, reorganise.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Analysis</td>
<td>Survey, subdivide, categorise, classify, compare select, infer, differentiate, distinguish, illustrate, infer, separate, breakdown, diagram, inventory,</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Application</td>
<td>Organise, generalise, produce, apply, solve, show, use, change, compute, discover, demonstrate, relate, prepare,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Comprehension</td>
<td>Express, distinguish, demonstrate, explain, summarise, illustrate, paraphrase, convert, defend, estimate, operate, extend, generalise, give examples, infer, predict, summarise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Knowledge</td>
<td>List, label, choose, recite, name match, identify, describe, define, outline, state, select, state.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This was revised by Anderson in 1990’s as shown in Table 3. The major difference is 5th and 6th levels. The old forms are in brackets.

**Table 3: Bloom’s Revised Taxonomy by Anderson (1990’s)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Illustrative Verbs (examples)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6. Creating (Evaluation)</td>
<td>Design, construct, plan produce</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Evaluating (Synthesis)</td>
<td>Check, critique, judge, hypothesise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Analysis (Analysis)</td>
<td>Compare, attribute, organise, deconstruct</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Applying (Application)</td>
<td>Implement, carry out, use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Understanding (Comprehension)</td>
<td>Interpret, exemplify, summarise, infer, paraphrase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Remembering (Knowledge)</td>
<td>Recognise, list, describe, identify, retrieve, name</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The 5th level in the old form is synthesis and modified to evaluating. The old form of the 6th level was evaluation modified to creating. The argument was that synthesis is part of evaluation and after evaluation the learner should be able to create his/her idea. This is very useful when developing competences.

**SOLO Taxonomy**

SOLO stands for the Structure of the Observed Learning Outcome. SOLO can be used for both curriculum design and assessment in terms of intended learning outcomes. SOLO taxonomy
is divided into five levels starting with pre-structural, unistructural, multi-structural, relational and extended abstract. Pre-structural level indicates zero competence. Unistructural level indicates low competence with possibly one relevant aspect being demonstrated. The multi-structural level indicates that the learner has demonstrated competences. The ability for the learner to integrate the demonstrated competences in an organised form is the relational level. Finally, the extended abstract occurs when the learner can generalise the competences in creating a new domain.

SOLO taxonomy is very useful when designing rubrics for essay examinations. SOLO is structured towards gaining competences as shown in Table 4.

**Table 4: SOLO Structure of the Observed Learning Outcome**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Extended abstract</td>
<td>- Students make connections beyond the immediate subject area</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Students generalise and transfer the principles from the specific to the abstract</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relational Level</td>
<td>- Students demonstrate the relationship between connections</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Students demonstrate the relationship between connections and the whole</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multi-structural</td>
<td>- Students make several connections</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- The significance of the relationship between connections is not demonstrated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uni-structural</td>
<td>- Students make simple and obvious connections</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- The significance of the connections is not demonstrated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-structural</td>
<td>- Students are acquiring pieces of unconnected information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- No organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- No overall sense</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Kristina Edstrom, KTH Learning Lab

Just like Bloom’s taxonomy, SOLO has verbs describing the levels of competences as shown in Figure 1

![The SOLO Taxonomy with sample verbs indicating levels of understanding](image)

Figure 1: The SOLO Taxonomy
Bloom’s taxonomy is on cognitive reasoning and SOLO taxonomy emphasises levels of understanding which helps to determine what is good or bad. The levels of competences attained are differentiated by the verb used. This is where both taxonomies share same thought.

**Stage 6: Determine the methodology, Required Resources and type of Assessment for each Competency**

Select learning method that would help the learner achieve the set competences. Some of the learning methods that could help drive competency includes demonstration, portfolios, capstone projects, personal learning plan, rubrics, scenarios, case studies, simulations, contextual analysis, scientific enquiry, cooperative learning, textual analysis, problem-based Learning (PBL), issue-enquiry approach, flipped classroom.

Select the resources that would help to drive the method for example simulated illustrations, equipment, texts etc. Finally determine the type of learning activities that would help the learner achieve the competences. Such activities must have feedbacks that would help the learner identify his/her strength, weakness and how to improve on the weakness.

Finally, identify the type of test items to generate to cover the competences. These test items could be used as continuous assessments or examinations.

**Stage 7: Derive Themes to address the Identified Competences**

The themes could serve as modules or chapters. Further breakdown a module into Units of Study and integrate the identified methodology, resources, and assessment (learners’ activities, continuous assessments and examination) in Stage 6 that will align with the unit(s).

**Stage 8: Finally, organise the presentation for delivery**

Delivery could be blended. Where blended method is to be used, define what is to be blended and levels of blending.

**CONCLUSION**

Educational planners need to redefine the process of course / lesson planning especially at the university level. To attain this new level, requires definition of programmes/course competences, definition of adequate learning outcomes, selection of relevant methodology, learning resources, activities and assessments in an organised structure for proper delivery. The assessments must have well defined rubrics and students should have access to the rubrics. Teaching should move away from grade/score to competency. This will help to produce quality graduates that will service the economic sectors.

**REFERENCES**


ABSTRACT
Educational research for sustainable development becomes a veritable means of not only solving the problems of teaching and learning but also national development. Complexities of human dynamism and several other individual and structural factors often constitute several problems in the execution of the educational research venture. Research comprises "creative and systematic work undertaken to increase the stock of knowledge, including knowledge of humans, culture and society and the use of this stock of knowledge to devise new applications." It is used to establish or confirm facts, reaffirm the results of previous work, solve new or existing problems, support theorems, or develop new theories. Problems of research in Nigeria as a developing country are essential not only for academic circles, but also for the country and every aspect of development plans. The problems of educational research in Nigeria via: Lack of fund, disinterest of researchers, Illiteracy, Instability to understand, new programmes, ethical issues, political atmosphere, lack of initiative, plans and absence of reliable sources makes the process of research writing difficult. It is in this regard that this paper seeks to identify, justify and explain most of these problems of educational research in Nigeria and make remedial suggestions.

Keywords: Characteristics, Problems, Research & Types.

INTRODUCTION
Education is an indispensable aspect of human life and existence. In any human society, education is usually targeted at the cognitive, psychomotor and affective development of the populace which enables them to function effectively in their daily activities and overall development of the society. All over the world the society is usually faced with the task of making decisions regarding the aims of education, human and material requirements of schools in terms of teachers, books, equipment, infrastructure as well as the processes and products of education and social events in the society. In other to make valid and reliable decisions on these educational issues there is usually the need to make observations, collect, analyze and interpret data.

It noticed that, the national expenditure on education cannot be computed because various states expenditure on education cannot be determined, in relation to the UNESCO
recommendation of 26% of national budgets. A sustainable amount of fund must be allocated to education. Educational research is an undertaking to review and improve educational practice. In one case, educational practitioners conduct research by themselves in order to review their own practices, while in another, non-practitioners undertake the research. Educational practice here will refer to the individual instructional activities of school teachers on the one hand and the organized activities or programmes of educational institutions or educational systems on the other. It is a common knowledge that research is a major tool for development in every segment of the society; hence there is often a research and development unit in most enterprises. It must also be born in mind that an unresearching institution will soon become outdated (Adams, Adesoye & Onabamiro, 2016). Knowledge also forms evidence whenever development is witnessed. This is same for individuals, groups, organizations and the broader society. It is in this regard that Odia and Omofonmwan (2013) stated that progressive change which is alteration in the social structure in society is majorly made manifest by the peoples’ ability in creative/innovative ideas galvanized by a defined process/procedure in place. Therefore, the evidence of knowledge as a precedent for development is measured through progressive changes occasioned by creativity and innovations.

Knowledge needed by societies to develop are birthed through research which is a systematic enquiry into an existing knowledge for the purpose of more insight or the identification, description, explanation, evaluation and exploration of several factors and variables that should lead to the development of new knowledge and eventually, problem solving. It is for this reason that the Organisation for Economic and Co-operation Development (OECD) (2002) maintained that research is formal work undertaken systematically to increase the stock of knowledge, including knowledge of humanity, culture and society, and the use of this stock of knowledge to devise new applications. Thus, the exercise of research becomes vital to the production and application of knowledge to enable people gain more insights over issues and as well collectively and individually remedy their problems. The human society is so big that knowledge must have to be categorized to enable some sort of division of labour which leads to specialization and ultimately, efficient productivity. It is on this note that various categories of research enterprise have been provided to cater for varying unique issues and areas of interests that affect human existence and endeavours. Among these areas include: technology research, health research, meteorological and space science research, educational research, agricultural research, geological research and social research (Odia & Omofonmwan, 2013).

CONCEPTUAL CLARIFICATIONS OF RESEARCH
Some of the concepts on educational research were discussed in this paper:

1.1 CONCEPT OF RESEARCH
The quest for empirical knowledge that could affect development and problem solving has given rise to a systematic method of enquiry which is being referred to as research. It is systematic owing to the lay down process and procedures it follows before arriving at a particular base where knowledge is said to have been reached and equally justified in application. It is in this light that Oyesola (2010) views research as the application of the scientific method to attain or prove new and exciting theories. He further explained that it is search, invention, discovery and establishment of new knowledge, facts, principles, theories and methods. It is also acknowledged as a systematic, and objective search for knowledge, to establish theories and prove the truth of ideas, hypotheses and assumptions. It is a search which
requires care and diligence for new facts. It is experimentation to find knowledge, to take existing knowledge and explore ways of applying it to the many problems of life. The fore definition puts into context the essence and ends of research across diverse fields of study and enquiry. More so, research as asserted by Obasi (2007) is a systematic enquiry to discover phenomena, the laws governing them and the diverse means of the application of the knowledge to practical situations. He further stated that the essence of research is to proffer solutions to problems which justifies the need for a systematic enquiry that offers details of research situations before intervention is made. To this end, it becomes obvious that research is a problem solving venture and as well an informative instrument that instigates varying developments at different levels. Research as the process of intensive and extensive search for solutions to problems in the society can be used to find out the extent to which professionals, skilled and semi-skilled workforce are available in the various sectors of national life. The more research efforts are encouraged, the more the country is better able to harness her research problems (in education, politics, health, etc) (Chikwe, Christian, Ogidi & Nwachukwu, 2015).

Research is the process of arriving at dependable solutions to problems through a planned and systematic collection, analysis and interpretation of data. You may have to note that the key words in this description are planned and systematic. It means that research is considered as a logical scientific thinking. This implies that a study or an activity cannot be regarded as research unless it is carried into the higher levels of vigorous and scientific reasoning. Research is a process of seeking answers to hypothetical questions using scientific methods of inquiry to produce valid information. It means therefore, that when you use research methods to solve problems, you are more efficient than either trial-and-error attempts or “short-run” approaches. This is because you will direct all efforts towards a particular goal based on a sound hypothetical solution. Research is the human activity that is based on intellectual application of scientific process of investigating a matter with a view to discover knowledge which can become the basis for furthering human development in its entire ramification, hence the term ‘research for development’. The term research is also implies the process of setting out a problem of concern to human development to which a solution must be found, and defining the process for finding the requisite solution to the problem, following that process in gathering the relevant data transforming the data to interpretable manner whereby it can be used to formulate necessary body of knowledge leading to solving the particular subject matter. According to Leedy (1997), research is the systematic process of collecting and analyzing information (data) in order to increase our understanding of the phenomenon with which we are concerned or interested. He goes on to say that research is not:

1. Mere information gathering
2. Mere transformation of facts from one location to another.
3. Merely rummaging for information
4. A catch-word used to get information.

Best and Kahn (1995) agree that research is the systematic and objective analysis and recording of controlled observations that may lead to the development of generalizations, principles or theories, resulting in prediction and possibly, ultimate control of events. From these and other definitions, you have to note that one of the most reliable ways of ascertaining that decisions are correctly made is to use a scientific approach to arrive at those decisions. Therefore, research is needed in order to arrive at objective conclusions. Thus, the use of data to quantify statements and very assumptions with empirical evidence becomes imperative.
Research is the process of arriving at dependable solutions to problems through the planned and systematic collection, analysis and interpretation of data. Research is oriented towards the discovering of the relationships that exist among the phenomena of the world in which we live (Osualla, 2004). To Ajoku (2006), research is the search for knowledge, truth, similarities and relationships, and the process of finding solutions to problems through the systematic collection, analysis and interpretation of data. Okeke (2004) stated that research is an activity that involves observation and description of the characteristic properties of objects or events for the purpose of discovering relationships between variables and developing generalization that may be used to predict future occurrences. Research involves identification of problems, gathering new data, finding solutions to a problem through carefully designed procedures and logical analysis.

1.2 EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH
Research is an intensive and extensive search for solutions to problems in a society. Research has found application in many areas of human endeavor. One of such areas is education where we have educational research. Travers cited in (Okeke, 2004) defined educational research as an activity directed toward the development of an organized body of scientific knowledge about the events which educators are concerned. Educational research is defined as research that investigates the behaviour of students, teachers, administrators, parents and other members of the community who interact with educational institutions. The word behaviour is taken broadly to mean such phenomena as learning, attitudes, aptitudes, abilities, interests, practices, processes, emotions and so forth. An area that has been the focus of educational research for decades is "learning". Since education is fundamentally concerned with the development of individuals, the central purpose educational research is to find ways to improve student learning. For example, a classroom teacher experiments with alternative ways of explaining laws of physics and a full-time researcher comparing the effectiveness of different reading methods in early literacy programmes are both engaged in a search for ways to improve student learning, and, in this sense, are both engaged in educational research (Vishal, 2012). Ahiauko (2003) see educational research as a diligent and systematic attempt to provide plausible answers to educational problems by the process of logically designed operations or steps. It is a systematic and scholarly application of the scientific method, to the solution of educational problems (Osuala, 2004). Research in education has contributed in no small measure to educational progress, solution of educational problems, development of human capital in education, promotion of social progress, development and national survival.

Educational research is a cyclical process of step by step that typically begins with identifying of educational research problem. It then involves the reviewing of literature specifying based on the subject of the subject-matter collecting, analyzing, and interpreting and summarizing the data. Educational research is implied when research activities are geared towards unraveling educational problems or bringing about improvement in teaching and learning. Educational research is “the way in which one acquires dependable and useful information about the educative process. Adegoke, Adedayo, Aderinto and Yesufu (2010) define educational research as a step by step scientific research activities carried out by educational scientists in the disciplines of cultural and educational psychology, educational social studies, educational sociology, educational geography, educational political science, etc. They further maintained that the main objective of activities in educational research is to describe, identify, classify, categorize, explore, investigate, evaluate and understand social life and human activities in relation to his/her existence. It is in this regard that carrying out such a tasking activity would require quality instruments that would properly make outcomes justifiable. This
is more burdensome when researchers of this kind would have to deal with the enumerated complexities and dynamisms of human beings and their vast environments. These complexities are very vivid in the heterogeneous feature of the Nigerian state and all other of its structures and institutions. Complexities are posed as challenges not beyond being provided for. Therefore, the basic sense of curiosity to understand this complexity has cautiously laid the foundation for educational research which has risen to the occasion to continually provide for all complexities in human interactional dynamisms, regardless of the shapes they tend to take (Marvasti, 2004). Thus, educational researchers are bound to face humungous problems in their ventures owing to instruments of research and the entire societal system being the focus of the research. Hence, the overriding importance of the scientific process as the bane of knowledge via empiricism become very vital and germane (Obikeze, 1979).

Neuman (2007) in defining educational research maintained that it is a process in which people combine a set of principles outlooks and ideas with a collection of specific practices, techniques and strategies (i.e. methodology) to produce knowledge. He further stated the procedures of conduct of social research, which he made mention of it being an exciting process of discovery, that requires persistence, personal integrity, tolerance for ambiguity, interaction with others and pride in doing quality work. In this vein, it is obvious that the stated procedural conducts are likely to conflict with the researcher’s self-bias which is another inherent problem in social research. It is in this regard that the emphasis on reliability and validity of research instruments is highly placed in the social sciences which are home to educational research. Ali (1996) described educational research as those activities or processes which allow one to systematically test and/or obtain a body of information, data or knowledge about teaching / learning or conditions which affect teaching and learning. This means that research in education is a systematic attempt to define and investigate pertinent problems involved in teaching and learning. This can take place within or outside the school setting. It can take place at various levels of education, such as early childhood, primary, secondary or tertiary levels. You will again note that, implicit in this definition, is that educational research employs scientific methods to find out how teaching and learning can be improved, conditions under which knowledge can be tested and verified and the conditions under which they should occur. Educational research is a systematic, controlled, empirical and critical investigation of hypothetical propositions about the presumed relations among natural phenomenon.

Anderson and Arsenault (1998) viewed that education is mainly concerned with the processes which deal with deliberate change in the behaviour of people through the acquisition of knowledge, skills, attitudes, interests and appreciation. Therefore, the goal of educational research is to discover general principles on which interpretations, predictions, explanations and control of behaviour can be based since educational research is concerned with the study of the problems of teaching and learning. It means that any research in this area should contribute to some aspect related directly or indirectly to the teaching-learning situation. Therefore, the topic selected for investigation should be truly educational, preferably a problematic topic whose findings will add to the knowledge-bank of education and to lead to some solution of a societal problem. Research as the process of intensive and extensive search for solutions to problems in the society can be used to find out the extent to which professionals, skilled and semi-skilled workforce are available in the various sectors of national life. The more research efforts are encouraged, the more the country is better able to harness her research problems (in education, politics, health, etc). Anderson and Arsenault (1998) outlined the following aspects of educational research:
a) Educational research attempts to solve a problem.
b) Educational research involves gathering new data from primary or first-hand sources or using existing data for a new purpose.
c) Research is based upon observable experience or empirical evidence.
d) Educational research demands accurate observation and description.
e) Educational research generally employs carefully designed procedures and rigorous analysis.
f) Educational research emphasizes the development of generalizations, principles or theories that will help in understanding, prediction and/or control.
g) Educational research requires expertise familiarity with the field; competence in methodology; technical skill in collecting and analyzing the data.
h) Educational research attempts to find an objective, unbiased solution to the problem and takes great pains to validate the procedures employed.
i) Educational research is a deliberate and unhurried activity which is directional but often refines the problem or questions as the research progresses.
j) Educational research is carefully recorded and reported to other persons interested in the problem.

1.3 TYPES OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

Anderson and Arsenault (1998) considered the following are the types of educational research:

**Basic Research:** Basic or academic research focuses on the search for truth or the development of educational theory. Researchers with this background "design studies that can test, refine, modify, or develop theories". Generally, these researchers are affiliated with an academic institution and are performing this research as part of their graduate or doctoral work.

**Applied Research:** The pursuit of information that can be directly applied to practice is aptly known as applied or contractual research. Researchers in this field are trying to find solutions to existing educational problems. The approach is much more utilitarian as it strives to find information that will directly influence practice. Applied researchers are commissioned by a sponsor and are responsible for addressing the needs presented by this employer. The goal of this research is "to determine the applicability of educational theory and principles by testing hypotheses within specific settings".

**Table 1: Comparison of Basic and Applied Research**

The following are several defining characteristics that were written by Gary Anderson to compare basic (academic) and applied (contract) research.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Basic (Academic) Research</th>
<th>Applied (Contract) Research</th>
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<tr>
<td>1 Is sponsored by an agency committed to the general advancement of knowledge.</td>
<td>Is sponsored by an agency with a vested interest in the results.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Results are the property of society and the research community.</td>
<td>Results become the property of the sponsor.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Studies rely on the established reputations of the researchers and are totally under their control. Studies follow explicit terms of reference developed by the sponsor to serve the sponsor's needs.

Budget allocations are generally based on global proposals and accounting is left to the researchers. Budget accountability is directly related to the sponsor and relates to agreed terms of reference, time frames and methodologies.

The conduct of research is based on 'good faith' between funder and researcher. The work is contractual between sponsor and researcher.

The research produces findings and conclusions, but rarely recommendations except those related to further research needs. The research includes applied recommendations for action.

Academic research tends to extend an identifiable scholarly discipline. By its nature, contract research tends to be interdisciplinary.

Academic research is typically focused on a single set of testable hypotheses. Contract research frequently analyzes the consequences of alternative policy options.

Decision-rules relate to theoretically-based tests of statistical significance. Decision-rules relate to predetermined conventions and agreements between the sponsor and the researcher.

Research reports are targeted to other specialized researchers in the same field. Research reports are intended to be read and understood by lay persons.

Source: Anderson and Arsenault (1998)

**1.4 PROBLEMS OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH IN NIGERIA**

The usefulness of educational research for the promotion of economic development is faced with many problems. These include:

**The disinterest of researchers:** Those who search for the easiest and quickest way cannot be called researchers. Unfortunately, many are unwilling to go through thickets of proper writing. Such people are completely unmotivated. This is what gravely complicates the matter.

**Lack of Equipment, Facilities and Materials:** In Nigeria, the necessary equipment, facilities and materials needed for a meaningful research are either lacking or grossly inadequate. This is particularly the case in sciences where teachers and lecturers complain seriously of lack of science equipment to carry out their experiments. This has contributed to low development in educational research which is the bedrock of any technological advancement of any country. Also, current journals, periodicals and textbooks are difficult to get in the libraries.

**Lack of Awareness:** There is general ignorance with regard to the importance of research in a developing country like Nigeria. This lack of awareness has led to research workers not enjoy the desired maximum co-operation from their respondents during field study and data collection. Observation shows that certain personalities in high positions in public and private sectors, hardly volunteer information to research workers. This situation no doubt impacts negatively on the research workers.
Implementation of Research Results: The findings of research are hardly implemented. The conservation outlook on the part of the executive and administrative set up in the country account for the inability to implement research results in Nigeria. Well-researched works are lying dormant at the University library shelves. This is not good for our country's development.

Lack of Legal Provision: There is need for the provision of legal frame work in research. Dearth of legal provisions for personal and public considerations constitutes constraints on research in Nigeria. The staff/personnel in educational institutions, field workers and researchers need legal directions and protection.

Scarcity of Records: Nigeria like other developing countries lack adequate statistics due mainly to the very poor process of documentation. As a result of this many programmes in Nigeria have failed. Data collection is not always easy as it might seem. Ministries don’t want to make much information public. It led to the small information base. The absence of reliable sources makes the process of research writing difficult. To sum it up, the above-listed reasons explain why research problem hasn’t gone yet. Gradual progress will improve the situation.

Unattractive Working Conditions for research workers: The pitiable conditions under which research workers operate is another problem that militates against research development in Nigeria. Research workers are not well paid, and they lack incentives on the job. Both those who reside in official government quarters and those that live inside the town are faced with catalogue of problems ranging from shortage of water supply, epileptic power supply, poor transportation system to family problems. All these problems serve as potent sources of distractions to the best brains. Given these problems the research worker in Nigeria will not be able to perform as well as their counterparts in the developed countries where the conditions are very conducive to research work. Ukwuije (2003) and Amadi (2003) also identified illiteracy, attitude of government, individuals and significant others towards research findings, secrecy of information, scarcity of records, as problems of research in Nigeria.

Illiteracy: Lots of Nigerians are not educated. It is impossible for them to value any findings. Researchers don’t try to impress.

Instability: There is no golden standard in Nigeria all researchers would keep to. It can be explained by the frequently changed administration. New authorities bring new programmes, plans, and standards. It makes total disorientation among students and scientists.

Absence of Quality Tertiary Education: Tertiary education all over the world are known to be seats of research. They occupy a vital position in the heart of research. They are instrumental to carrying out these researches for contribution to knowledge base and for applied purposes. They also train researchers at different levels. Most research centres are located within these tertiary institutions for the purpose of intelligence, logistics and manpower. Tertiary institutions are supposedly to assume a mentorship position for those at the secondary level of education via exchange of ideas either on special invites, provision of secondary schools’ research educators, provision of text materials, to mention but few. It is pathetic that a Nigerian student spends six years all through secondary education without having an introduction or quality experience in proper research ventures. This has adversely affected the quality of social
research in Nigeria, in relation to researchers who are expected to know all in a space of four, five or six years as the case may be. It has also affected the quality of social research results especially when these students in these secondary schools are expected to be respondents for a particular study. More so, disciplines like psychology and archeology lack those special equipment and apparatus that make experimental studies veritable which to a very large extent affect the degree of their productivity in having excellent research results.

**Lack of Initiatives in Nigeria:** Nation’s level of development is a function of its research initiatives and development structure which is navigated by the works of quality tertiary institutions. Hence, educational research in Nigeria would become only as good as the quality of tertiary institutions within the nation.

**Inadequate Funding:** Research efforts in education and other sectors of the economy hardly attract adequate government funding. There is a general lack of commitment by government at all levels to the effect that researchers are not given adequate financial support. Researches carried out by professionals and associations are usually frustrated due to lack of funds. The annual government budget on education is not adequate, let alone provision of research grants to researchers and research institutes. This has negatively affected the development of the education in Nigeria. It is a great challenge for Nigeria since no one can do research without access to research facilities. For many, it seems impossible to work having no specially equipped libraries and laboratories. Funding has been a major issue for most ventures all over the world, owing to scarce resources. Nonetheless, nations have resorted to getting priorities right to circumvent the ills of poor funding on productivity. This is evident in the fact that areas that are capable of yielding more resources are prioritized in their budgets. One of such areas is education and research which have been proven to be major precursors and requisites for development to happen. In the Nigeria’s case, these areas have long been affected which tells on its development. Lack of adequate funds for a people-centered research like that of the social research has clogged the wheels of advancement for such developmental germane venture. The overbearing preference given to the pure and physical sciences over the social sciences has also affected the funding of social research. Okunamiri, Okoli and Okunamiri (2008) in their study, asserted that a nation’s pace of development is determined by its level of research funding.

**Insufficient adjustment to the demands of Information and Communication and Technology:** The educational research space has been largely affected by the demands of ICT. The problem here is not the absence of ICT in Nigerian’s educational research or the adjustment to its demands but the insufficiency of the expected adjustments required. Kamba (2008) highlighted that researchers and scholars need the Internet for literature searches and data collection. Equally, data can be processed and analyzed using ICT and findings can be disseminated. This knowledge is only prominent among students in Tertiary schools with very little obtainable in secondary schools. Some of the lecturers in tertiary institutions are also oblivious regarding the functionality of ICT in strengthening social research. Hence, they lack the know-how. More to just education research is the fact that the virtual world created by ICT has brought to bear several ingredients that could strengthen educational research such as online courses/trainings, electronic libraries, virtual opinion sampling and among others. Pathetically, several social researchers in Nigeria cannot have access to such logistics to enable them bring the best to the table within the minutest of time, which portends enormous problem for social research in Nigeria. The communication network is still far from being well developed. The research worker has to cover hundreds of kilometers in search of relevant research data. This problem is compounded by lack of effective and efficient transport systems.
Political Atmosphere: Very key to the progress of any happening in a State is politics. Educational researchers oft do research into relationship between people and the State and the influence of the State on the researchers. Such researches are conducted through the structures and institutions of the state. Thus, most of these researchers would rely on data and information from these institutions and their elements. Most nations in Africa fall short of comprehensiveness and thus usually have issues with accuracy of data that in turn tell negatively on the research and consequently, interventions. More so, the kind of politics practiced in most African nations abhor truth telling and to such end, would also affect the quality of educational research, especially when information is sought after from these politicians.

Cultural and Ethical Issues: the fallible natures of humans as part of their complexities has made research carriers to immune themselves in order to represent the idea of being scientific. However, this tends to be a factor that can be ameliorated as against being eradicated. Ethics are set of principles governing interactions at varying levels. Educational researchers are guided by ethics while carrying out their enterprise. Nonetheless, they are still faced with certain structural problems in this regard. The absence of a veritable yardstick in curbing and penalizing plagiarism issues in Nigeria impedes on the ethical performance of social researchers. More so, the traditional culture of Nigerians as culture loving people and the ethnic divide/prejudice tend to influence the perceptions and perspectives of most Nigerian educational researchers while carrying out certain educational research activities that would demand conflict of values. The researcher from the South who embarks on an educational research in the North already has a bias that imply poor educational output which might end up influencing instruments for data collection and as well research findings even when the opposite is the real case. This is the need for the advocacy of an ethical board and veritable data management software to ascertain the quality of research instruments in line with ethical demands and standards for social research ventures. Obikeze (1979) in reaction to the foregoing stated that researchers harbour orientations and philosophies acquired in the course of their training and professional practice. Differences in these orientations have created sharp divisions among individuals and groups of social scientists. The cultural belief of the people in Nigeria also affects the quality of educational research in Nigeria. Among the superstitious beliefs still current among some groups of Nigerians is the belief that children are not to be counted. More so, Nigerians do not seem to have acquired a scientific concept of causality that teaches them that effects could be traced to certain causes that must be scientifically investigated for truth to be discovered, which predicates problem solving and development on the continuum. This impedes on the efficacy of the scientific community in the education. Again, as a result of cultural factors, Nigerians still largely regard certain concepts, issues and topics as taboo and obscene subjects that should not be discussed in public or openly.

1.5 PURPOSES OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH
Good (1944) in Osuji, Salawu, Charity, Okonkwo and Omoifo considered the following as purpose of educational research:
1. Determine the status of phenomenon, past and preset
2. Ascertain the nature, composition and process that characterize educational phenomena;
3. Trace growth change and developmental history of persons and issues and objects. According to Best (1976), when a research becomes applied research, it can take on the purpose of improving a product or a process of production. It means that it involves
the testing of theoretical concepts in actual problem-situations in industrial settings. In the field of education, it is interesting to recognise that most educational research is applied research because it attempts to develop generalizations about the teaching-learning processes and instructional materials.

4. To provide training in problem-solving. This is because research involves problem-solving, and life in itself is full of problems. Therefore, knowledge of research provides training in problem-solving; to provide valid and dependable information, which could be very useful in advancing the course of educational theories and practices;

5. To evaluate educational programmes, activities, practices, resources and methods of teaching

6. To provide training in understanding of the intricacies and technicalities requisite for handling research problems in particular and problems in general. According to Ikekhua and Yesufu (1995), the four-fold purposes of educational research are:

7. To provide objective evidence to improve school learning; to controvert myths surrounding certain practices and principles in education;

8. To change beliefs characterizing practitioners and products of education and the consumers of the products of education, and

9. To help place the work of the school and its agents on a firmer ground with consumers of education. You will notice that from the foregoing and from Ali (1996), it is apparent that research has, as its role in the educational process, several purposes. It provides the hard data and information which give a clear picture, the true picture, the objective picture about how we teach and learn as well as what we are doing about schools and schooling.

1.6 CHARACTERISTICS OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

Anaekwe (2002), some of the characteristics are:

1. **Research is Systematic:** This means that the steps followed have to be sequential and logical. The procedures used can be repeated by another research to verify the findings.

2. **Research is Objective:** This means that the findings are reported as they are. The biases, prejudices, beliefs or interests of the researcher and/or the society are not allowed to interfere with the research procedure and/or results.

3. **Research Report is Precise:** This is pertinent as the use of vocabulary which is capable of multiple interpretation is not encouraged.

4. **Research is Testable/Measurable:** Research is not speculative, but quantifiable. It becomes imperative that data collected for research must be measurable and tested against a specified hypothesis.

5. **Research is Replicable/Verifiable:** Results or findings of a research can be verified by the researcher or any other person interested in the findings. This can be done by going through the data used in the study or the processes involved. The research can be replicated by re-administering the same instrument or similar instrument of data collection to the same subjects or similar group of subjects. This replication can help one to justify the authenticity or otherwise of an earlier conclusion. Best and Kahn (1995) gave a summary of the characteristics of research so as to clarify its meaning. These are:
a. Research emphasizes the development of generalizations, principles or theories that will be helpful in predicting future occurrences; Research is based upon observable experience or empirical evidence.

b. Research demands accurate observation and description;

c. Research involves gathering new data from primary or first-hand success or using existing data for a new purpose.

d. Research is often characterized by carefully designed procedures that apply rigorous analysis.

e. Research requires expertise.

f. Research strives to be objective and logical applying every possible test to validate the procedures employed, the data collected, and the conclusions reached.

g. Research involves the quest for answers to unresolved problems

h. Research is characterized by patient and unhurried activity

i. Research is carefully reported and recorded.

j. Research requires courage.

1.7 CONCLUSION
Having looked at the problems of educational research in Nigeria, it becomes pertinent to understand that benefits of educational research to overall development of a nation cannot be overemphasized. Therefore, educational research development should be given utmost attention if sustainable economic growth and development must have been handed. Since a healthy, well-educated, innovative people make an economy more productive, it is apparent that capacity building through investment in human capital, particularly education and research can enhance economic growth, alleviate poverty and protect the Nigerian economy from further distortions and backwardness. Research is a tool for educational development, while research is the process of arriving at dependable solutions to problems through planned and systematic collection, analysis and interpretation of data. Research in Nigeria is faced with enormous problems. These problems include: inadequate funding; lack of equipment facilities and material, lack of awareness, lack of implementation of research results, low rating in human capital indices, lack of initiative, instability, cultural ethical issues, absence of quality tertiary education, political atmosphere, illiteracy, brain-drain, etc. To meet these problems, there is the need for a drastic and far researching reform in education policies and programmes of Nigeria.

1.8 SUGGESTIONS
Based on the problems of educational research identified in this paper, the following suggestions are made:

1. There should be adequate financial provision, particularly by all arms of government for educational researchers.

2. Government at all levels should provide research grants to educational researchers in institutions of higher learning.

3. There is need for adequate provision of special equipment, facilities and materials needed for meaningful research. Educational Science equipments for experiments should be provided.

4. There is need for extensive programme and staff training for educational researchers through frequent seminars, conferences and workshops.

5. There is need for effective public awareness on the benefit and contributions of educational research to national development.
6. There is need for government to back up policies on research development and efforts. Government should go beyond policy statements and come out with effective document that can promote implementations of research findings.

7. The Independent Corrupt Practices and Other Related Offences Commission (ICPC) should extend their operation to the educational sector in order to recovered loot invested in educational research work.

8. There should be drastic and far reaching reforms in educational programmes of the country to meet the objectives of national policy on education.

9. Government should create employment opportunities for teaming graduates.

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PART 7
EDUCATION PLANNING
ABSTRACT
Secondary school principals are education planners and administrators charged with the responsibility of running day-to-day activities of their schools in order to attain success. Among the critical roles expected of a principal is to provide effective management that ensures delivery of relevant and responsive quality education. Due to the global demands on standards, rising cost of education has left no options for principals of Nigerian Secondary Schools than to deploy effective managerial strategies that can produce results in service delivery staff and improved student performances. Based on reviewed approaches to operational management, Management by Objectives (MBO) approach is applied to secondary school management as a kind of operational strategy model that is capable of empowering and energizing the institutional system towards greater performance. The MBO approach model brings to bear; diagnostic properties capable of sharpening the institutional focus and building relevant intellectual capital likely to improving institutional service delivery and attainment of set goals. The paper highlights on the key properties of MBO and its role as a management tool in defining goals and objectives of the school system. The paper posits the value of “collective participation” as system approach model for Principals to adopt in coordinating institutional tasks and managing resources. In realization of the expected outcomes; a system management approach model recommends the need for teacher orientation at federal and state levels.

Keywords: Administrator, Application Management, Objectives, Principals & Secondary.
produce quality products, the role of Secondary School Principals becomes critical in deploying effective and strategic management initiatives that ensures relevance and responsiveness to national development.

In accordance with the philosophy of the National Policy on Education, the goal of Education (FRN, 2013p3) is to ensure quality in education delivery through periodic reviews and management. The focus on relevance as relates to the goal of Secondary Education has informed the Federal Government’s decision to diversify the secondary school curriculum to cater for the advancement of holders of basic education certificates to the tertiary level. Apart from the various units and nomenclatures inherent in the policy; its provision offers individuals, the opportunity to gain useful knowledge, skills and values for the purpose of promoting self-improvement, self-achievement and preparation for a higher level of educational training and manpower, amongst others, (FRN, 2013 p12). The implication of the policy is to employ capable hands that can deliver. Secondary schools in Nigeria are challenged produce results as a result of allegations levied against them, ranging from inaction to poor performances. This scenario created a necessity for Principals of secondary school to adopt effective management strategy that would impact on service delivery and the quality education offered in the schools.

Due to complexities however, implementation of the National policy has been challenging, especially at the Secondary School level. The system is faced with numerous challenges and complexities due to dissatisfaction of stakeholders on poor quality of student outcomes and staff performances. According to Babalola, (2008) promoting quality in the administration of secondary school education in Nigeria has remained a mirage due to issues related to finance, infrastructures, motivation, curriculum, supervision, information and technological facilities. Most of the attendant issues have posed challenges to the school administrators; who in recent times are subjected to confrontations about their performances especially as relates to the provision of quality education, (Nwite, 2016).

The demand for quality assurance in the administration of secondary education in Nigeria has therefore made it mandatory for principals to apply the best management technique that would produce result in the administration of the schools. In management, the role of principal as school head, manager and chief executive generate concerns and fears in their ability to provide effective coordination of activities that can demonstrate attainment of the school goals, Fafunwa (2000p82). Without compromising their roles of directing, controlling and providing effective management of human and physical resources for progressive change, this paper proposes for the application of Management By Objectives (MBO) as an approach to attaining the school set goals.

Theoretical Perspectives of Management By Objectives
Management by objectives (MBO) is a managerial model that aims at improving the performance of an organization through the application of clearly defined and agreed objectives by both management and employees. According to Ntanos, A.S. and Boulouta, K. (2012), MBO is a systematic and organized approach that allows management to focus on achievable goals and attain the best possible results from available resources. Grigoris Kyriakopoulos (2012) concept idea of the MBO introduction was the apparent importance of businesses’ clear objectives to their profitability productivity, share market increase and concurring reputation. According to Drucker (1954), the procedure of objectives’ setting and progress’ monitoring are determining factors towards the function of organizations, thus these factors should permeate the entire organization, from top to bottom.
The MBO approach model aims to increase organizational performance by aligning goals and subordinate objectives throughout the organization. MBO includes ongoing tracking and feedback in the process to reach objectives. The complete MBO system is to get managers and empowered employees acting to implement and achieve their plans, which automatically achieve those of the organization.

The use of the model demonstrates the significance of collective participation and commitment to the attainment of goals. In the prepositions developed by Peter Drucker (1960), Management by Objectives (MBO) establishes a kind of information system that compares actual performance and achievements to the set goals. There are six steps involved in the process of MBO and they include; determining organizational goals, determining employees’ objectives, constantly monitoring progress and performance, performance evaluation, providing feedback and performance appraisal, Drucker, (2016). Based on the process involved, practitioner’s claim that MBO improves is not a cure but an approach system that engages employees’ motivational commitment to increase the quality of service delivery and communication.

Although critics have criticized the model for placing much emphasis on goal setting and attainment of objectives rather than working on a systematic plan, nevertheless its applicability provides users with opportunity to create a “focal” system that would energize the system towards a more productive, goal-oriented outcome. This preposition collaborates with the opinion of Sabina Cerimagic (2018) result on managing organizational system through curriculum change in an Australian higher education institution. The analyses indicate that human factors in management process such as communication strategies, empowerment and involvement play great role in the approach to change management. The study further reveals that for a change to be effective, stakeholders require involvement, empowerment and clear communications; tallies with the principles of MBO. The ultimate goal basically is to best learn how to manage the process in a manner that could successfully promote positive change. In this process, effective use of communication is described as the life blood of an organization and the oxygen for change, hence placing emphasis on effective communication strategies would require engagement with relevant stakeholders in any effective change project.

The relevance of the study conducted by Ceramatic (2016), demonstrates the powers of Management by objective (MBo) and acceptability of it by principals of the institutions. At the secondary school level, the application of MBO is in relation to the implementation of the national school’s curricula by school principals is still not widely publicized. Nevertheless, the use of the model can be applied by school principals as appraisal tool, to motivate, plan, manage or control activities in best ways that can bring desirable outcomes. Nwite (2016) opines that MBO as a process admits cooperative joint engagement in identifying common goals and defining individual’s major areas of responsibilities as roadmap to achieving organizational goals. It serves as a guide in the operation of the organization and assessment of the contribution of its members. This view aligns with the affirmation given by Nwosu (2008) that MBO is a result-oriented management technique that allows stakeholders to participate actively and cooperatively in a manner that could lead to the achievement of purpose and production of optimal organizational result.

The conception of MBO in this paper relates to operational supervision and collective engagement in the supervision of school activities at various levels. Since the process admits working with and through others to efficiently accomplish meet up the organizational goals,
the Principal in adopting a management technique to pursue organizational goal becomes necessary especially as relates to efficiency and effectiveness. Kinicki and Williams (2003) opine that integrating the work of other people through planning, leading and controlling the organizational resources provides necessary guidance and control of actions. Sabina Cerimagic (2016) enumerates that the process of MBO involves some systematic steps that incorporate managerial activities that directly influence organizations and institutions. The application of MBO analyzes the practical steps involved in the process is determining organizational goals, determining employees’ objectives, constant monitoring progress and performance feedback and determining performance appraisal.

Put differently, the instrumentality of the MBO process that has to do with planning, setting objectives, managing resources, developing the human and financial assets that is needed in achieving the objectives of any organization. Therefore, this paper highlights on the application of Management by objective (MBO) as applied to identifying goals and objectives; defining managerial responsibilities in terms of expected results, measuring performances and achievement of purpose. In the analysis of Henri Fayol, the participatory factor which highlights essentially, the involvement efforts of both middle and junior level staff in objective setting, directing and controlling actions contributes highly to the success of the institution. Basically, the MBO model focuses on joint superior/subordinate participation in goal setting. The model further promotes retention of employees’ motivation and high morale towards effectiveness and purposeful leadership by identifying clearly with objectives and work harmoniously with all persons concerned for the success of the organization.

Background on Secondary Education in Nigeria
Based on the National Policy on Education in Nigeria, the 6-3-3-4 system secondary education adopted since 1988 spells out a six-year pattern for secondary education. At this level, the first three (3) years after primary education known as the Junior Secondary School (JSS) is considered part of the 9 years basic education while the second three (3) years referred to as the Senior Secondary School (SSS) is upper secondary education that stands as a stage before transition to tertiary education.

The introduction of the 6-3-3-4 system has ushered in numerous problems for principals of secondary schools due to the diverse nature of the curriculum and the difficulties involved in its implementation. The nomenclature in the curriculum encompasses branches of science, arts, computer, vocational and technical training among others; which due to lack of necessary instructional and infrastructural facilities failed to deliver.

In an application of MBO strategy in secondary school in Ebonyi, differences in practice between principals in schools located in urban and rural have become an issue of concern. Onuma (2016) cited Gwacham (2005) observed that some principals hardly go near the classroom to supervise, guide, direct and motivate teachers for effective curriculum delivery. Besides, some numerous management problems inadequate finance, motivation, information and communication technology facilities in the administration of the school system are encountered by secondary school principals. These issues impact negatively on the quality of teaching and learning in schools.

In school management, principals as managers have roles and responsibilities to perform. According to Zkjadoon (2016), posits that Management by Objectives (MBO) theory was proposed by Peter Drucker in the 1954 and signifies a kind of personnel management strategy that is used in business to set organizational objectives, planned and monitored the achievement of set objectives.

MBO management teams challenge one another's thinking and develop a more complete understanding of their choices, create a richer range of options, and make better decisions. In application, the MBO model identifies six tactics characteristic of high-performing teams; they work with more, rather than less, information, they develop multiple alternatives to enrich debate, they establish common goals, they make an effort to inject humor into the workplace, they maintain a balanced corporate power structure and resolve issues without forcing a consensus. These tactics work because they keep conflict focused on issues; foster collaborative, rather than competitive, relations among team members; and create a sense of fairness in the decision-making process. Without conflict, groups lose their effectiveness so the alternative to conflict is not usually agreement but rather apathy and disengagement, which open the doors to a primary cause of major corporate debacles: groupthink.

The achievement of goals under this model focuses efforts in translating plans into action. At all levels, input collected as feedback also helps in fine-tuning the system and providing administrators, relevant data for outlining the institutional goals and objectives.

The definition of the organizational goals and objectives in schools using the MBO model requires most importantly, participatory approach to collecting data for informed decision making. The process also known as “needs assessment” engage all staff irrespective of rank and level into designing clear and concise written statements about the school’s goals and objectives. This process should be understood by all while its analysis puts into consideration, challenges and strategies for attaining the goals. The significant part of the MBO process is the responsibilities placed on each unit in the school, compelling individuals to participate and work tirelessly towards the attainment of the set objectives.

To apply this model, Peter Drucker enumerates six steps in promoting the goals of the school. These steps are described by as:

(i) Determining or revising organizational objectives of the entire organization;

(ii) Translating the organizational objectives into realizable outcomes employees using SMART (Specific, Measurable, Acceptable, Realistic, Time-bound) to express the concept;

(iii) Stimulating the participation of employees in goal setting and objectives;

(iv) Monitoring the progress;

(v) Evaluating and monitoring the process and

(vi) Review and getting feedback on what went well and what needs to be done in order to improve the system.

This process may appear cumbersome and rigorous but certainly one that promotes quality delivery in the entire learning process.
Strategic Objectives and Goals in Secondary School Management

The role of the principal in the deployment of MBO managerial initiatives is to adequately provide an enabling environment that ensures: (a) adequate funding that cascades into adequate availability of variety of resources to cater for students with diverse learning needs; (b) providing broader opportunities to cater for students and ensure that extra academic assistance is rendered to help students navigate easily especially in subjects that may appear difficult and challenging and (c) provide various emotional intelligence initiatives and programs to fostering character development and spiritual awareness that would emphasize honor and community service. These provisions will assist in reinforcing the quality and dignity of the school, especially in building the four pillars of Leadership, Scholarship, Integrity, and Service.

While above prepositions prepare principals in executing the MBO model, other basic aims of managing the school should be focused upon to ensure the school also focuses on:

1. Preparing students to live and work in an increasingly connected and competitive global world.

2. Fostering a strong sense of public purpose that instills in students; appreciation of diverse demographic cultures and appreciation of relative backgrounds inherent in the system.

To ensure long-term financial stability for the school; the Principal must strive to maintain a balanced budget and appropriate cash reserves. The provision would help principals in supporting the school programs and minimizing the cost of tuition fees, keeping in mind the overall enrollment. It is worthy of note that introducing an endowment fund may be critical but helpful in reducing the dependence on tuition and could over long time, becomes the primary source of financial aid.

3. Providing an enabling school environment that allows students to seek for more insight, even if it requires additional further learning beyond the “four walls” of the globe in order to share useful insights and experiences on new leanings.

4. Work towards providing a robust opportunity to facilitate international collaboration.

5. Provide more experiential and hands-on learning opportunities that allow for student creativity, exploration and entrepreneurship. The development of entrepreneurial skills has made it mandatory for principals to ensure that students are provided with opportunities to develop important life skills including, but not limited to, collaborating with others, time management, observation, independence and self-study.

6. Provide safe environment and establish a culture of continuous improvement. Maintain a master campus site plan that anticipates and is able to accommodate future programming and space requirements.

7. Continue valuing the relationship-building process among students, faculty, staff, administrators and parents for the enrichment of the school. The safety of students, faculty, staff and administrators are paramount at all times.

8. Maintain and enhance up-to-date and appropriate safety protocols and policies for all aspects of the school community.
9. Adhere to best the practice governance protocols and procedures.

10. Reinforce the board’s role in defining long-range and strategic needs of the school and as head of School is to manage the administration and operational needs of the school.

11. Establish a process of conducting annual review to diagnose the school’s mission, vision, policy procedures for the promotion of relevance and standards.

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**Fig 1: System Approach to Management by Objectives**

Dynamism in MBO model presents it as a comprehensive goal-driven process that is success-oriented for any responsive management system to depend upon for the benefits of achieving set goals. The model helps in engaging managers like school principals to integrate all the activities of the school system for maximum output. This model critically explains the dynamic role of the school’s leadership in utilizing both internal and external output for the purpose of promoting quality standards in schools. Besides defining objectives and appraisal of performance, it can also be used as instrument to motivate and engage staff in strategic planning and execution of tasks; mobilizing and integrating human resource and development staff, students and organizational development, career planning and development, budgetary and financial control, community relationship, and in other school plans that deals with infrastructural provision and other managerial activities. The more principals imbibe MBO in their administrative functions, the more strategic the school remains in focus and actions.

Since the utility value of education is highly judged by the public, principals must make adequate efforts to run a responsive system. Most public outcry over poor standards of education has questioned principals’ administrative practices; extra efforts must be made to utilize the MBO technique in raising the standards of education. The allegation of lack of effective management techniques in running secondary education are obstacles to the achievement of educational goals (Nwankwo in Nwite, 2016) and this makes it necessary for school principals whether male or female in Urban or rural area to endeavour and imbibe the principles of MBO to effective the system.

Getzels and Guba in Nwite (2016), in their social system theory stated that each of the institutions (homothetic dimension) and the individuals within the institutions (ideographic) dimension, have certain needs and dispositions that are in constant instruction. The analogy driven from this premise using the school as a social system signifies the involvement of two classes of phenomena that are independent yet in constant interaction. The principle underlying this theory presents an organization like schools as institution established for the purpose of achieving theory goals and fostering their survival through the efforts of the super-ordinate (principal) and subordinates (staff) by way of satisfying the theory needs and interest of the organization. The importance associated with management theory of motivation, Evan’s in Nwite (2016) pathgoral theory draws heavily on the expectancy theory of motivation. The theory explains the impact of leadership behaviour on subordinate motivation, satisfaction, effort and performance as moderated by situational factor and environment. The theory contended that leaders (principals) should motivate subrogates (staff) which MBO advocated by establishing good relationship, clarifying and facilitating the path subordinate must take to fulfil their needs as well as organizational needs clearing ways or reducing roadblocks and pitfalls that prevent goal attainment and increasing personal satisfaction among subordinates (Nwite, 2016). The use of MBO process advocates the application of these theories by school principals to enable teachers use theory potentials and creatively towards attainment of education goals for better performance of students academically. MBO also advocates the application of McGregor in Nwite (2016) theory Z that place emphasis concern for teachers participation in decision making as an approach to motivation for increased performance in school organization.
The model illustrates the stages of implementation of MBO and the flow of information and activities to be performed from the study stages to evaluation stage. It is cyclic in nature because of the need to give feedback and determine the effectiveness of the implementation of the programme. From the diagram, the secondary school administrators (principals and vice principals) are to perform the roles in stage 1, 2 and 3, (study, goal setting and resourcing stage), while resorting to other school staff, heads of departments, house masters, teachers and non-teaching staff who are responsible for execution of the duties in stage four.

The possible interpretation could be that they knew the advantage of MBO in school administration with regard to the management of instructional programmes, student’s guidance and welfare services. It is important for the leadership to engage staff into a harmonious relationship that could lead to success in achieving goals of the school. This speculation is interdem with the findings of Ofojebe (2010), Nwosu (2008) and Jaiyeoba (2004) who in their separate studies reported that the principals they studied knew that MBO could be beneficial in achieving continuous improvement in school administration or management. Nwosu (2008) reported that principals should be prudent in the management of funds in school.

Arising from the growing complexities of educational enterprise and rising cost of education, principals as administrative heads have specific roles and responsibilities towards the attainment of school set goals. To attain these goals, the use of MBO is identified as a strategic tool required by principals to effect changes in their institutions. It is the adoption and utilization of MBO process that the principals’ task becomes revolutionized for the development of secondary educational system in Nigeria.

**CONCLUSION**

Based on the MBO process highlighted, it is important for principals to pay particular attention to defining the goals and objectives of their schools. It is only when goals are strategically identified that all other processes including administration and teaching follow. Despite the
difficulty involved managing bureaucratic structures, principals should through the instrumentality of MBO address most challenges that threatens their systems by sharpening their focus and involvement in promoting transparency and accountability in their institutional domains. The use of MBO model contributes to increased authority to administer and manage individual teachers in manner that makes planning and execution of programmes easier and less challenging. The apparent task is for the principal to impose a sense of responsibility on the teachers and other relevant so as to remain committed in the implementation of the MBO process; right from planning to policy making and execution. The driving process henceforth, compels the entire stakeholders to remain committed to the attainment of the institutional goals and be accountable to the process of the education enterprise.

**RECOMMENDATIONS**

The use of MBO model in secondary schools remains important in promoting quality service delivery and management of secondary schools. To improve on service delivery and attain success in management performance, principals should consider the following:

1. Participatory efforts in review of goals and objectives.

A proactive principal requires constant review of the goals and objectives of the school to motive the system and ensure compliance to standards. The review demands for the involvement of staff and stakeholders in defining objectives, actions and responsibilities of each staff in the process as guide to successful management.

2. Regular training on the use of MBO model.

The MBO is a complex and rigorous process and can only be achieved when Principals as administrators become conversant with the process of the MBO model. Apart from the principal, it is important for all stakeholders to be re-oriented on the importance of applying management by objective techniques and in defining goals and objectives. It is also critical to mount advocacy on the management of infrastructural facilities including the use of space, classrooms, laboratories, libraries, textbooks, information communication technology. This will help in energizing the system by promoting the quality of teaching and learning and service delivery.

3. Hosting and attending regular meetings, workshops and seminars conferences with colleagues from other schools to discuss and share ideas.

It is important for principals to network and share experiences in providing effective and efficient management system that is responsive to the needs of the public. Since there is a forum of principals, it is only natural the this forum be utilized by the Federal Ministry of Education (FME) and Secondary Education Management Board (SEMB) of each state to utilize the established forum to organize on regular basis; meetings, workshops and seminars to discuss common challenges that could facilitate adoption of best practices. The challenge of managing schools is enormous, hence the strategic planning and execution of action plan requires participatory support to advance the course of promoting academic excellence. The MBO model should be discussed and while training be made compulsory for all serving principals and their vice principals to make them conversant with the practice of MBO process.
4. Provide Adequate Financial Support to Principals to Encourage and Facilitate Performance.

To encourage principals to adopt and influence staff involvement, there is need to provide adequate funding to make it easier for them to manage the schools using the MBO model. Most challenges arise from the issue of finances and when properly addressed would go along into assisting the principals to strategize on meeting the goals of the school.

5. Utilizing the Networks for Secondary School Principals to discuss challenges of the application of MBO model and possible strategies for improving areas where deficiencies. This network can help in sharing ideas and promoting collaborations in relevant areas of need. It can help to attract partnership and also sustain cordial relationships with other schools, colleagues and the community which may result into positive, functional and meaningful achievement of the set goals of the school.

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7.2

APPLYING STRATEGIC PLANNING PRINCIPLES FOR EFFECTIVE AND EFFICIENT EDUCATION PLANNING TO ATTAIN SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT GOAL 4

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ABSTRACT

Education is needed for the social, economic, political and technological transformation of the nation. Therefore, for education to play its leading role in the development of a nation, it should be properly planned, taking into consideration the attainment of the Sustainable Development Goal 4 (SDG4). Presently in Nigeria, the indicators of SDG4 are far from being achieved with over 10 million out-of-school children, low completion rate at basic and senior secondary education level, etc. Educational planning in Nigeria started from the colonial era when education ordinances were used to guide and direct educational activities followed by the 1944 ten-year education plan. After independence in 1960 till date, Nigeria had come up with many education plans, some of which were embedded in the National Development plans. However, education in Nigeria is bedeviled by myriads of challenges such as inadequate access and equity, poor quality and relevance, infrastructural decay, inefficient management and inadequate resources. The focus of this chapter is to examine how to make the Nigerian education system more effective and efficient through strategic planning. Therefore, the concept of strategic planning, the benefits of strategic planning, the planning cycle and the how of strategic planning are discussed.

Keywords: Education, Effective, Planning, Principles, & Strategic.

INTRODUCTION

The success of any educational system depends greatly on effective planning. Planning involves examining the future and drawing up a course of action for attaining specific goals. It means outlining what to be done and the procedures for doing them to accomplish set purpose (Akpan, 2000). Planning is an intelligent preparation for action. It is a process of deciding in advance what to do, how to do it, when to do it and who should do it. It bridges the gap from where we are and where we want to go. Planning is therefore, future-oriented. It is concerned with the future and involves predicting the effect of future events so that hindrances of the present could be minimized or eliminated in order to meet the future with more confidence and success (Akpan, 2000; Nwogwugwuon, 2015).

Akpan (2000) citing Coombs views educational planning as the application of rational systematic analysis to the process of educational development with the aim of making education more effective and efficient in responding to the needs and goals of the students and the society. This definition connotes that planning of education should take cognizance of the learners’ needs in the areas of learning facilities and equipment, textbooks, classroom spaces and qualified educational personnel. In terms of meeting the needs of the society, educational
planning should take cognizance of the manpower, cultural, social and communication needs of the society (nation) as well as the economic changes (Akpan, 2000 and Edame, 2015).

According to Adepoju (2000); Bradford, Duncan and Tarcy (1999), educational planning is the process of identifying educational needs and the direction that education should take and how to implement decisions. This means that educational planning must reflect the state of development of a nation, including its needs and the readiness to execute the planned objectives. However, educational planning in developing nations like Nigeria, is bedeviled with challenges such as placing too much focus on plan preparation and not enough on implementation; preparing plans in a top-down, technocratic way; not given enough consideration to the changing environment; education just happening; the wish-listing approach; planning as a one-shot, uni-directional and non-participatory affair. To overcome these challenges, there is the need for strategic planning of the education system.

CONCEPT OF STRATEGIC PLANNING
Strategic planning has its origin in warfare. The word ‘strategy’ derives from the Greek word strategos (a combination of stratos, army, and agein, to conduct). The Greek term referred to the civil-military officials elected by the citizens of Athens to assume leadership during times of war. The strategoi were expected to prepare and implement overall, top-level plans in order to achieve the long-term goal of winning the war (through battles, negotiations, or any other means available, according to the changing situation).

From its military roots, strategic planning has kept at least two essential characteristics:

- to think big, by taking into consideration all possible options and paying due attention to the changing environment; and
- to focus on a clear, final and firm long-term goal to be achieved.

In the early 1960s, this term was proposed to be used outside the military context, first in business and then in the social sectors as well. Education is no exception. Strategic planning in the education sector emerged in the US as early as the late 1970s but mainly at the institutional (university and college) level. Strategic planning at the central education system level did not take off before the 1990s. The practice of preparing strategic education sector plans was adopted several years later, (UNESCO, 2010). The strategic planning approach can be defined as a management tool to help an organization to improve its performance by ensuring that its members are working to the same goals and by continuously adjusting the direction of the organization to the changing environment on the basis of results obtained. A strategic plan in the education sector is the physical product of the strategic planning process and embodies the guiding orientations on how to run an education system within a larger national development perspective, which is evolving by nature and often involves constraints, (Chang, 2006).

Characteristics of Strategic Planning
The following according to (Bryson, 1995, Carrizo, Sauvageot and Bella, 2003, DFID, 2002) are the key characteristics of strategic planning:

a. Strategic planning is guided by an overall sense of direction
Strategic planning is not just a cold technical undertaking that spells out future objectives to be reached and actions to be taken. It needs a global sense of purpose and direction capable of guiding implementers in making everyday choices about what actions should be taken in order to produce the expected results. Handbooks on strategic planning usually recommend starting
with the formulation of a mission and a vision statement. A mission statement is a short paragraph summarizing the overall goal which the organization is trying to accomplish; the main method it is going to follow to reach its goal; and the basic principles and values that will guide the fulfilment of the mission. A vision statement is somewhat broader since it sets out the ideal state of affairs which the organization would like eventually to achieve.

b. Strategic planning is sensitive to the environment
Strategic planning is based on the belief that the successful development of an organization is the result of finding the right fit between its internal strengths and weaknesses and the external opportunities and threats stemming from the environment. The main assumption is that, in order to be effective, organizations must be responsive to their environment, which is continuously changing. They must place the emphasis on understanding the changes and adapting their decisions accordingly. Consequently, a careful scanning of the environment is important not only at the stage of making the initial diagnosis for preparing a plan, but also, at the stage of monitoring the plan implementation.

c. Strategic planning is result-oriented
Monitoring traditional plan implementation has been mainly concerned with making sure that the necessary inputs are being provided as foreseen and that the different activities are being carried out as scheduled. This is often referred to as compliance monitoring, that is, checking whether the inputs and activities are in compliance with original plans and budgets. Strategic planning is different, since it considers compliance monitoring as not good enough and prefers to concentrate on whether the expected results have been obtained. In other words, the main emphasis is shifted away from compliance monitoring to performance (or results) monitoring. Results of a specific activity are then usually measured at three successive levels: immediate outputs (e.g. the number of schools built), intermediate outcomes (e.g. the increased enrolment rates) and long-term impacts (e.g. the increased average number of years of schooling of the population).

d. Strategic planning is a mobilization instrument
Strategic planning cannot succeed without the commitment of the plan implementers and the different stakeholders. Commitment can only be obtained if people identify with the plan, so that they are motivated to produce the expected results. Strategic planning should therefore not be carried out in isolation by experts alone, but rather as an inclusive process in which the implementers and stakeholders are actively involved in one way or another. If organized in a participatory way, the preparation of a strategic plan in itself becomes a learning experience. It creates a privileged moment for opening new lines of communication and dialogue, for promoting understanding and ownership of what is being planned for and disseminating a spirit of strategic thinking throughout the whole organization. It should be realized at the same time that it is much more complex and time consuming to prepare an education sector plan in a participatory way than to do it in the traditional technocratic way, but the learning experience makes it worthy.

e. Strategic planning is flexible in its implementation
Strategic planning is based on the belief that no neat, final plan can be prepared, simply because situations have become too complex and environments too unpredictable, and because it is impossible to foresee every possible consequence of future decisions that will be made. An essential characteristic of strategic planning is, therefore, to proceed by ‘intelligent trial and error’ rather than by linear adherence to a detailed, polished plan document. A strategic plan
should lay out the final goal and the general path to be followed, rather than the precise steps to be taken to reach that goal.

**BENEFITS OF STRATEGIC PLANNING**
The following, according to Obanya (2008) are the benefits of applying strategic planning principles to education sector:

a. **Ensuring planned development of education**
Strategic planning helps to ensure that educational development follows a well thought-out process that does not treat challenges in isolation, that ties up every issue together with every other, that one step systematically builds on the other, and that all development efforts do lead to concrete results in the form of qualitative progress and notable improvement.

b. **Taking a long term and holistic view of the sector**
It is often said that while a politician thinks of the next election, a statesman thinks of the next generation. Strategic planning places emphasis on a long-term view of educational development. It does not consider education issues in bits and pieces. Instead, it considers the systemic relationship among different facets of education – approach that allows the plan to see beyond ‘the trees to the forest’.

c. **Aligning educational development more intimately with other sectors of development**
Education is the number one development sector of all countries. It does contribute in strong measures to all other development sectors, while every other sector contributes to its full realization. Above all, every nation needs an overall, multi-sector development plan into which the education sector should neatly fit. The implications are first that strategic education planning has a lot to gain from the full collaboration of all other development factors, and second, an education sector plan must not stand alone. To be effective, educational development must be an in-built activity of an overall, multi-sector development planning.

d. **Focusing on strategic challenge areas of educational development**
Education in all places, and under every conceivable condition, is faced with numerous challenges – funding, infrastructure, teaching and learning, access and equity, quality and relevance, etc. Within each of these broad categories, there are bound to be numerous ‘sub-challenges’. Strategic planning helps us to prioritize all of these, to categorize them in terms of hierarchies, and to focus on those with more strategic importance – those most likely to exert a multiplier effect and those most likely to deal with the root causes (and not simply the surface symptoms) of the challenges.

e. **Prioritizing potential high impact areas**
Not all the challenges facing education can be dealt with at one and the same attempt, and with equal deployment of resources. Nor are resources (in the broadest sense of the term – personnel, technical, material and financial) always there in abundance. To optimize the use of available resources (including time) issues have to be prioritized. In planning, prioritizing tries to focus on high impact areas, especially high long-time impact. For example, investing in quality issues (teacher continuing education, appropriate education materials and their effective use to maximize learning, learner-friendly school environments, etc) would likely have high, long-term impact on the quality of learning and the contribution of learners to overall national development.
**f. Engaging stakeholders in policy dialogues and ensuring their ownership of education development endeavours**

Strategic planning is participatory and an ‘I shall do it with you affair and not ‘I shall do it for you’. The concern is with the strategic interests of the people and these calls for the people’s full involvement of the people. The people should be the author of the strategic choices to be made, the strategic actions to be taken during the planning process. The people are also the determinants (Those whose concerns determine what is desirable) as well as the determiners (those whose judgment and perceptions serve as eventual indicators of success) of educational progress. Strategic planning enables us to respond to these desiderata, as the process is mainly one of carrying the people along at all times, in all forms, all the way through.

**g. Channelling resources to areas of greatest need**

Resources for educational development are always scarce and will remain so. Educational planning, using the strategic approach, allows one to determine the strategically important areas for which resources would be needed. By so doing, we become better able to respond to the strategic demand areas of the system, by channelling resources to these areas. Development activities are often faced with the demand for more resources, but ‘more’ does not always rhyme with ‘better’. Strategic planning helps to draw greater attention to the ‘better’ side of the resources required for education. Resources are better utilized when they are channelled to areas of greatest (i.e. strategic) needs and the systematic process of strategic planning is most likely to facilitate this.

**THE STRATEGIC PLANNING CYCLE**

There is no single perfect way to conduct strategic planning. Each institution has its own particular interpretation of the approaches and activities in strategic management. What is generic to strategic management are typical stages involving similar activities carried out in a similar sequence. According to Chang (2006), strategic educational planning involves a cyclic process consisting of Situation Analysis, Policy Formulation, Strategic/Action Planning, Implementation, Monitoring and Evaluation as presented in Figure 1.

![Figure 1: The Strategic Planning Cycle](image-url)
Situation Analysis
This is a diagnostic stage where a cursory look into the status of education in the State in terms of the Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, Threats (SWOT) is taken. It involves a review of how the educational system is working and what the challenges are.

Policy Formulation
A policy is a course of action adopted or proposed by a government, institution, group, or organisation intended to guide decisions and achieve rational outcomes. Education policy is therefore government’s public commitment to the future orientation of the education sector. Education policies are usually defined along result areas which currently are:

i. Access (participation, disparity issues)
ii. Quality (relevance of education at different levels, internal efficiency and external effectiveness)
iii. System Management (governance, decentralisation and resource management.

Education policies are formulated after situation analysis has identified the various challenges as well as the success stories of the education sector. Policy priorities and strategies that are stated are therefore intended to address the identified challenges based on an understanding of the underlying causes and determining factors, thus offering a way to resolve them.

Realizing that all goals cannot be reached at once, development of policy priorities are usually guided by

i. A vision of positioning the sector towards maximizing deliverables
ii. Shared priorities, that is, priorities that will affect more people or areas
iii. Well-spelt out strategies of achieving the priorities (taking into account human, technical and financial capacities)

Strategic/Action Planning
This is the stage where the policy statements are translated into Executable, Measurable and Accountable (EMA) actions. At this stage, a plan is reduced to actions, stating precisely what should be done, how it should be done, when it should be done and who should do what.

Implementation
This is the point of execution of the plan. The actions spelt out are then set in motion with the hope of achieving the desired results.

Monitoring and Evaluation
The whole process is continuously assessed to check for relevance, efficiency, effectiveness, impact and sustainability. Vital questions to ask at this stage include: does the plan address the identified needs? Are available resources used wisely? Are the projects delivering the set out results? Have the wider goals been achieved etc.?

THE HOW OF STRATEGIC PLANNING
It is expected that the plan will not be prepared in a technocratic way by external national or international experts, but by the Ministry of Education staff itself, with the active participation of different national and international partners and stakeholders. This is to enable ownership of the plan. Before the real planning work can start, there is the need for the Ministry to organize the plan preparation process itself, which means to put in place the necessary structures,
distribute the different responsibilities and tasks, mobilize the required resources particularly human, and fix a clear time schedule.

There is no single way of organizing a strategic plan preparation. Every country has its own specifics. Ministries of Education have different experiences, different organizational structures and different management cultures. In addition, things rarely start from scratch and previous arrangements have to be taken into account. Organizational proposals for preparing a strategic plan are very much context specific and thus not transferable to other countries. Nevertheless, they can give a good idea of the basic questions to be addressed in all cases, (UNESCO, 2010; DFID, 2002; Jallade, Radi, Cuein, 2001; Laverge and Alba, 2003; US Department of Education, 2013). Below are the basic questions to be addressed on the how of strategic planning.

**Basic questions to be addressed**

i. How do we mobilize the technical expertise required for the plan preparation?

ii. How do we involve the whole Ministry in the planning process?

iii. How do we ensure the participation of partners and stakeholders?

iv. How do we organize coordination and monitoring of different activities?

v. How do we fix an appropriate work plan for the different activities to be carried out?

An attempt is made below to answer the above basic questions on the how of strategic planning:

**Mobilizing technical expertise required for the plan preparation**

Planning is a technical undertaking and therefore, needs a strong national expert team. The Strategic Planning Team should be the technical driving force behind the plan preparation. The team will be in charge of carrying out the different technical tasks (data analysis and reporting, making forecasts and simulations, designing programmes, cost calculations, etc.), and feeding the planning process with the relevant information. It is the responsibility of the team to provide the different actors who will be involved with the technical guidance and support needed, and finally monitor the reporting process and writing up the plan document. In addition to some basic generic skills (analytical capacity, communication skills, reporting and writing skills) the Strategic Planning Team should combine in one way or another specific technical competency in statistical analysis (including the use of indicators); programme design and monitoring; use of computerized simulation models; costing, budgeting and financing.

The anchor point of the strategic planning team will normally be the Planning Department, which should be able to provide most of the competencies listed above. However, in several instances there could be a need for additional expertise from outside the department. It is always preferable to select the additional expertise from within the Ministry (e.g. a specialist in costing and budgeting from the finance department), but in certain cases expertise may be brought in from outside on a temporary basis (e.g. from universities or research centres, or from other Ministries with experience in strategic planning).

While setting up the team, it is important to bear in mind that the planning process itself is a learning experience. At the beginning, many specific skills might not yet be fully developed. This should not be a problem, provided the elementary skills are there, the team members are motivated and, of course, given that the whole process includes an explicit capacity development component. The planning team should indeed be the main target group of the capacity development activities that will be undertaken as an integral part of the strategic planning process in order to ensure its sustainability in the longer term. Such capacity
development activities can best take the form of brief explicit training workshops, which are directly related to the specific planning tasks to be performed and are combined with on-the-job training.

**Involving the whole Ministry in the planning process**

One of the characteristics of strategic planning is that it is participatory; therefore, a strategic plan should not be prepared by an expert team in isolation, but with the full participation of the different departments of the Ministry. Their active involvement in the plan preparation should allow the whole planning process to fully benefit from the experience and knowledge accumulated in the different departments and should thereby help in making the plan as realistic as possible. This offers the most efficient way of creating sufficient ownership of the plan by those who will have to implement it later on, and of developing a feeling of accountability for obtaining the expected results.

The most common procedure for making the plan preparation a collective Ministry undertaking is to set up different Technical Working Groups in charge of specific areas or themes. During the phase of diagnosis, Working Groups can best be formed by level and type of education (early childhood education, basic education, senior secondary, technical and vocational, adult education, teacher training, tertiary, etc.), complemented by a few cross-cutting groups (e.g. on management, cost and financing, etc.). Later on, the Working Groups might be reshuffled at the stage of programme design, in order to adapt their number and composition to the list of priority programme areas that have been selected (some of which will still be level-specific, while others will be cross-cutting but maybe along different lines from those retained for the diagnosis).

Each Technical Working Group can best be composed of a small number of selected staff members from the department(s) directly concerned with the specific area under discussion, reinforced by a few knowledgeable outside specialists, by a few representatives of the decentralized levels of administration whenever possible, and by at least one member of the Strategic Planning Team (who should act as a facilitator). In order to function well, the Working Group members should be properly briefed and trained. They should further be supported in their work by the Strategic Planning Team, which should provide them with the necessary information and technical guidance needed for carrying out their tasks.

The main functions of the Technical Working Groups, to be carried out with the direct support of the Strategic Planning Team, will be:

i. to carry out the situation analysis of the education sector, resulting in the identification of the main problems and the challenges ahead;

ii. to make proposals concerning the objectives, targets and priority action programmes to be included in the five-year plan; and

iii. to design the different priority programmes selected for reaching the plan objectives, including the identification of indicators for monitoring the programme implementation.

**Ensuring the participation of partners and stakeholders**

Stakeholders in a given programme are any individuals, groups, or organizations that directly or indirectly, positively or negatively affect or are affected by the processes and/or the outcomes of the programme. The concept is very broad and covers a wide variety of social
actors. This is particularly true in a large and complex system such as the education sector, which offers different types of services and has multiple levels of action. A first challenge is therefore often simply to draw up a list of actors to be involved. In many Ministries of Education, the data available about stakeholders are scarce and fragmented, which further complicates the task.

Nevertheless, in most cases a classification of the main stakeholders can be made by using the following broad categories: development partners, including aid agencies, international and (large) national NGOs; civil society organizations and representatives, including religious, socio-cultural and economic representatives; professional education associations, including teacher trade unions, parent/decentralized levels of the education administration; other Ministries affecting or affected by the education plan such as the Ministries of Finance; Planning, Labour, Social Affairs, Health, etc.

This list is not exhaustive, and other categories, such as political representatives, student representatives, representatives of the research community, and others, might be added depending on the specific situation. Different categories of stakeholders can be involved through different mechanisms, including more or less formal information meetings, written or electronic communication, videoconferencing, formal consultation meetings, workshops, national conferences, etc. Also, the level of involvement expected from different categories of stakeholders may vary from simple information sharing, over real consultation, to consensus building and finally direct participation in decision-making. In general, the donor agencies are among the most active partners in the strategic planning process.

**Ensuring proper coordination and monitoring of activities**

Coordination and monitoring of the planning process have to take place both at the technical and the policy level. There is again no standard formula for organizing these two complementary functions but only some general indications as could be seen below:

**Chief Technical Coordinator**

A strong Chief Technical Coordinator, who will be in charge of planning, coordinating, and monitoring, on a daily basis, the activities carried out by the Strategic Planning Team, the different Technical Working Groups and the different stakeholders is needed. Under the best of circumstances, the Chief Technical Coordinator should be the Director of Planning as well as the coordinator of the Strategic Planning Team. In any case, whoever is put in charge of the overall daily coordination should be able to directly rely on the Strategic Planning Team, which constitutes the driving force behind the whole planning process.

**Strategic Planning Committee**

Still at the technical level, the Chief Technical Coordinator should be supported by a Strategic Planning Committee, which ideally should be composed of department directors, the coordinators of the different working groups (some of whom will also be department directors), and the Chief Technical Coordinator, who will act as secretary of the Committee. The Committee should be chaired by a high-ranking officer especially the Permanent Secretary with the necessary powers to make decisions as required during the planning process. The Committee should meet regularly and as often as required, in order to assess progress made with the plan preparation and challenges encountered, ensure information exchange and coordination between the different working groups, and deliberate collectively about the technical decisions to be made for keeping the planning process on track.
Joint Steering Committee

At the policy level, there is room for creating a high-level Joint Steering Committee, preferably chaired by the Minister or his representative and composed of top level Ministry of Education staff; representatives of the Ministry of Planning, Ministry of Finance and other selected Ministries; representatives of the development partners; and representatives of any other stakeholders/group that might be considered relevant. The main functions of this Joint Steering Committee are:

➢ to provide overall guidance for the preparation of the sector plan on the basis of the inputs provided by the Strategic Planning Team and more specifically to advise the Minister on all policy decisions required for fixing the main plan orientations, goals and objectives, for selecting the priority programmes, and for the allocation of resources between the different plan components;

➢ to serve as a linking mechanism between the Ministry and the major partners in education development; and to appraise the plan document and make recommendations to the Minister for its approval.

CONCLUSION

To ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities as stated in the Sustainable Development Goal 4, the Nigerian educational system needs to overcome the challenges faced in form of inadequate access and equity, poor quality and relevance, infrastructural decay, inefficient management and inadequate resources. The need to apply strategic planning principles cannot be over-emphasized. This will ensure that issues and challenges are treated holistically; resources are allocated to areas of greatest need and potential high impact areas with optimal benefits to the people are prioritized.

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ABSTRACT
The desire for developing nations like Nigeria to achieve sustainable development has been an interest debate in literature in all fields of human endeavor. This study examined the place of educational planning in achieving inclusive education which is an integral component of goal four of the sustainable development goals (SDGs) agenda. The study relied on qualitative narrative of concepts, principally educational planning, inclusive education, and sustainable development in Nigeria. The study revealed that educational planning helps in eliminating barriers that responsible exclusion, it helps also in curbing the challenge of infrastructural deficits, teachers demand and supply issues and in addressing problems students enrolment and teaching and learning resources among others that are needed for achieving inclusive education. The findings further established that inclusive education is an important tool for achieving sustainable economic, social and environmental development. The study however identified funding, absence of reliable data, endemic corruption and political instability as major challenges to educational planning in Nigeria. Despite these issues, it study concluded that educational planning is sure way to achieving inclusive education for sustainable development in Nigeria and recommended proper funding of education and the need to involved experts and professionals in educational planning as strategies for effective planning in education.

Keywords: Educational Planning, Inclusive Education, & Sustainable Development.

INTRODUCTION
The success story of most countries in the world in terms of development is deeply rooted on their investment in education. Consequently, developing countries like Nigeria also have not made landmark achievement in social, economic and environmental areas partly because education as a sector has not received the desired attention to the extent that the level of exclusion of some categories of citizens from access to education has become a national disaster. Thus, owing to the need to curb this challenge globally, goal four (4) of the sustainable development goals (SDGs) emphasized the need for inclusive and equal educational opportunities for all citizens irrespective of perceived barriers that necessitated their hitherto exclusion from access to education. Inclusive education does not view a student as an individual with special needs that should be allowed to learn in a separate educational
environment; rather the system allows the students to be included in a typical classroom enrolment with his or her peers. Parker (2009) teachers in an inclusive education should be both general education teachers and special education teachers working together with paraprofessionals to support the unique learning needs of all students. Teaching staff in inclusive schools should therefore have knowledge of typical development and methods of instruction that reach all students. It is important to note also that the effectiveness of inclusive education depends on teachers ability to understand the concept so that will be in a better position to serve and advocate for students and be able understand the importance of the nature and impact of the relationships among children from different background and with various educational needs and challenges. According to Lo (2007) stated that inclusive education is anchored on human rights, social justice and equity ideals and through it, bad practices are eliminated and students benefit from the socialization and educational processes.

UNESCO (2009) viewed inclusive education as a process of transforming schools and other centers of learning to accommodate all learners including boys and girls, learners from ethnic and linguistic minorities and rural populations who have been excluded from access to education. While, Balasubramanian (2012) stated that inclusive schools have to be well-equipped in all aspects to cater and deliver quality education for all children. This includes having a balanced curriculum that is appropriate for all categories of children, teachers who have the ability to handle the individual needs within the classroom and thereby promote an environment where personal development, social skills and student participation are strongly encouraged. Nigeria therefore cannot be dreaming of achieving sustainable development just like other nations of the world when a greater part of its teeming population do not have access to education or are provided with education that deprived them from associating with their peers or sharing knowledge together. Yet, no meaning progress can be made in this respect without proper educational planning and hence the need to qualitatively assess the pivotal place of educational planning in Nigeria’s quest for inclusive education which is also viewed as sure way to sustainable development.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

History has it that some years ago, special classes were created for students with special needs. Special educators felt that if they would just teach the students separately in smaller groups, they could help them to catch up. According to Salami (2013) few years ago inclusive education was not the norm in our schools. However, what is obvious is that students in segregated education classes have fallen further and further behind. Over time, it has become apparent that inclusive education is a better way to help all students succeed. Nkwoagba (2013) noted that inclusive education involves some adoptions and modification in the regular schools in terms of administrative strategies, curriculum, learning materials, infrastructure, personnel and methods of approach in order to accommodate the diverse learning needs of learners.

In Nigeria, government has taken several steps toward achieving inclusive education of school aged children that suffer exclusion from access to education. Despite efforts made so far, no meaningful achievement has been made considering the increasing number of out of school children in different parts of the country. The exclusion of girl child in particular in the Northern part of the country and continues existence of special schools in different states in the country is eminent challenges to inclusive education in Nigeria and hence the motivation for the study.
CONCEPTUAL ISSUES

Concept of Inclusive Education

Education has been seen as the greatest force that can be used to bring about changes in a society because it is not only an end in itself but also a means to an end. Ikechukwu (2006) defined education as the light that derives away the darkness of ignorance and enables mankind to find its ways through the tortures and labyrinth of development and civilization. Inclusive education also means to place disabled children with non-disabled ones in the same classroom and school environments where they are taught to play together, communicate without possible labeling and discrimination of any sort. Education therefore is a process through which society values, knowledge, attitudes and skills are acquired either in a formal or non-formal setting with the aim of making the beneficiaries reliable assets in the society. Ahmad (2000) defined inclusive education as the education of all children and young people with and without disabilities or difficulties in learning together in ordinary pre-primary schools, colleges, and universities with appropriate network support. Obani (2002) stated that Inclusive schooling is the process of changing and reorganizing the entire school system to accept all children and cater for their varied special or ordinary learning needs and difficulties.

According to Ozoji (2005) inclusive education as an option or programme carefully designed to educate special needs learners with diverse needs within the re-structured mainstream or school communities. This implies that through the practice of inclusive education, the students start from the early days in life to regard each other as colleagues, understand one another’s weaknesses and individual differences as a result, and appreciate one another at their level. In order words, inclusion education believes that a child of school age should be unconditionally mainstreamed into the regular educational system without regard to nature and severity of his or her deficiency. Okwudire and Okechukwu (2008) viewed inclusive education as the progressive increase in the participation of students, in reduction of their exclusion from the cultures, curricula, and communities of local schools.

Deducing from the views of scholars therefore, it is important to state that, inclusive education seeks to address the learning needs of all children, youth and adults with a specific focus on those who are vulnerable to marginalization and exclusion attributed to factor such as disabilities, gender, cultural and religious beliefs, poverty, location and ignorant among other factors. UNESCO (2012) asserted that the ultimate goal of inclusive quality education is end all forms of discrimination and foster social cohesion. This therefore means that inclusion education differs significantly from integration and mainstreaming which focused mainly on children with disability and special educational needs. It is important to note that the principle of inclusive education is about the child’s right to access education and the duty of the school to accept the child regardless of his or her challenges by ensuring that the use of special schools or classrooms to separate students with disabilities for instance is abused. In the context of this work therefore, inclusive education is education targeted at making education accessible to the gifted, talented, those with physical disabilities, girl children, those engaged in street hawking, adults who have been excluded, the “Almajiris”, women in Pudah, victims of conflicts and natural disaster was well as those in rural communities that lack access to education among. The assumption is that when children or learners are separate under the phrase special or normal schools, they tend to believe that they are not equal in diverse ways which is against the principle of inclusive education.

Educational Planning
Planning as a concept is a necessary tool use to get things right regardless of where such productive decisions and actions are targeted at. This indeed is among reasons why experts have said that failing to plan amounts to planning to fail. A plan shows intended actions, activities, policies and programmes an individual, public sector or an organization intends to achieve using its available resources within a specified period of time. Planning is the process of determining a scheme for accomplishing a purpose. Whawo (1993) stated that such a scheme of arrangement which by essence is the plan is to be made beforehand by preparing a purposeful method of achieving the desired objectives. Planning provides an opportunity for policy makers and those saddled with the task of implementation with direction on what need to be done by a specified number of workers using the budgeted resources to achieve set goals and objectives. There is therefore no way education can be inclusive without effective planning which of course covers the identification of the problem, data collection, determination of resources needed and strategies to be used towards solving the problems. Ololube (2006b) it is essential for educational planning to be both efficient and effective if it is to properly guide the internal changes in the school as it utilizes the educational resources available. This therefore means that educational planning provides a foundation for all educational activities.

Education sector depends largely on effective planning. Effective planning covers the input, process and output variables as they relate to the achievement of the goals of education in a country. Ololube (2009) educational planning in its broadest generic sense is the application of rational, systematic analysis to the process of educational development with the aim of making education more effective and efficient in responding to the needs and goals of its students and society. The focus of educational planning generally is to make education more result-oriented for the development of the individual and the larger society. Ololube (2013) incorporates the process of analyzing, formulating, implementing and controlling the actions that have evolved to attain the desired aims and objectives of education. It helps us in determining the present state and interaction, hence projecting them throughout a given period of time.

Educational planning is the process by which the education industry makes decisions and takes action that affects its long-term performance. It defines both the teachers in the education system and the students in relation to the teaching and learning process. Educational planning is a concise and deliberate attempt, through organized and continuous processes to identify the different elements and aspects of the educational industry. In an inclusive education system, educational planning can be view as the application of rational, systematic analysis to the process of educational development with the aim of making education more effective and efficient in responding to the needs and goals of its students and society. Its methodologies are sufficiently flexible and adaptable to fit situations that differ widely in ideology, level of development, and governmental form. In developing countries like Nigeria, it is absolutely wrong to view educational planning as being exclusively concerned with the quantitative expansion of education, it covers the identification of implementable strategies that will improve access to and quality of education in a country considering the pivotal place of education in achievement sustainable development.

**Sustainable Development**

Development in not a new concept in literature considering it multi-faceted nature, but what seems to be a diversion from the ordinary meaning of development is the concept of sustainable development. Munasinghe (2004) defined sustainable development as a process of improving the range of opportunities that will enable individual humans and communities to achieve their aspirations and full potential over a sustained period of time while maintaining the resilience
of economic, social and environmental systems. McKeown (2002) stated that the central tenet of sustainable development unveils three diverse components namely, environment, society and economy that is interrelated and not separated. The argument on the need for sustainable development is that resources of nation have the tendency of going into extinction if not well management and protected by their present users so that generations unborn will also benefits maximally form these resources. It is all about having citizens with mindsets that re resources friendly in terms of their utilization and management. Sustainable development deducing from literature is development that emphasizes the need for people to ensure that resources available are effectively put to use in a manner that the future generations will also enjoy them at minimum costs. Consequently, inclusive education emphasized that social, economic and environmental issues should be incorporated in a nation’s developmental policies and agenda.

The journey towards sustainable development kick-started with the development of the sustainable development goals policy thrust containing economic, social and environmental issues. The SDGs are to be achieved within a set time frame of 2030. The thrust of the SDGs emphasized the need for sustainable utilization of the resources of nature as a basis for the sustenance of the current level of development without compromising the needs of future generations. The SDGs consists of seventeen (17) goals which goal four tagged SDGs 4 focused on ensuring inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all. To achieve, education that is inclusive in nature remains the fulcrum of this viable projects. Akpama, Bessong and Bessong (2017) stated that ample opportunities and facilities should be provided for both the youth and adults to have unimpeded access to education through evening continuing education or distant learning programmes. The author further stated that modern source of energy and other resources can best be explored, exploited and utilized sustainable by literate adults. Illiterate adults lack of knowledge, and skills to maximally and sustainably use modern energy.

EDUCATIONAL PLANNING AND INCLUSIVE EDUCATION

Planning no doubt is the fulcrum of goal attainment in all sectors and facets of human life. Thus, no meaning education can be successfully implemented no matter how purposeful and meaningful it may be without adequate planning. The place of educational planning in the achievement of inclusive education in Nigeria can be measured in the following ways:

Elimination of Barriers that promotes Exclusion: Nigeria like most developing economies in the world have a large number of school age children that are excluded from the system, invariably, the modern trend all over the world is shifting towards addressing the educational plights of students that have been excluded due to some barriers so as to better their life. Planning in education ensures that the learners are brought to close contact with human and other resources that are central in the implementation of the school curriculum. Educational Planning breeds quality and equal educational opportunities in the sense that those have are excluded in the system can be integrated when those planners are able to identify and remedy those barriers that promote exclusion from education. According, to Ajuwon (2008) there is a growing demand that including students with disabilities and others who have been excluded due to some factors in general education can provide them with the opportunity to learn in natural and stimulating settings, which may also lead to increased acceptance and appreciation of differences.

Curbing Infrastructural Deficit in Schools: Through planning, the government and relevant stakeholders will be in a better position to have the knowledge of the number of classrooms,
table laboratories, libraries, hostels, furniture and computer or internet facilities needed in school, especially in inclusive education set for quality teaching and learning. In fact the challenge of unfriendly school environment faced by special needs children in schools can be solve through proper educational planning. Osakwe (2010) argued that the school systems now face increasing pressure to raise standards, develop social and personal skills, broaden curricula, pay greater attention to equal educational opportunities and prepare young people for rapidly changing world. Thus, Chika (2011) asserted that an inclusive education should be encouraged by governments by way of providing infrastructure and other facilities that enhance learning, socialization and the overall development of children with disability. This will be possible where the learning environment is stimulating and the teachers are adequately training on managing the different needs that comes with such learning environment.

**Demand and Supply of Teachers in Schools:** Teachers are essential resources and assets in an educational set considering their role in the implementation of school curriculum. This implies therefore that any plan that does not take into cognizance in number of teachers needed and those available is bound to fail. Inclusive education programme for instance demands that teachers are adequately supplied to cater for the diverse educational needs of children or students who have been brought together under one room for the purpose of learning. Proper planning with ensure that this basic educational need is captured at the planning stage. This is in agreement with the view of Naylor (1999) that educational planning gives guidance and direction to members of an organization as to their role in delivering the products and services.

**Attainment of the National Educational Goals:** Every educational system has predetermined goals to be achieved, so also every level of education. Yet, planning will provide planners with the opportunity of what has been done so far, the progress made in terms of successes and failures, what need to be done and how it should be done so as to achieve the overall goals of the system. Consequently, inclusive education has attracted the attention of government in Nigeria and to this effect several steps have been taken by successive administrators and policy makers. Yet evidence have revealed that a lot more need to be done considering the goals of the programme, hence the imperative of good planning for meaningful results. An effective education control system identifies problems inherent in the process and alerts the policy/decision makers who then make modifications. Ololube (2013) stated that for any educational system to truly develop, effective planning is indispensable as education and planning are essential characteristics for effective education. That is, the rationale for planning is to effectively utilize available resources to attain a predetermined objective. Consequently, through planning educational planners determine how education resources are to be allocated and how the activities of the education system will be assigned to individuals and work groups.

**Pupils/Students Enrolment Argument:** Education itself is centred on the learners who are the pupils/students the curriculum is planned for. When planning does not take cognizance of learners’ characteristics, principally their number, family background, special needs and health among others, the challenge of effective implementation of inclusiveness in education will be a mirage. Proper planning in inclusive education is important in the sense that the current and future students enrolment as it relates to the quality of teaching and learning in schools is considered.

**Demand and Supply of Teaching/Learning Materials:** Instructional materials when acquired or improvised by the government play crucial role in the teaching and learning process in an education system and their relevance in inclusive education programmes also cannot be
over-emphasized. Educational planning serves as an effective guide in the determination of the demand for and supply of instructional materials needed for meaningful and purposeful learning. This implies therefore that in an event where educational planners do not make provisions for the number, quality and type of instructional materials in the formulation of educational plans, the quality of the programme, especially in a system where students with diverse needs are brought together in the same learning environment, effective implementation becomes a great challenge.

**Determination of Funding Arrangement:** Funding has remained a great channel in the implementation of educational policies in Nigeria. Effective educational planning that explains explicitly the financial implications and the funding arrangements for achieving inclusive education which is a reliable tool for sustainable development in Nigeria.

**INCLUSIVE EDUCATION AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT IN NIGERIA**
The implications of Inclusive education on Nigeria’s dream for sustainable development can better be explained by x-raying the relationship between inclusive education and the components of sustainable development as follows:

**Inclusive education and Sustainable Economic Development:** Economic development dwells on a general improvement in the well-being of citizens of a country that has successfully achieved growth. It is the long-term manifestation of the benefits of growth. Economic development indicators include national income, poverty, unemployment, standard of living, inflation and wealth creation potentials and capability. Inclusive education has the potentials of curbing challenges that relate to these indicators. It will provide skills and knowledge of what causes these problems and how they can be solved. Bajaj and Chiv (2009) rightly noted that education which includes inclusive education is a key instrument for bringing about changes in knowledge, values and behaviours and life styles required to achieve sustainability and stability within and among countries.

**Inclusive education and Sustainable Environmental Development:** The environmental protection is an important component of development. Thus, the central issue in the principles of sustainable development is that the concept emphasized that the present generation should use the natural resources available in such a manner that there will be enough to cater for the needs of the future generation at minimum costs. Inclusive education philosophy aims at ensuring that education provides an opportunity for the young generation and future leaders as well as adults to appreciate their environment and see reasons why environmental protection laws should be compulsorily enforced to eliminate the damage to the environment because a well-protected environment enhances development, and a sustainable economy. In recognition of this fact, Oyeshola (2008) rightly stated that Nigeria is a member of international and global community and as such share in the effects of technological advancement specifically environmental management is particularly necessary and its major aim should be avoiding stressing a valued ecosystem beyond the limits of its resilience, stability and carrying capacity.

**Inclusive Education and Sustainable Social Development:** In every society, people interact and it is through interaction that knowledge are learned and skills are also acquired for the betterment of the society. This means that sustainable social progress and innovation are the key elements of development, when a society progresses, its members are free; they think rationally, innovate certain social changes which will invariably enhance development. A well-educated individual will avoid the shame of street begging and other unproductive acts that are detrimental to the
tenets of development. That is, the products of inclusive education will be able to make a living productively and will not be nuisance to their communities, rather they will constitute assets capable of making their contributions to the development of their communities and the Nation at large.

**CHALLENGES OF Educational Planning for Inclusive Education**
The use of educational planning for achieving inclusive education and sustainable development in Nigeria is confronted with the following challenges among others:

**Financial/Funding Challenge**: It is a fact that the extent of the implementation of a most public policies especially education sector policies is dependent on among other factors the availability of financial resources needed to ensure that what has been captured or articulated on paper are made to see the light of the day. Yet, funding is a major constraint to the effective educational planning in Nigeria. Inadequate funding can hinder on-going professional development that keeps both specialists and classroom teachers updated on the best practices of inclusion. Stephanie (2012) stated that coordinating services and offering individual support to children requires additional money that many schools do not have, particularly in a tight economy. Evidence from literature have shown that while countries like Kenya and Ghana have allocated significant part of their budget on education, Nigeria has never allocated up to 13 percent of her annual budget to education. UNESCO (2010) in surveys conducted in various countries found that financial constraints; direct and indirect costs of schooling - as a central reason for children being out of school or dropping out.

**Unreliable Statistical Records**: Statistical data are imperative for effective and result oriented educational planning. Unfortunately, poor record keeping by educational stakeholders is among threats to effective implementation of inclusive education. For instance, data on the population of children of school age which is important in educational planning in the country have not been reliable as such educational planners rely so much on projected figures and estimates while making their plans. This challenge among others has contributed to the failure of most plans in Nigeria.

**Political Instability**: The inconsistency in the excitation or implementation of educational plans also has been linked to the problem of political instability that has remained a dominant feature in Nigeria. It is no longer news that constant change of government especially with the emergence of democratic rule in the country has hampered the implementation of many plans including those on inclusive education that could have positively change the fortunes of the country’s education system.

**Challenge of Endemic Corruption**: Nigeria no doubt is among countries in the world where corruption has reached its endemic level. The education system also is not immune of this societal monster that has impacted negatively on educational plans. Most times, resources budgeted for the purpose of improving access to education in a country like Nigeria where the issue of inclusiveness has attracted the attention of experts in the sector have mysteriously developed wings and disappeared.

**CONCLUSION**
Inclusive education has been viewed by scholars as strategy that can catapult a nation to higher heights. The findings from this quality study therefore revealed that educational planning role in promoting inclusive education include the elimination of barriers that promote exclusion, it helps in curbing the challenge of infrastructural deficit and resolving the expanding gap between the demand for and supply of teachers in schools. The study also established that
inclusive education enhances the achievement of sustainable economic, environmental and social development which as the major components of sustainable development agenda. The study identified funding, lack of reliable data, political instability and endemic corruption as major challenges to effective educational planning for inclusive education in Nigeria. Despite these issues, the study concluded that educational planning is a veritable tool for achievement inclusive education and inclusive education itself is a sure way to achieving sustainable development in Nigeria.

RECOMMENDATIONS
Based on the conclusion drawn, the following recommendations have been made among others:

i. Government should ensure that the ministry of education is well-funded to ensure proper planning and implementation of educational plans and policies that will enhance inclusive education and sustainable development

ii. There should legal provision that will ensure continuity in the implementation of all educational plans initiated by the government. This will go a long way in curbing the challenge of project abandonment that has hampered effective planning in education.

iii. Government to intensify efforts in its fight against endemic corruption in the education sector by ensuring that the perpetrators of corrupt acts in the system are made to face the full wrath of the law.

iv. Government should those employed as educational planners are experts and professional in the field to ensure that the right plans are initiated and implemented for maximum results.

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PART 8
EDUCATION FINANCING
LA RESTRICTION DU BUDGET DE L’ÉDUCATION ET SES CONSÉQUENCES DANS L’ENSEIGNEMENT EN RÉPUBLIQUE DÉMOCRATIQUE DU CONGO (RDC)

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RÉSUMÉ
L’enseignement est un des secteurs clés pour le développement de tout pays. Aucun pays en voie de développement ne peut prétendre à la prospérité durable si son système éducatif n’est pas en mesure d’assurer aux jeunes une bonne éducation scolaire qui leur permet de s’engager avec compétence au développement du pays. Aucun développement ne peut donc se concevoir avec un peuple moins instruit.

Plus qu’hier, en ce temps de mondialisation, c’est une nécessité pour chaque pays de bien instruire sa jeunesse, de lui assurer une formation de qualité répondant aux réalités du moment et aux besoins de la société. Bien qu’il y ait aujourd’hui d’autres voies et d’autres milieux où l’on peut instruire les jeunes, dans les pays africains en général et en RDC en particulier, l’école reste, et restera encore longtemps, le cadre indiqué pour accomplir cette noble mission.

Alors que le pays connaît, depuis la période coloniale (1885-1960), une croissance démographique très galopante qui devrait entraîner l’augmentation graduelle du budget alloué à l’éducation, l’État congolais a opté plutôt, dès les années 70-80, pour la diminution de ses interventions financières dans le secteur de l’enseignement. Cette restriction budgétaire a engendré plusieurs conséquences notamment au niveau de l’enseignement primaire et secondaire. Il s’agit entre autres du délabrement des infrastructures scolaires, de l’absence quasi-totale d’auxiliaires pédagogiques, de la dévalorisation de la fonction enseignante, de la corruption, de l’exploitation des élèves et de la baisse du niveau de ces derniers.

Mots clés: Budget, Conséquences, Éducation, Enseignement, & Interventions financières.

PRÉAMBULE
Le système éducatif de la République démocratique du Congo connaît, depuis plusieurs décennies, une crise multiforme due, en grande partie, à la révision à la baisse, de manière drastique, de son budget.

Cette crise remonte aux années 1970 sous le régime du président Mobutu. En effet, en 1971 et 1972, le Bureau Politique du Mouvement Populaire de la Révolution, Parti-Etat, décida de réformer le système éducatif congolais (zaïrois à l’époque) pour résoudre deux problèmes majeurs :
1) La multiplicité des centres de décision devenus de plus en plus encombrants pour le pouvoir public.
2) Le poids financier de plus en plus lourd, accru par un développement non contrôlé et une croissance élevée de la démographie scolaire.
Si le premier problème assemblé vite trouver solution par la rétrocéssion des écoles primaires et secondaires aux différentes confessions religieuses ainsi que l’autonomisation des établissements d’enseignement supérieur, le deuxième a engendré des conséquences qui font que le système éducatif congolais soit à la traine même de l’échiquier africain, voire régional.

DE LA GENÈSE DE LA DÉROUTE
La déroute du système éducatif congolais tient en grande partie à l’effondrement de son financement. D’après les rapports publiés annuellement par la banque centrale, depuis la décennie quatre-vingt-dix, la plupart des dépenses nationales consacrée à l’éducation se buste, de manière récurrente, en deçà d’un pourcent des dépenses globales. Preuve que la RDC n’a pas protégé le secteur éducatif des effets de la récession économique, des pressions politiques ou des effets de toute nature ; elle se classe parmi les pays où la vulnérabilité du secteur éducatif est devenue évidente et où les objectifs sont entrés en conflit. Et pourtant, comme nous l’indique le premier tableau ci-dessous, depuis l’époque coloniale jusqu’aux années 1970, le budget alloué à l’éducation oscillait entre 20 et 23% du budget national.

La comparaison de la part des dépenses de l’éducation à celle des institutions politiques et de la défense nationale (voir les deux tableaux ci-dessous) montre à quel point le régime de Mobutu²a graduellement donné plus d’importance à son système politique autocratique et à son appareil de répression, c’est-à-dire l’armée, qu’au secteur éducatif. Ce qui a conduit notamment à l’engouement pour la chose politique remarqué particulièrement au sein de l’élite intellectuelle congolaise³.

Tableau 1 : Structure des dépenses courantes par ministère et institution de 1969 à 1975 (en %)

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<td>4,6</td>
<td>3,7</td>
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<tr>
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<td>16,3</td>
<td>8,2</td>
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<tr>
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<td>14,5</td>
<td>13,6</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>9,4</td>
<td>7,0</td>
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<td>4,1</td>
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<tr>
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<td>2,6</td>
<td>1,9</td>
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<tr>
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<td>22,5</td>
<td>22,6</td>
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<td>14,1</td>
<td>33,6</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>5,2</td>
<td>1,4</td>
<td>1,1</td>
<td>2,0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Mokonzi, 2009: 44


3 Cet engouement s’est fortement manifesté récemment à travers le nombre des candidats à la présidentielle de la République (33) lors de l’élection présidentielle de 2011 et 23 lors de celle de décembre 2018 et surtout à travers les listes pléthoriques des candidats aux récentes élections de députés au niveau national; plus de 15.000 candidats pour 500 postes.
Tableau 2 : Structure des dépenses courantes par ministère et institution de 1993 à 2000 (en %)

<table>
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<td>1,9</td>
<td>7,3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>2,8</td>
<td>1,5</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Autres ministres</td>
<td>1,1</td>
<td>5,4</td>
<td>5,4</td>
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<td>3,5</td>
<td>1,2</td>
<td>4,1</td>
<td>26,3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


L’impact de ce faible financement des dépenses liées à l’éducation n’a épargné aucun aspect de ce secteur vecteur du développement, comme nous allons le constater dans les lignes qui suivent.

**CONSÉQUENCES DE CETTE DIMUNITION DU BUDGET SUR L’ENSEIGNEMENT PRIMAIRE ET SECONDARE**

1. DÉLABREMENT DES INFRASTRUCTURES SCOLAIRES ET ABSENCE QUASI-TOTALE D’ AUXILIAIRES PÉDAGOGIQUES

La restriction des interventions financières de l’État dans le secteur enseignement s’est fait sentir dans les crédits alloués à la construction, la faible maintenance et le fonctionnement quasi-nul des écoles.

A travers le monde, les meilleures écoles, celles dites « performantes » sont celles qui, tout en ayant des enseignants consciencieux et de top niveau d’études, ont aussi de meilleures infrastructures et sont bien équipées sur le plan des auxiliaires pédagogiques (matériel didactique, manuels scolaires, etc.), (Tukanda, M., 2010).

Au cours de ces trois dernières décennies, de nombreux établissements d’enseignement primaire et secondaire, voire universitaire fonctionnent dans des conditions en deçà de la moyenne du fonctionnement normal d’une école. On ne s’étonnera donc pas de voir dans plusieurs écoles, surtout en milieu rural, le délabrement et la vétusté des infrastructures scolaires, le manque évident de matériel didactique, de manuels scolaires, de laboratoires, de bibliothèque, etc.

Avec des infrastructures inadéquates et délabrées et une absence quasi-totale d’auxiliaires pédagogiques dans beaucoup d’écoles, que deviendra le système éducatif congolais ? Comment comprendre et expliquer que les différents ministères de l’Éducation continuent de créer et d’agréer des nouvelles écoles sans dispositifs de formation appropriés ?

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2. DÉVALORISATION DU MÉTIER D’ENSEIGNANT

Jadis en RDC, à l’époque coloniale et jusqu’aux années 1970, le métier d’enseignant figurait parmi les plus convoités par la population ; c’était un métier attractif pour la jeunesse congolaise. L’image de l’enseignant était positive parce qu’il menait une vie décente.

Dans les milieux ruraux, l’absence de grandes entreprises génératrices des recettes plaçait les enseignants et les fonctionnaires de l’État en position de force car ils étaient les seuls salariés. Ils étaient les modèles de la société. Ce sont eux qui possédaient de bons vélos, des vespas, des motos et qui s’habillaient élégamment. Les articles des magasins et des boutiques étaient commandés en fonction de leurs demandes. L’homme du village les contactait en tout premier lieu pour vendre sa poule, son gibier, son vin de palme... Les jeunes filles rêvaient d’épouser un enseignant ou un fonctionnaire de l’État pour pouvoir bien mener sa vie.

Mais à l’heure actuelle, les conditions socio-économiques dans lesquelles vivent les enseignants ont donné à la population, surtout aux jeunes, une image négative du métier d’enseignant. Touchant irrégulièrement un très maigre salaire comparé au VIH (SIDA⁴), l’enseignant est réduit à sa plus simple expression, son métier étant considéré comme « le plus sot » de tous les métiers. Il y a eu d’ailleurs des expressions populaires dénigrantes et dégradantes à l’égard des enseignants.

Comment arriver à restaurer la bonne image du métier d’enseignant comme jadis afin de motiver les jeunes à embrasser cette carrière ?

3. CORRUPTION

La corruption fait partie des maux qui rongent actuellement le système éducatif congolais. Dans son expression vulgaire « madesuyabana » (haricots pour nourrir les enfants), elle a élu domicile, depuis longtemps, dans l’administration publique congolaise. Actuellement, ce mal gangrène le domaine scolaire. Ici, la corruption s’observe à de différents niveaux. Du sommet de l’État aux écoles, la corruption semble gagner du terrain, mais nous limiterons nos propos ici au niveau des écoles.

Dans les écoles, ce phénomène s’observe surtout lors des inscriptions et des examens. Les prêtres Léon de Saint Moulin et Roger N’GanziGaïse (1998) dénoncent ce fléau lors des admissions quand ils notent que les « parents veulent faire étudier leurs enfants et leur assurer une bonne éducation. Mais le nombre insuffisant des écoles (...) ne permet pas de satisfaire à toutes les demandes. Cet état de choses, favorise la corruption : seuls les enfants des parents qui offrent le plus sont inscrits à l’école ». 

A la rentrée, vu la limitation du nombre de candidats, diverses conditions d’admission sont posées : réussir un examen d’admission, avoir une recommandation, être à l’internat, être de tel âge, de telle religion, etc. Mais, les élèves et leurs parents savent bien que toutes ces conditions imposées ne sont que symboliques. Par la corruption, on peut les contourner et décrocher une place.

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⁴ SIDA, ce sigle signifie, en dérision, Salaire Insignifiant Difficilement Acquis.

D’après cette étude, la corruption financière fait intervenir l’argent ; elle est la plus pratiquée dans les écoles. Le secteur enseignement étant discrédité à cause de très faibles salaires de son personnel, cette sorte de corruption serait considérée comme un fait « normal » permettant à ce personnel de compléter son maigre revenu afin de survivre dans la crise économique qui sévit dans le pays.

La corruption matérielle, celle faisant intervenir des biens en nature faute d’argent, vient en second lieu. Les élèves n’ayant pas d’argent amènent ce que le formateur ne peut pas hésiter à accepter. On peut citer, ici, les biens tels que les vivres, les produits d’élevage, les habits, les boissons…

Devant la pudeur qu’éprouve un enseignant ou un préfet de demander ouvertement de l’argent à ses élèves, ces derniers utilisent souvent des expressions courantes du milieu tendant à atténuer la gravité de ce geste.

Quant à la corruption morale, elle est liée aux relations informelles, aux connaissances familiales, tribales ou régionales. A cet effet, on utilise les expressions telles que « tu es le nôtre », « tu es notre grand ». Ces expressions utilisées par certains élèves à l’égard d’un enseignant ne sont autre que l’évocation des affinités amicales, familiales ou tribales pour amener l’enseignant à leur faciliter la réussite.

La corruption corporelle implique le trafic du sexe par les filles pour être inscrites à l’école ou pour réussir. Cette forme de corruption semble être moins évoquée, mais elle est aussi fréquente.

Les élèves réussissant par voie de la corruption vont-ils loin dans leurs études ? Font-ils preuve de capacités scolaires qui correspondent au niveau d’étude censé atteint ? Quel mécanisme mettre en place pour éradiquer la corruption dans le milieu scolaire ?

4. EXPLOITATION DES ÉLÈVES

A l’heure actuelle, les écoles éprouvent d’énormes difficultés pour leur fonctionnement et les enseignants celles de leur survie dans cette crise économique. Ainsi, certaines directions scolaires ont fait recours à quelques moyens qui pèsent sur les élèves pour financer leurs écoles tels que les travaux d’autofinancement scolaire, la vente des manuels et uniformes achetés par la direction. Du côté des enseignants, c’est la vente des syllabus et le suivi des notes.

4.1. Travaux d’autofinancement scolaire

Avant de parler des travaux qu’exécutent les élèves dans le cadre de l’autofinancement, il s’avère nécessaire de distinguer le travail acceptable pour les enfants du travail inacceptable pour eux.

Un travail acceptable (Wetshodima, 2005) pour les enfants est celui ne nuisant pas à leur santé et à leur développement physique, ou n’entravant pas leur scolarité. Entrent aussi dans ce cadre, des activités ménagères ou celles que ces jeunes gens exercent en dehors des heures scolaires ou pendant les vacances pour gagner de l’argent de poche ou aider les parents.
Le travail inacceptable pour les enfants est celui susceptible de nuire à leur santé, à leur développement physique, mental, moral ou social et pouvant compromettre leur scolarité. C’est donc un travail exposant les enfants à des risques et des maladies à court, moyen ou longs termes.

Nous classons les travaux d’autofinancement scolaire dans le cadre du travail inacceptable pour les enfants. A nos yeux, ces travaux vont à l’encontre de l’esprit de la convention relative aux droits de l’enfant (art. 32) qui reconnaît le droit de l’enfant de n’être astreint à aucun travail susceptible de compromettre son éducation ou de nuire à sa santé ou à son développement. Cette convention a été aussi ratifiée par la RDC le 22 août 1990 par Ordonnance-Loi n° 90/48.

Certaines écoles, surtout rurales, font travailler durement leurs élèves pendant les heures scolaires pour l’argent de leur fonctionnement. A titre illustratif, signalons ici :

- **le travail chez les particuliers** : pendant ou après les heures de cours, les élèves sont envoyés chez les personnes qui ont sollicité l’aide de l’école pour réaliser certains travaux urgents nécessitant une main d’œuvre abondante comme la récolte de riz, de maïs, de millet, de haricot.

- **la journée scolaire de « Salongo »** : il s’agit ici d’une journée scolaire de travail décidée par la direction pour tous les élèves où ces derniers exécutent des travaux prévus par la direction dans le cadre de l’autofinancement scolaire. Dans cet ordre, signalons : la coupe de la paille (chaume), la coupe des arbres forestiers servant à la construction des maisons, la fabrication ou le transport des briques…


### 4.2. Vente des manuels et des uniformes scolaires par la direction

Il s’agit ici d’achat, par les élèves, des manuels scolaires et uniformes que la direction scolaire a achetés ou confectionnés. Les élèves sont obligés de les acheter au prix fixé par la direction. Dans certaines écoles, c’est souvent un préalable à toute admission d’un élève !

### 4.3. Vente des syllabus

Presque chaque enseignant élabore le(s) syllabus de son ou de ses cours. Ces syllabus sont vendus aux élèves au prix fixé par l’enseignant lui-même. Bien que le prix du syllabus soit à la hausse, moralement tout élève se voit obligé de l’acheter afin de ne pas figurer sur la liste « noire » de l’enseignant comme ayant refusé d’acheter son syllabus.

La stratégie souvent utilisée par les enseignants pour amener les élèves à acheter le syllabus est celle d’examen à livre ouvert. Pendant l’examen, l’échange de syllabus entre les élèves est formellement interdit.

### 4.4. Suivi des notes

Ce que les élèves appellent communément aujourd’hui « suivi » est le fait d’aller chez l’enseignant voir sa copie d’interrogation ou d’examen. Comme nous l’avons déjà fait remarquer plus loin, cela ne se fait que moyennant quelque chose.

### 5. LA BAISSE CONTINUELLE DU NIVEAU DES ÉLÈVES

L’enseignement est un secteur clé du développement de tout pays étant donné qu’il a la noble mission d’éduquer, d’instruire et de former des compétences. Comme nous l’avons dit, en ce
temps de mondialisation, c’est une nécessité pour chaque pays de bien instruire sa jeunesse, d’assurer donc aux jeunes une formation de qualité qui peut leur permettre de s’engager avec compétence au développement du pays.


Pour ne parler que de l’enseignement secondaire, actuellement, beaucoup de pays étrangers, notamment la Belgique, ne reconnaissent pas les diplômes d’État délivrés après l’année 1990. Ainsi, depuis quelques plus de quinze ans, pour être inscrits à l’enseignement supérieur en Belgique, ces diplômés sont soumis à un concours d’admission.

A tout dire, on se plaint des faibles performances des élèves sortant des écoles congolaises. Mais, il existe tout de même des écoles dont les « produits » se distinguent des autres écoles. Celles-là écoles sont recherchées, pointées et servent de comparaison.

**CONCLUSION**

Comme l’a bien dit l’ancien président Thabo MBEKI: « Aucun pays au monde n’a jamais atteint le développement durable sans un système éducatif efficace, sans un enseignement solide et universel, sans un enseignement supérieur et une recherche scientifique efficients, sans égalité des chances en matière d’éducation. »

Ainsi, si la RDC veut réellement que son système éducatif retrouve son efficacité d’antan, elle devrait d’abord revoir le budget de l’éducation à la hausse. Il faudrait que le budget de ce secteur représente, comme les années 60-70, au moins le cinquième des dépenses globales nationales.

En outre, l’État devrait prévoir la diversification des sources de financement de l’enseignement en vue de faire face aux coûts, toujours croissants, compte tenu de la croissance démographique galopante et de la demande de l’éducation (filières d’études, nombre d’écoles et classes à créer, carte scolaire …). En d’autres termes, l’État pourrait solliciter l’intervention des familles, des entreprises, des organismes internationaux tels que l’Unesco, l’Unicef, la Banque Mondiale, le Pnud, etc. pour faire face au financement de l’enseignement notamment dans le coût d’investissement comme construction et équipement.
Références


8.2
PARENTS SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS AND CHILDREN ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE

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ABSTRACT
The study uses cultural capital theory to investigate the parents educational level, employment condition and type of residential housing contribute to academic performance of their children. Questionnaire and examination scores in English Language and Mathematics subjects were used data source from 235 students from 12 randomly selected government owned secondary school in Ogun State, Nigeria. The data is analysed through Pearson correlation, coefficient of determination and ANOVA. The result shows an insignificant weak positive correlation between mothers educational level; a weak negative correlation between fathers educational level and children academic performance. A weak negative correlation was found between mothers employment condition; fathers employment level and children academic. An insignificant weak negative correlation between parent residential housing and academic performance of their children was found. The proxies for cultural capital are statistically insignificant while the findings are contrary to cultural capital theory. Parents socio-economic position does not contribute meaningfully to children academic performance.

Keywords: Academic, Children, Parent, & Socio-Economic.

INTRODUCTION
Education is important to skill acquisition for individual to makes a person ready (Dahie, Mohamed & Moalim, 2016) to face the future. The purported decline in the quality of education in Nigeria has been a major issue of concern to the government and other stakeholders over the past few years with different opinion for the causes and remedies. However, one of the few areas that have been neglected in the discourse is the implication of parents’ socio-economic status - education, employment and types of residential housing - on the educational performance of their children at different levels. Socio-economic status of parents affect their children academic performance (Hill, Castelino, Lansford, Nowlin, Dodge, Bates & Pettit, 2004; Melchior, Moffitt, Milne, Poulton & Caspi, 2007; Oluyombo, 2014; Dahie et al., 2016) while the attainment of higher parental socio-economic status is both a national and individual phenomenon which requires different input from the parent, society and the government. Where a higher socio-economic status is achieved, does it translate to better educational performance for the children of those is such higher class? This pose a problem that need to be resolved, hence this study investigates if parents socio-economic status affect students
performance in their academic at the secondary school level. The training of a child is basically the responsibility of the parent but it can be influenced by the socio-economic conditions of the parent (Oluyombo, 2014). Likewise, the educational achievement of children may also be traced to parents’ socio-economic position at a given time. Parents training form part of the economic condition of the parent that could have some relationship on the children performance at examination in their schools (Sullivan, 2001; Chen, 2012) because the most important goal of education is academic development of children (Dahie et al., 2016) which is measure according to their performance in examinations. It can be hypothetically stated that the higher a student’s parents socio-economic status, the greater his or her academic performance in secondary education is likely to be. Factors affecting children such as socio-economic condition, family size, income level, education and occupation of the parents play a crucial role in the academic achievements of the students (Majoribanks, 1996). It can be assumed that the children from parents with high socio-economic conditions are likely to have better result in their school examination than those from low income family. However, this is subject to different argument and can only be substantiated with relevant data.

This study assesses the effects of parents socio-economic status explain through cultural capital theory on academic performance of students in selected government owned secondary school in Ogun State, Nigeria. Sullivan (2001) recognises the use of parents education and occupation as proxies for cultural capital while Dahie et al. (2016) used parental education, income and occupation as proxies for parents socio-economic background. The proxies for cultural capital are not limited to two. The proxies for cultural capital to explain parents' socio-economic status in this study are parent educational level, parent employment condition and parent type of residential housing. To accomplish this, the study investigates if parents' educational attainment contributes to the academic performance of their children; determine the relationship between parents' employment condition and academic performance of their children; and establish the relationship between parents' type of residential housing and children academic performance. To accomplish the research objectives above, the study tested the hypotheses that there is no significant relationship between parents educational level and academic performance of their children; there is no significant relationship between parents employment condition and academic performance of their children; and there is no significant relationship between parents type of residential housing and academic performance of their children.

LITERATURE REVIEW
Education is a process of living through continuous reconstruction of experience. It is the development of all those capacities in the individuals which enable him to control his environment and fulfil his desire (Dewey, 1938). In education, disadvantaged children are unable to achieve their academic potential and are more likely to enter adulthood lacking the skills to compete in the labour market (Melchior et al., 2007). Achievement test and examinations are prepared according to stated standard to measure proficiency in school subjects (Dahie et al., 2016). The term academic achievements for students have been equated with obtaining of pass marks in examination. The family factor is significant when student achievement is been considered (Sullivan, 2001; Fan, 2014; McGinnity, Darmody & Murray, 2014).
2015; Tan, 2017) because many of the living standard indicators for children are related to the family, such as parents employment and economic situation (Harayama, 2008; Oluyombo, 2014). Parent with higher status often have more opportunities in preparing their children for school examination because they typically have access to a wide range of resources in contrast to parents with lack of financial and social status. Socio-economic status can be measured in different ways, and it hinges on the quality of life which can be measured using social and economic factors (Harayama, 2008). This include parents’ education, occupation and income and the responsible factor is father, but sometimes mother’s education or occupation, family income resources or household possession are used (Bond, 1981). The variables used for socio-economic well-being are number of children in school and educational attainment of children (Oluyombo, 2014) while parents socio-economic background is evaluated through parental education, occupation and income (Dahie et al., 2016). Income is critical in determining parent influence on children educational attainment, for majority, it may implies economic security through income earning and access to financial resources. Parents employment is expected to have considerable effects on the welfare of their children. Having a source of income is essential for meeting children’s educational needs, as well as for participating in social activities. Parents exclusion from the labour market can lead to an absence of knowledge while having job reduces the time available for the parents to spend with their children and to involve themselves in their life at school. According to Hill et al. (2004), socio-economic status of parents does not only affect the academic performance of their children, but also makes it possible for children from low background to compete well with their counterparts from high socio-economic background under the same academic environment. It is not out of place to state that parents socio-economic background can have possible effects on the academic achievement of children in school. Whatasoever affect the development of children would possibly affect their education or disposition to it (Oluyombo, 2014).

In a rural community where nutritional status is relatively low and health problems are prevalent, children academic performance is greatly hindered (Adewale, 2002). The foregoing establishes that socio-economic status relating to home environment of student, such as educational background of parents, health status of students, parents occupation and family size could have effect on children academic achievement. One hundred and eighty students from three secondary schools were used by Ogunshola & Adewale (2012) to investigate the effect of parents’ socio-economic status on students academic performance. Four factors examined and statistically analysed were: parents’ socio-economic background, parents educational background, parents educational qualification and students health statuses. But the study does not provide clarity on the parameters for socio-economic status, while the objective does not include the effect of students health, but this was included in the hypotheses. They reported that parents socio-economic status might still be a factor that can influence student academic performance while parents educational background still play minimal role in students ability to perform academically. The health status of students has significant effect on academic performance of the students. Academic performance of students in relation to the parents socio-economic and educational background was not statistically significant. Hassan (2009) used the theory of cultural capital to explore the association between parents education level and their
children academic performance with marks obtained in three subjects as the response variable while data analysis was based on bivariate and multivariate methods. The sample consists of 499 pupils undergoing lower secondary education. The result indicates that students whose parents have basic education only do not differ significantly from that whose parents’ education is unregistered, but the coefficient values increase with increasing educational level. This confirms that parents with low education levels make a small contribution to their children’s homework. The study found that girls on average get better grades than boys. The association between parents education level and children’s academic performance is moderate and positive, and there is a positive association between the children’s school grades and their parents labour market status.

Effect of social, economic and cultural capital of Chinese families on their children education was analysed (Fan, 2014). The three capital contribute significantly to children’s education, but the highest effect was from family cultural capital. Fathers registered permanent residence; fathers’ educational degree and mothers’ educational qualification enhance their children’s education. The influence of fathers’ background is more on children education than the mothers while high level education is available to families with high social or economic status. It may be safe to conclude from above findings that parent social and economic status influence educational performance of their children. Ahmad & Khan (2012) examine the relationship between socio-economic conditions of parents and academic achievements of students at government schools for boys. Questionnaire was administered on students who appeared in the annual examination in the board of intermediate and secondary education of eight government secondary schools for boys. The results were tabulated, and the findings were presented in percentages. Relationship was found between fathers’ level of education and academic achievements of the children. Significant relationship between parents’ social status and academic achievements of the children was documented. A significant relationship was found between parents’ income and academic performance of students, while students whose parents’ income was higher performed better in examination than students from low income parents. The study reported that the student who lived in posh areas performed better in examination in comparison with those students who lived in underdeveloped areas. It can be concluded from their findings that parents socio-economic condition has great impact on the educational achievements of their children. Dahie et al. (2016) collected data via questionnaire from convenient sample of 80 teachers from eight secondary schools in Mogadishu-Somalia to measure impact of parents’ education, occupation, and income on academic achievement of their children. The correlation result shows positive relationship between parents’ education (r=.693 and p<0.01), parents’ occupation (r=.682 and p<0.01), parents’ income (r=.690 and p<0.01) and academic achievement of the children. A study by Udida, Ukwaym & Ogodo (2012) examine the influence of parents’ socio-economic background on the academic performance of students in selected secondary schools. The stratified sampling technique was used to select 114 students from five public schools, while random sample was used to administer questionnaire for scores in four selected subjects namely English Language, Mathematics, Economics and Biology examinations of first term academic session. Charts, independent samples test and multiple regression analysis were used to analyse their data. The
study reported that 4.4% of the fathers had no formal education, while 95.6% had formal education. 4.4% of the respondents performed badly; 32.55 had good performance, while 10.5% performed excellently in their examinations. 55.6% of students from families whose parents have primary education performed poorly, 11.1% had average performance, while 33.3% performed excellently in their examination. This indicates that parents education do not exert substantial influence on children academic performance. Academic performance of students between sexes of respondents indicates that 73.7% perform poorly, out of this, 33.3% are male while 40.4% are female. Respondents with average performance make up 63.1% out of which 36.8% are male while 26.3% are female. Children with good performance constitute 42.1%, out of which 17.5% and 24.6% are male and female respectively. Respondents with excellent performance constitute 21.1%, out of which 12.3% and 8.8% are male and female respectively.

The relationships between cultural capital and student achievement using meta-analytic of articles published in education journals between 1981 and 2015 by Tan (2017) shows larger effect of parental education and parental expectations compared to parent-child cultural participation. Parental education identified as institutionalized cultural capital might be more closely associated with student achievement. The results agree to the role of cultural capital in explaining student achievement. Chen (2012) investigates the relationship between parents’ socio-economic status, perceived parents’ pressure, and test anxiety among 294 students attending seven high schools of which four are in urban centre and three in suburban area through questionnaire. Linear regression, multivariate analysis of variance and sobel test were used to analyse data. Fathers occupation, mother occupation, mother education, and parents’ income have significant impact on both test anxiety and perceived parents’ pressure (p<.05). Fathers education, the interaction of fathers’ occupation and mothers’ occupation, and the interaction of fathers’ education and mothers’ education do not have significant effect on either test anxiety or perceived parents’ pressure. The study concluded that the factor which has the greatest contribution to test anxiety is fathers’ occupation, while the factor with greatest contribution to perceived parents’ pressure is parents’ income. High positive correlation between test anxiety and perceived parents’ pressure was documented with a linear relationship between perceived parents’ pressure and test anxiety. Sullivan (2001) reported that cultural capital is strongly transmitted from parents to children as a result of the Pearson correlation between parents’ cultural capital and pupils’ cultural activities of 0.617 (p ≤ 0.000) but the connection between parental cultural capital and children knowledge and language scores is weak. Data of multiple students from three countries (Canada, Germany, and Sweden) were used by Andersen & Jaeger (2015) to establish if cultural capital produces higher returns on academic achievement in some schooling environments than others. They found that mean and variance in academic achievement within a schooling environment shapes the rate of return to cultural capital because cultural capital may be higher in a high-achieving environment than in a low-achieving one. The study established that variance in achievement within a schooling environment is due to level of competition among students when attempting to display their cultural capital to teachers. Cultural capital tends to have a stronger effect on academic achievement in low-achieving schooling environments than in high-achieving ones. Udida et
al. (2012) conclude that male perform slightly better than their female counterpart with a high association (0.63) between parents’ socio-economic background (income of parents, fathers’ education, father occupation, mothers’ education and mother occupation) and students’ academic performance. The coefficient of multiple determinations ($r^2$) indicates that 40 per cent of students’ academic performance is accounted for by the combination of the above set of parents’ socio-economic variables. Their result reveals that students’ academic performance is significantly influenced by socio-economic background of their parents ($F=2.313, p<0.05$). They reported that fathers’ occupation directly influences students’ performance in school, while an increase in fathers’ occupational level in term of position would have a corresponding effect on children academic outcome and attainment. The study found that fathers occupation has the greatest contribution to students’ academic performance, followed by parents’ income, fathers education and mothers’ education. This suggests that when parents are educated, they are poised to making sure their children equally follow same.

The relationship between background factors and the involvement of parents in the education of their children with a focus on parents’ involvement in the quantitative method, using self-reporting questionnaire pointed to a clear correlation between the educational level and socio-economic status of the parents (Zedan, 2011). The findings show a negative correlation between the number of children in the family and parents’ involvement. Significant and positive correlation was found between education level of the parents and the factors of monitoring, support, encouragement and involvement when a problem arises. It was found that the coefficient between these factors and the education level of the parents was higher among boys than girls except for general involvement. There was also a significant and positive correlation between the factor of participation in group activities and contact with teachers among girls only. A negative correlation was found between education level of parents and the factor of indifference to achievements among girls only.

**Theoretical review: Cultural capital theory**

Culture is view as resources that provide access to scarce rewards due to concept of capital (Lareau & Weininger, 2003). People grow up within one or more culture which has some form of relationship in their behaviour and desire. As a culture, a parent who is educated would want the children to be likewise. Capital is a financial possession of an entrepreneur, and the introduction of capital to culture leads to cultural capital. Cultural capital is transferred within the family (Sullivan, 2001; Hansen & Mastekaasa, 2006) and it is available to generality of the people which can be exchanged into economic and social capital (Sullivan, 2001; Andersen & Jaeger, 2015). Cultural capital can be turned to social capital within the family as McGinnity et al. (2015) put it as through the network among students at school which is beneficial in the future. Business owners may deliberately transfer their business skills to their children to ensure continuity of family tradition in business. This becomes a culture within the family which translate to cultural capital that such family is known for. Families who possess cultural capital have a comparative advantage which helps them to reproduce their privileged socio-economic position (Andersen & Jaeger, 2015).
Individual’s access to educational resources can be influenced by family background (Sullivan, 2001; Fan, 2014) while variation in academic performance at different education levels is affected by level of cultural capital of the parent on their children (Hansen & Mastekaasa, 2006). The cultural capital theory rests on the assumption that culture plays a critical role in individual upbringing, hence cultural capital is transmitted within a family culture as it emanates from older generation to younger generation. From the household perspective, cultural capital is passed from parent to their children which make the family plays a critical role in the transfer of cultural capital and is done at the home front where children learn from their parents directly and from their siblings. Behaviour, skill and knowledge are transmitted as form of cultural capital from parent to their children. Children inherit cultural capital from their parents as part of their endowments and dispositions (Andersen & Jaeger, 2015) while the expected return from cultural capital is educational and occupational success (Sullivan, 2001). Cultural capital may be transferred from one generation to another under certain conditions (Lareau & Weininger, 2003) at national, state, village, community and family levels while enrolment at school may not be easily divulged from parental socio-economic condition. Family is the avenue for transmitting cultural capital and has significant impact on academic performance in examinations (Sullivan, 2001). Cultural capital is a possession owned by individuals and family is not in doubt, but channel through which its transfer differs. It can be through social class (Sullivan, 2001; Andersen & Jaeger, 2015), and family (Sullivan, 2001; Fan, 2014; Andersen & Jaeger, 2015; McGinnity et al., 2015). Transfer of cultural capital though membership of a family justifies the conversion of cultural capital to social capital and economic capital. Cultural capital can be a result of conversion of family economic capital especially in education (McGinnity et al., 2015). The economic capital include access to good accommodation, well paid employment, and high educational qualification or attainment of parent. All these can be converted to positive benefits to enhance children academic performance which can become a culture capital in a family. Cultural capital is also converted into educational success because it materializes through better academic performance (Andersen & Jaeger, 2015) such that parents can replicate their higher academic success in their children if such parents have it.

METHODS
The study population are all Ogun state of Nigeria government owned senior secondary school students. The sample consists of twelve schools randomly selected in all the three senatorial districts of the state. 235 male and female students from day school without boarding facility randomly selected from the twelve schools participate in the study. The students respond to questions on parents’ socio-economic data via questionnaire while the teachers provide examination scores in Mathematics and English language. The two subjects were used because they are compulsory for the students irrespective of their inclination such as commercial, art and science classes. Scores in both examinations were divided into five groups (0-20; 21-40; 41-60; 61-80; and 81-100). Data collected were subjected to statistical analyses with Pearson correlation (r) to show the relationship between variables in terms of strength of the relationship and the direction, coefficient of determination (r²) to generate the variance between variables, and one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to determine significant difference in mean score.
of the students based on component of the independent variables to determine which of the criteria contribute more to academic performance of the children.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The participants demographic reveals that male students are 130 in number, which is 55.3% of the total sample while female, are 105 (44.7%). This shows that there are more male students than female in the study sample. Majority of the students fall within the ages of 10 to 15 years (N=184; 78.3%). 21.7% of the students fall within 16-20 year of age (N=51). 80% of the students are from monogamous family (N=188) while the remaining 47 or 20% are from polygamous family. The students in science class are 77 or 32.8% of the entire sample. Those in commercial class are 80 or 34% while the remaining 78 students or 33.2% are in the art class. Students scores are classified as poor (0-40%), average (41-60%), good (61-80%) and excellent (81-100%). The students scores in table I show that 14.7% and 20.4% perform poorly in Mathematics and English respectively. 75.7% have average performance in Mathematics while it is 66.4% for English; 9.8% and 8.5% have good performance in English and Mathematics respectively. Those with excellent result in English are 3.4% and 1.3% in Mathematics.

Table 1. Students scores in Mathematics and English language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scores</th>
<th>Mathematics</th>
<th></th>
<th>English Language</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-20%</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-40%</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>15.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-60%</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>75.7</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>66.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61-80%</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>9.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>81-100%</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>235</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>235</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sullivan (2001) recognises the use of parents’ education and occupation as proxies for cultural capital. The proxies for cultural capital which also serves as independent variables to explain parents’ socio-economic status in this study are parent education, employment condition and type of residential housing.

i. Parents education

Parents academic qualifications were grouped separately into six namely, none, primary certificate, secondary certificate, OND/NCE, HND/B.Sc, MBA/M.Sc/MA and PhD/DBA. The
students choose one option each for individual parent since both parents may not have the same academic qualifications. Fathers education is 17.9% for those with doctorate degree, masters degree is 3.8% and first degree 19.1%. Those without formal education are 0.9%, primary school certificate is 4.7%, and secondary school certificate is 44.7% while those with OND/NCE qualification are 8.9%. Udida et al., (2012) reported that 4.4% of the fathers had no formal education but 95.6% had formal education. However, fathers with formal education of 91.1% and 0.9% without formal education are found in this study. Majority of the parents have secondary school education which is the national minimum education in Nigeria for which basic education is provided by some state for free. Mothers’ without formal education are 1.7%, primary school certificate is 9.4%, secondary school certificate is 42.6% while those with OND/NCE qualification are 16.6%. First degree is 15.7%, masters degree is 3.8% and 10.2% for doctorate degree holders. Hypothesis 1. There is no significant relationship between parent educational level and academic performance of their children.

There is an insignificant weak positive correlation (r=0.097, p=0.139) between fathers’ educational and academic performance of their children in Mathematics (see table 2). Fathers qualification does not have direct relationship on student scores in Mathematics. Students can’t claim lack of fathers’ education as a setback for success in Mathematics. From coefficient result, fathers’ education helps to explain 0.94% of the variance in children scores in Mathematics. Fathers education has weak effect on their children academic performance in Mathematics. Fathers are likely to devote less time for their children in Mathematics subject. The mean difference from the ANOVA (appendix 1) for all the scores in Mathematics and fathers’ qualification are not significant (F=0.859, P=0.526) from each other. None of the fathers’ qualifications contribute more than others to children scores in Mathematics. Although, those with OND/NCE have highest mean (M) of 3.10 with standard deviation (SD) of 0.625 but it is not statistically different from other qualifications and students’ scores in Mathematics.

Table 2. Parent educational and children academic performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Hypothesis 1</th>
<th>Pearson correlation (r)</th>
<th>Sig. 2 Tailed (p)</th>
<th>Coefficient of determination (r^2)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i.</td>
<td>Fathers educational level and children score in Mathematics.</td>
<td>0.097</td>
<td>0.139</td>
<td>0.0094</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii.</td>
<td>Fathers educational level and children score in English language.</td>
<td>0.072</td>
<td>0.269</td>
<td>0.0052</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iii.</td>
<td>Mothers educational level and children score in Mathematics.</td>
<td>0.127</td>
<td>0.053</td>
<td>0.0161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iv.</td>
<td>Mothers educational level and children score in English language.</td>
<td>0.081</td>
<td>0.216</td>
<td>0.0066</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v.</td>
<td>Fathers educational level and children score in Mathematics and English.</td>
<td>-0.010</td>
<td>0.879</td>
<td>0.0001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
vi. Mothers educational level and children score in Mathematics and English language.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>0.017</th>
<th>0.793</th>
<th>0.000289</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

There is an insignificant weak positive correlation (\(p=0.269, r=0.072\)) between fathers’ education and children performance in English language. Fathers’ education helps to explain 0.52% of the variance in children scores in English language. Fathers’ may not be able to boast of their educational attainment as impetus for their children performance in English language. The mean scores in English based on fathers’ education (\(F=0.650, P=0.690\)) are not significant from others. The highest score from parents with OND/NCE (\(M=3.10, SD=0.995\)) is not statistically different from other qualifications. Differences in fathers’ education do not contribute more than others to children scores in English. A weak insignificant positive correlation (\(r=0.127, p=0.053\)) was found between mothers’ education and children scores in Mathematics. Mothers seem to devote less period of time for their children in Mathematics subject as their educational attainment improves. It may be due to higher responsibility at work or more time invested in their education. The variance in means of mothers’ education and students’ scores in Mathematics is significant (\(F=2.544, P=0.021\)). The mean score recorded among students whose mothers have primary (\(M=2.50, SD=0.802\)) and OND/NCE (\(M=3.03, SD=0.668\)) qualifications on one hand, and those with primary (\(M=2.50, SD=0.802\)) and PhD/DBA (\(M=3.13, SD=0.338\)) education on the other hand are different from others. Children whose mothers have primary, OND/NCE and PhD/DBA qualifications perform significantly higher in Mathematics than other students. It is a paradox that students whose mothers have primary education perform better in mathematics examination that those with secondary, BSc/HND and MBA/MSc qualifications. The performance may be as result of social interaction among parents which according to Oluyombo (2014) lead to indirect socio-economic benefits to the children as they relate with themselves in school and the neighbourhood. McGinnity et al. (2015) refers to this as transfer of cultural capital to social capital through the network among students at school which is beneficial to them.

There is an insignificant weak positive correlation between mothers educational and children performance in English language (\(p=0.216, r=0.081\)). Mothers’ education explains about 0.7% of the variance in children scores in English language. Mothers are likely to have devoted less period of time for their children in English language subject. None of the mothers’ educational qualifications contribute more than others to children scores in English (\(F=0.926, P=0.477\)). Although, those with OND/NCE have highest mean (\(M=2.84, SD=0.727\)) but it is not statistically different from others qualifications (see ANOVA in appendix 1). An insignificant weak positive correlation between mothers’ educational level and children academic performance (\(r=0.017, p=0.793, r^2=0.029\%\)) and a weak negative correlation between fathers education and children academic performance (\(r= -0.010, p=0.879, r^2=0.01\%\)) were found. There was no difference at \(p<0.05\) level between parents’ education and children academic performance in Mathematics and English Language. Social culture as a result of integration and communion among students since they relate closely together for about seven hours during school period every day which is greater than the hours used with their parents during school
days may influence the study result. Significant relationship was found between fathers’ level of education and academic achievements of the children by Ahmad & Khan (2012) though the study was for boys school. The combination of fathers and mothers education from this study does not lead to better academic performance for their children. Parents are likely to have devoted less time for their children academic pursuit due to other commitment at family, business and carrier levels. Insignificant result between fathers education (F=0.154, P=0.988), mothers qualification (F=0.321, P=0.926) and mean scores in Mathematics and English was found from the ANOVA test. Difference in parents educational qualifications does not contribute more than others to children scores in both subjects. The highest mean in examination scores in both subject is from fathers and mothers with OND/NCE (M=3.00, SD=0.775) and PhD/MBA (M=3.08, SD=0.282) qualifications respectively. Hypothesis 1 that there is no significant relationship between educational level of the parents and academic performance of their children is not rejected. The finding is in consonance with Hassan (2009) that used cultural capital theory that students’ performance does not differ significantly based on parents’ education. This is supported in Ogunshola & Adewale (2012) that academic performance of students in relation to the parents educational background was not statistically significant, and Udida et al., (2012) that parents education does not exert substantial influence on children academic performance. This study contradict Fan (2014) findings that family cultural capital contribute significantly to children education because fathers and mothers educational qualification enhance their children’s education and contribute to cultural capital. Positive relationship exists between parents education and children academic achievement (Dahie et al., 2016). Tan (2017) results agree to the role of cultural capital in explaining student achievement but finding from this present study does not support the transfer of family cultural capital to educational achievement of their children.

ii. Parents employment
Parents employment was grouped into three namely, business/trade, office/civil servant and none – which represent house wife and others without any source of livelihood. Students choose one option each for individual parent since both parents may not have same employment conditions. 140 of the fathers (59.6%) are into business/trade, 90 (38.3%) are civil servant/office workers while 5 (2.1%) are without any means of livelihood. 11.1% of the mothers are office workers/civil servants, 88.5% are into trade/business while 0.4% are without any employment. Hypothesis 2. There is no significant relationship between parents employment condition and academic performance of their children.

An insignificant weak positive correlation was found between fathers employment and children scores in Mathematics (r=0.058, p=0.377). From coefficient result, fathers’ employment explains about 0.34% of the variance in children scores in Mathematics (see table 3). Insignificant result (F=1.759, P=0.175) between fathers employment and mean scores in mathematics was found from the ANOVA (see appendix 2). Differences in fathers employment do not contribute more than others to children scores in mathematics. The highest mean score is from children whose parents are Civil servant/office workers (M=2.94, SD=0.606) but it is not statistically different from others who does not work and those in trade/business. An
Insignificant weak negative correlation \((r=-0.004, p=0.948)\) was found between fathers employment and children scores in English language. Fathers employment explain 0.002% variance in students scores in English language which is contrary to Udida et al. (2012) that fathers occupation directly influences students’ performance in school. From the ANOVA results (appendix 2), there is no significant difference in mean scores and fathers employment \((F=1.385, P=0.252)\). Fathers employment as salary earners/civil servant or business owner/trader has no direct relationship to their children scores in English language. Although, those in business or trade have highest mean \((M=2.95, SD=0.780)\) but it is not significantly different from others. Fathers occupation has the greatest contribution to students academic performance (Udida et al., 2012), when parents are educated they are poised to make sure their children equally follow same, but this is contrary to this study finding.

**Table 3. Parent employment and children academic performance**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Hypothesis 2</th>
<th>Pearson correlation ((r))</th>
<th>Sig. 2 tailed ((p))</th>
<th>Coefficient of determination ((r^2))</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i.</td>
<td>Fathers employment and children score in Mathematics.</td>
<td>0.058</td>
<td>0.377</td>
<td>0.0034</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii.</td>
<td>Fathers employment and children score in English language.</td>
<td>-0.004</td>
<td>0.948</td>
<td>0.000016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iii.</td>
<td>Mothers' employment and children score in Mathematics.</td>
<td>0.019</td>
<td>0.771</td>
<td>0.00036</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iv.</td>
<td>Mothers employment and children score in English language.</td>
<td>-0.048</td>
<td>0.465</td>
<td>0.0023</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Insignificant weak positive correlation was found between mothers employment and children scores in Mathematics \((r=0.019, p=0.771)\). Mothers employment explains 0.04% of the variance in children scores in Mathematics. There is no significant difference in the mean scores and mothers employment \((F=0.060, P=0.941)\). The nature of mothers employment does not affect their children scores in Mathematics. Mothers income from their employment has no direct relationship with their children performance in Mathematics. The nature of work done by mothers does not serve as an impetus for their children to display academic excellence in Mathematics. There is an insignificant weak negative correlation between mothers employment and children scores in English language \((r=-0.048, p=0.465)\). There is no significant difference in the mean scores in English among students and mothers qualification \((F=0.268, P=0.765)\). Mothers employment does not lead to better academic performance in English language for their children. The period of time mothers devote for their children in English is not based on mothers employment condition. An insignificant weak negative correlation was found between mothers employment \((r=-0.037, r^2=0.14\%, p=0.571)\), fathers employment \((r=-0.020, r^2=0.04\%, p=0.757)\) and children academic performance in both English and Mathematics. Insignificant
result between fathers (F=0.472, P=0.624), mothers (F=0.163, P=0.850) employment and mean scores in Mathematics and English was found from the ANOVA test (appendix 2). The combination of fathers and mothers employment does not lead to better academic performance in Mathematics and English language for their children in government owned senior secondary schools. Parents are likely not to have used their employment status for their children academic pursuit especially as it relates to the two subjects. The study does not reject hypothesis 2 that there is no significant relationship between parents employment condition and academic performance of their children. The insignificant result between parents employment and children academic performance in this study contradict Bond (1981) that students from family of high socio-economic condition have effective academic achievements than students that belong to poor family. Positive association between children’s school grades and their parents labour market status was found by Hassan (2009) as a form of cultural capital. Likewise, Dahie et al. (2016) recorded positive relationship between parents’ occupation (r=.682 and p<0.01) and children academic achievement although data was collected only from teachers.

While the use of cultural capital theory is relevant for this study, the finding does not provide direct pointer to the influence of parent employment on children academic performance. This raises concern in the assertion of transfer of family cultural capital from parents to children as postulated in cultural capital theory by Sullivan (2001), Fan (2014) and McGinnity et al., (2015) which is expected to lead to their academic attainment. Findings from this study show that cultural capital may not be transferred through parents to their children in academic pursuit. Other factors beyond the family cultural capital are responsible for children academic performance which may be unknown to their parents.

iii. Parents residential housing
Parents residential housing is the house the students reside with their parent while school is in session since only day schools were used for the study. Residential housing was grouped into three types that are commonly found in Ogun State, Nigeria. Those in single room are 21 (8.9%), room and parlour are 80 (34%), and flat are 134 (57%). Impact of parents residential housing on children scores in Mathematics was investigated and shows an insignificant weak positive correlation (r=0.068, p=0.298, r²=0.46%). Parents residential housing explains less than 1% of the variance in children scores in Mathematics. The relationship between parents residential housing and children scores in English language is not significant (p=0.887) with an insignificant weak positive correlation (r=0.009, n=235) as reveal in table 4. Parent residential housing does not lead to better students academic performance in English language. From the ANOVA results (appendix 3), there is no significant difference in the mean scores in Mathematics (F=0.903, P=0.407), English (F=0.142, P=0.868) and parent residential housing. Although, those who reside in flat (M=2.97, SD=0.612) and single room (M=2.95, SD=0.865) have highest mean score in Mathematics and English respectively but it’s not significant from others. Type of parents residential housing does not lead to improvement in children academic performance in Mathematics and English separately. Where the students reside with their parents either single room, a room and parlour or a flat does not contribute to their academic attainment in Mathematics and English language.
Table 4. Parents residential housing and children academic performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Hypothesis 3</th>
<th>Pearson correlation (r)</th>
<th>Sig. 2 tailed (p)</th>
<th>Coefficient of determination (r²)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i.</td>
<td>Parents residential housing and children score in Mathematics.</td>
<td>0.068</td>
<td>0.298</td>
<td>0.0046</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii.</td>
<td>Parents residential housing and children score in English language.</td>
<td>0.009</td>
<td>0.887</td>
<td>0.000081</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iii.</td>
<td>Parents residential housing and children score in Mathematics and English language.</td>
<td>-0.024</td>
<td>0.716</td>
<td>0.0000576</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There is an insignificant weak negative correlation between parents residential housing and academic performance of their children in combine scores for both Mathematics and English language (r=-0.024, p=0.716). About 0.058% variance in students scores can only be traced to the type of house they reside. There is no significant difference in the mean scores in both Mathematics and English and parents residential housing (F=0.456, P=0.643) but those in room and parlour have highest mean score (M=3.05, SD=3.442) in combine result which is not significant. Parents type of residential housing does not lead to better academic performance in Mathematics and English language for their children in government owned senior secondary schools. The expected benefit of convenience inherent in living in a flat for students is not utilised because there is no significant different in the performance of the students especially as it relates to Mathematics and English language subjects. The study upholds hypothesis 3 that there is no significant relationship between parents type of residential housing and academic performance of their children. The insignificant result documented between parents types of residential housing and children academic performance in this study could not be directly compare with other studies because the three types of residential housing for this study was not included in variables used in previous studies. However, Ahmad & Khan (2012) that consider parent location but not residential housing found in boys school that students who lived in posh areas performed better in examination than those students who lived in underdeveloped areas. Fan (2014) reported that father’s registered permanent residence enhances their children’s education. The major disparity in rent paid for the three types of residential housing in this study ordinarily should reveal the class created by parents in residing in flats which ought to lead to better academic performance because of facilities and conveniences available in flats. These findings show that social class imbedded in cultural capital theory (Sullivan, 2001; Andersen & Jaeger, 2015) may not be attainable as students relate with each other in school despite where they reside.

The complexity of vehicular mobility from one location to other within the state is a social issue that may affect the result because it is not possible for all the students survey to reside within the school environment that does not require commuting by transport mobility. This
study reveals some factors other than parents’ educational level; employment condition and type of residential housing might be responsible for academic performance of students in government owned secondary school. This is useful in developing national policy for the improvement of basic minimum educational requirement. The outcome of the study provides insight into the developmental and regulatory input require from the government to enhance better educational improvement and development at the secondary school level using the family background as the raw material.

CONCLUSION
The relationship between parents level of education and students academic performance is not statistically significant. Students academic performance is not influenced by the educational attainment of their parents. Improvement in parents level of education does not lead to better academic performance of their children. As parents level of education improves, students academic performance does not improve such that students whose parents are educated do not perform better than students whose parents are illiterate and/or semi illiterates. This finding does not support the cultural capital theory since parents were unable to transfer their educational attainments to higher score in their children performance in both subjects considered. Parents employment condition which invariably determines their income does not have direct relationship with their children academic performance in school. The statistical analysis of the hypothesis reveals that students whose parents earn better or higher income by reason of their employment do not perform better than those whose parents income level is low or small. Financial affluence available to parents is not transformed to educational attainment in their children. Lack of entrance examination into government senior secondary school in addition to the junior secondary school result as done in private schools may have influence the result.

Types of parents residential housing condition do not bring improvement on their children academic performance. Students academic performance is not influenced by the type of residential housing they reside in. This implies that as parents residential housing status improves, students academic performance does not improve. Although the socio-economic condition of parent is important, but this does not have any effect on their children performance at school which agrees with Hill et al. (2004) that socio-economic status of parents makes it possible for children from low background to compete well with their counterparts, from high socio-economic background under the same academic environment, and Ogunshola & Adewale (2012) that academic performance of students in relation to the parents’ socio-economic background was not statistically significant. This study does not support Ahmad & Khan (2012) significant relationship between parents social status and academic achievements of the children, and Udida et al. (2012) record of high association (0.63) between parents socio-economic background and students academic performance.

Parents are encouraged to create and invest more time for their children educational life by getting involve with their study through guidance and support in doing their assignments and providing necessary tutorials. Since parents employment condition does not affect children education performance, the government is encouraged to continue the provision of free
education policy such that children from parents with low income can still enjoy and participate in secondary school education.

REFERENCES


Dewey (1938). Educational reforms to close the white and black achievement gap. Economic Policy Institute: U.S.A.


**Appendix 1 ANOVA on parents education**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Sig.</th>
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<td>.526</td>
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## Table I.III  Mothers education and student score in Mathematics

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## Table I.IV  Mothers education and student score in English language

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### Table I.VI  Mothers education and student score in Mathematics and English

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### Appendix 2 ANOVA on parents employment

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### Table II.V Fathers employment and student score for Mathematics and English

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Table II.V Fathers employment and student score for Mathematics and English

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Table II.VI Mothers employment and student score for Mathematics and English

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Appendix 3 ANOVA on parents residential housing

Table III.I Parents residential housing and student score in Mathematics

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### Table III.II  Parents residential housing and student score in English language

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### Table III.III  Parents residential housing and student score for Mathematics and English

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PART 9
CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT
TOWARDS AFRI-CENTRIC CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT FOR
THE 21ST CENTURY

Gertrude Namubiru, PhD
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ABSTRACT
This chapter focuses on ways of rethinking curricula to give African heritage the just place when developing curricula that benefit the African society to enable the people to solve effectively local and global problems. It looks at quality education as being a key to development which is determined by clearly thought out educational goals. The chapter also focuses on open-class approach of curriculum development where a diversity of stakeholders with diverse experiences is required to engage in curriculum development. It looks at the problem of western world dominance in curriculum development and the solution for Africa to have curricula which meet their demands. It looks at a need to decolonize Africa by developing Afri-centric curricula that embrace the African heritage guided by the AU Vision and mission. The chapter discusses a solution that lies in developing academic based curricula alongside the desired behavior, technical skills, customs, beliefs and knowledge of the African society. The chapter gives views of different scholars on the need to have Afri-Centric curricula to ensure inclusiveness and equity among African societies and how Afri-Centric curricula will draw the main goals from the CESA (16-25).

Keywords: Afri-Centric Curricula, Curriculum, Curriculum Development, & Quality Education.

INTRODUCTION
Continents around the globe are busy attempting to improve quality of their education through curriculum reforms and the African continent is not an exception. Curriculum development in Africa has been evolving since the colonial period to respond to the demands of changing society. Majority aim at providing meaningful education especially by equipping learners with the requisite skills needed to live a satisfying and productive life. There are however, new 21st Century learner competences that challenge the current trends in curriculum development calling for a more diverse approach while embracing the digital society.

There are also new employer skill demands following the emergence of new and more sophisticated jobs in the labour market. The trend challenges the traditional curricula which tend to promote more of learners’ routine cognitive skills calling for a more holistic development of broad skills if at all the current education is to meet the local African labour market demands reflected by the new learner competences required the 21st century competences. The new approach to curricula would be for Africa to deploy the skills of interdependency, interconnectedness and human centeredness when developing and
implementing the curricula than ever before. There is a need to broaden the thinking of curricula developers to focus on acquisition of skills, attitudes and values responsive to the evolving world of work in the different regional and local content development in the continent.

One of the approaches in the curriculum development process, would be therefore to ensure that students engage in an integrated, coherent learning experiences that contribute towards their personal, academic and professional learning and development. Shifts from focusing on the cognitive domain is a must and indulge in development of competences linked to the social, economic, and environmental development demands that constitute some of the core pillars of sustainable development. The proposed Afri-centric curricula should, therefore, be innovative and responsive to the needs and aspirations of the people of Africa.

QUALITY EDUCATION IN THE 21ST CENTURY

The Global Education Agenda 2030 Sustainable Education Goal number 4, which governments were to urgently implement in education aimed at: ‘Ensuring inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all’. The Agenda 2030 commitment comes with a guiding framework for the implementation of the SDGs under guidance by different UNESCO’s curriculum development framework toward embracing the 21st Century, learner generic competences that could be translated to suit Africa’s diverse continent and social-economic and political aspirations.

Quality education is a key to development, and it is a human right. Quality education indicators translate into multi-dimensional aspects of well-defined educational goals, effective curricula, their processes and curriculum materials. It demands for competent and professionally qualified teachers, effective assessment approaches, participatory learner centered pedagogy and stimulating school environment. In the contemporary world, curriculum, stakeholders’ participation in the curriculum development process is partly an enhancement towards attaining quality education, which is believed to open the doors to development as human right.

Educational goals in any society define who should learn what and this is done in an organized and achievable form through the curriculum development process. Developing quality educational goals and translating them into implementable competences in curriculum and pedagogy demands for highly professional experts in the area, Toffler (2014).

A quality curriculum on the other hand is looked at in a wider perspective as a weapon that is capable of changing the way different people view education. It plays a critical role in transforming education at all levels. However, quality education requires highly competent and committed teachers employing active pedagogies, UNESCO-IBE (2013), a point re-emphasized by, Scott (2015), that the latter makes a wakeup call for educators to rethink pedagogy for the 21st Century as a crucial move towards identifying the new competencies that today’s learners need to develop. Similarly, Successful provision of quality education worldwide, however, depends on transforming pedagogy and redesigning learning tasks that promote learner creativity as they deal with daily challenges, Leadbeater (2008) in Scott 2015).

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT AND TEACHER PARTICIPATION

Curriculum development is a complex and dynamic process involving policy dialogue and consulting curriculum statements issued by the government so as to define learning objectives (Jacobs, Jackson, and Gillbrand 2011). The process further deals with decision making on core learning areas which will constitute topics aligned to suitable teaching and learning methods mirrored to assessment practices. Curriculum development as a socially constructed process according to Stenhouse (2012), demands for teacher participation in the whole process of
developing a curriculum, an approach which will enhance the embedding of contemporary contextual factors into the learning areas. It is imperative, therefore, that classroom teachers, cannot be separated from the curriculum development process.

**A Call for Participatory Approach to Curriculum Development**

Curriculum Development should use open approach to involve learners, parents, employers, professional associations and faith-based organizations and communities at large as a source of knowledge, experiences, skills, values and attitudes that make official curricula. Consultation with stakeholders including learners promotes efforts towards attaining quality of education. Besides, Barron and Darling (2008) argue that *real-world experiences* merged with sustained stakeholder engagement and collaboration offer opportunities for learners to construct and organize knowledge; engage in detailed research, probe, and communicate effectively to audiences they might be serving in future and this will help them to contest competently in the field of work. Furthermore, Stenhouse, (1981) observes that, as learners belong to cultures outside the school, so should the curricula that they learn in schools acknowledge the realities of their cultures. On the other hand, Jackson (1999) affirms that it is incumbent that the process and efforts of curriculum design, development and practices take into account the multiplicity of the cultures reflected in the society.

**African Experts and the Role in Curriculum Development**

During this century, learners from all over the world, are supposed to think and act very fast bearing in mind the constant changes in technology and society demands and; in essence this is the mission of education: *capacitate learners to develop high thinking skills*. Reflecting on curricula in most of the countries on the African continent, there is western domination in curricula asserts Stenhouse, (1981). This mishap should be restrained, and Africans should be accorded the opportunity to take an active role in curriculum development processes. Therefore, their active role should penetrate both in the intended curriculum in policies and the actual curriculum in practice.

**THE GLOBAL MOVEMENT AND DECOLONISATION OF CURRICULUM IN AFRICA**

Scott (2015) alerts on the impact of global movement to curriculum and calls for a new model of learning for the twenty first century. Education has to respond to the movement by transforming it towards the new forms of learning that are needed to tackle complex global challenges. Basing on her assertion, curriculum for Africa should be decolonized to allow learners to think and act very fast bearing in mind the constant changes in technology and society demands. Learners should be encouraged to develop the following key skills of the 21st century; *a) communication, (b) collaboration (c) critical thinking and (d) creative thinking*. Sott (2015). However, Tedla (1995) argues that the African learner’s academic excellence can only be realized through the curriculum that nurtures and develops learners in the dimensions of physical, spiritual and community with an African philosophy being the cornerstone. The proposal rhymes well with the African philosophy which proclaims a responsive approach to the curriculum development process and practice that brings attention of curriculum designers, curriculum developers, curriculum officials down to teachers and learners in class. According to Toffler (2014) allowing learners to engage and reflect on the curriculum links to their everyday life encourages them to master the learning process and own and direct learning in their own individual and flexible ways.

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**The Society and Shaping of Curriculum**

Students should receive integrated and coherent learning experiences that contribute towards their academic, personal, and society development. However, this requires a diversity of stakeholders with diverse experience to engage in curriculum development process. In support to this the call for CESA 16-25 aims at providing each education stakeholder the opportunity to make his or her best contribution to education regardless of individual’s education and job or professional status. Supportably, UNESCO (1999) says that the new paradigm in curriculum reform is to generate curriculum ideas from a broad spectrum of society, and to achieve national consensus on curriculum goals as part of the curriculum reform process. The involvement of the wider society in the process is an important breakthrough according to UNESCO (1999). This does not only encourage inputs from various social groups, but it generates interest in actual performance in schools at all levels. On the other hand, Tedla (1995) affirms that involving the entire community in the educational process by making the local communities actively participate in shaping their educational destiny through curriculum development contributes to attaining learning and academic excellence.

**Changing job requirements and the open class curriculum response**

Curriculum development in the 21st century has become more challenging as the demands are becoming more diverse in the digital society. The jobs which required routine cognitive activities during the colonial rule and in the early 1990s have almost changed or non-existence and the education that is being offered are highly challenged for relevance to African learners. The focus is on the hierarchy of highly paid jobs that lie outside the security of traditional community. The ideal that curriculum development should adopt an open class approach seem not to be used as in most countries. Seemingly, some stakeholders like students are not involved in curriculum development to push this agenda forward.

**WESTERN AND THE AFRI-CENTRIC CURRICULA**

Although Curriculum development in Africa has been evolving since the colonial period to respond to the needs of society each time, the robustness of the curriculum development process remains questionable in most African countries especially in this century. This is happening mainly because of the lack of adequately competent curriculum professionals with the fanaticism to embrace Afri-centric approach to the processes. The curricula developed in this century seem not to prepare learners to serve their communities as it used to be before the colonial rule. Curricula seem to continue to put the learner always at the receiving end and a teacher knowing it all. Being proud of one’s Africanism was something that was obstructed by efforts to Westernize Africans (Tedla1995).

Tedla (1995) asserts that the current Curriculum aims at producing Western styled leaders, bureaucrats, intellectuals, technicians, professionals and military persons who are supposed to articulate development strategies and carry out the task of nation building. It transmits the liberal values and behaviour deemed essential for a modern state – liberalism, champions, individualism, secularism and materialism. Individualism gives primacy to individual interest over community centeredness. He, therefore, argues that curriculum mis-matches what is taught in schools and the community expectations because the involvement of Africans in curriculum development is minimal.

Jegede (1998) asserts that subjects and languages of learning are not intelligible to parents and the community expectations because they are not connected to African life. The curriculum connected to African life should engage students in thinking about their world and how they can make a difference says Allen (2009). It is known in psychology that a person thinks well
and creatively when s/he thinks in her/his language (mother tongue). This is why educators continue to make the progressive call to acknowledge and promote African culture, heritage and identity through partnership with community members especially the elders who command rich knowledge, experiences and skills during curriculum development. CESA (16-25) affirms that knowledge societies that Agenda 2063 calls for are driven by skilled human capital.

African countries seem to take long to review their curriculum. This delay slackens the connection between what learners learn and what they go through in the real world. Learners need to realize that there is a connection between what they are learning and real world issues that matter to become motivated and pay attention to what they learn. According to Redecker and Punie, 2010 as cited by Scott1(2015) there is a need for engaging learners into a more active learning, more relevant curricula, more real world learning with better-trained teachers to improve the quality of education overall and increase student engagement. Therefore, the more we make curricula for African learners more African the more we create a force more powerful to move Africa forward.

Considering the ingredients of Futuristic Afri-Centric Curricula, curriculum development and implementation should be culture-sensitive to ensure quality education in the African context and realities. The curriculum should be embracing the philosophy of respect, honesty, honor, ethical behavior, selflessness, valuing the community over the self, valuing the neighboring countries and promoting integrity in African societies. However, personal experience about the current curricula in most of the African countries seem to supplement and support the development and mastery of academic skills (reading, writing, math computation, and critical thinking) only. There is little provision to learners, if any of a solid foundation of values and experiential learning that can enable them to solve any problem they may encounter. It should be noted that although most countries have taken the route of competence-based learning, it seems we have failed to appreciate that achievers are not only those who take the academic path.

Embracing Culture in Futuristic Curricula development process
The strong bond that existed between culture and education seem to be marginalized as some African countries develop their curricula in the 21st century. Some people have continued to live a no satisfying and nonproductive life. This is seen in the way graduates of the current curricula have failed to translate what they learn in schools to respond to the societal challenges thus continued to be job seekers than job creators.

Africa has continued to live in the past, to follow the curricula inherited from our colonial masters that are determined by a few individuals. However, there is a need to involve the communities in curriculum development to address their needs and promote African culture, heritage and identity as asserted by Tedla (1995). On the other hand, Asente (2005) said that Africans can analyze their conditions and reflect at a very deep level the elements that are destroying their own communities then they can design the changes that must be made to improve their own condition.

Taylor, Gillborn, & Ladson (2009), argue that the foundation of national unity must be the nation’s ability to manage diversity. Luamba (2011) on the other hand, propounds for about cultural ignorance as the starting point of division, racism, ethnocentrism, and other forces destructive of unity.

Therefore, current curriculum development efforts should be re-thought to involve a diversity of stakeholders to address the issues of multi-culturalism; (appreciation for cultural diversity)
inter-dependency, interconnectedness, cooperation among African curriculum bodies, sense of belonging to Africa, acceptable values to African society and peace. If we take up this trend, we will have created a curriculum development force most powerful for Africa.

A FRAMEWORK FOR AFRI-CENTRIC CURRICULUM
UNESCO, through BEAP has contributed enormously in awakening the countries in Africa to develop curriculum framework and build capacity in the area that responded to the local contexts and skill needs. Between 2007 and 2009, a few countries successfully developed a curriculum framework (Gambia, Rwanda, Kenya, Uganda???) and a capacity building programme for Africa began in 2010 by a PGDCDD (Partnership between UNESCO; TIE and OUT). To-date, a mass of about 600 curriculum experts have been created through the PGDCDD and M. Ed. (CDD) offered by the OUT from 2012/13 to-date. Africa has, therefore, a critical mass of curriculum experts, who could synergize their experiences and develop an urgent framework for proposed Afri centric curricula. The most crucial property of the curriculum will be enshrined aspects of inter and intra –culturalism, multi-culturalism (appreciation for cultural diversity) inter-dependency, interconnectedness, cooperation among Africans to bring along a sense of belonging to Africa; have acceptable values to African society and peace.

The Elements of Afri-Centric Curriculum framework
Curriculum framework is usually led by a philosophy which is central to the development of the core elements. Led by the AU Vision and mission, Afri-Centric curricula will draw the main goals from the CESA (16-25). Countries will then translate the goals into specific policy context for each at the same time reflecting on the best practices in the area from the different sources.

Proponents of Afri-Centric curriculum share some ideas about what the common elements should be. Asante (1998) and Mazama (2003) view such curricula from system of sequentially planned educational opportunities perspective. The structure of the curricula is to provide African heritage with the necessary and required skills that will enable them to participate in the global market place. Organized around an integrated academic and social skills model, the Afri-centric curricula are geared towards the developing of knowledge-based curricula alongside the desired behavior, customs and beliefs of African society.

This will move beyond the African-centered education in a multicultural process and emphasize on the African-American and African experience that teaches that all people are equal, Luamba (2011) On the pedagogical aspect, Hill (2011) proposes that such should be based on multifaceted concepts and instructional skills for the all-round development of learners by:

- Enabling learners to fit their personal experiences into patterns of universal human behavior.
- Begin learning by building on learners’ previous knowledge to help them fit new learning into their conscious frame of reference.
- Promote student-teacher engagement and exchange to promote creativity in both learning and teaching.
- Recognize the connections between and among all things and all people.
- Provide learners with frameworks for understanding future problems that may confront them both in and outside the classroom.
In our own view, Afri-centric curricula share the following qualities as described by Asante (1998) and Mazama (2003); Luamba (2011); Sadowski, (2001); Matos (2000); Ladson (1994); Tedla (1995) and CESA (16-25) agenda.

- It is well-organized and designed to respond to the social-cultural demands of the African society and beyond.
- A tool through which African knowledge, skills ideas, values, attitudes, beliefs can be transmitted.
- Promote learner’s ability to transfer knowledge and skills from home to school and vice-versa.
- Recognize and build school learning on the child’s previous knowledge with no fragmented learning between the learning at home and at school.
- It is sustained by building the whole learner
- Treat learners as social individuals who are eligible to learn in a variety of ways
- Flexibly allow learners to take numerous pathways to skills acquisition
- Is reorganized around each learner’s journey, dreams and interests
- Use African languages as language of instruction in the early stages
- The use of mother tong promotes the harnessing of what learners are exposed to in the early learning stages to strengthen the bond between home and school.
- Promote learner’s independent, thinking imbued in the promotion of solving problems on his/her own.
- Re-cultivate an African pride by making one know and cherish one’s identity
- Engage students in critical and creative thinking.
- Promote self-concept development
- Engage learners in cross discipline learning, character development and moral education, to meet core curriculum goals and guidelines
- Empower them with self-esteem, higher education standards, and a positive self-image
- Appreciate and embrace African values from African realities during curricula development
- They are practical and the learning areas are enshrined in the core concepts and values of traditional life.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION
Afric-Centric curricula therefore embrace the intrinsic value of African culture, language, customs and practices during learning unlike what is propagated by the majority of the elitist orientated individuals. Tertiary institutions are called upon to reposition themselves to embark
on African relevance in their programmes. The CESA guiding principle number 4 is talking about ‘Harmonized education and training systems which are essential for the realization of intra-Africa; There is a need to re-think curriculum development in Africa, to incorporate Afri centric aspects of curriculum that create a new form of education whose content reflects the reality and needs of African people. To have a harmonized education needs a curriculum framework and principles on which educational priorities; pedagogical aspects, instructional methods, and evaluation criteria can be based in every African member country to guide their curriculum development and processes in order to have curricula that address the needs of Africa.

We need to re-think the curriculum leaning it towards an Afri-centric quality curriculum development in the 21st century. We need to re-evaluate the current curricula used in different African countries to incorporate a broader scope of African cultures, beliefs and experiences. We need to develop curricula alongside the desired behavior, technical skills, customs, beliefs and knowledge on a variety of things to make education relevant to the African society. The learners are supposed to learn so many skills that can make them relevant to the African society in order to be useful to themselves, the families, the communities and the world at large.

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PART 10
SCHOOL FEEDING
10.1

LES CANTINES SCOLAIRES EXPÉRIENCE D’UN PARTENARIAT
ONG-ÉCOLE

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RÉSUMÉ
Les cantines scolaires apparaissent comme une des solutions idoines pour améliorer la
participation des enfants et leur rétention à l’école surtout dans les milieux pauvres. Les
cantines scolaires consistent à donner à manger aux enfants au sein de l’établissement
scolaire. Les avantages qu’on tire de l’installation des cantines scolaires sont énormes : outre
qu’elles permettent de lutter contre la faim auprès des enfants et contre l’absentéisme à l’école,
elles améliorent la santé des enfants ainsi que les conditions de vie dans les familles
partenaires des écoles. Elles sont un lieu de socialisation, de partage et d’échanges entre
enfants et d’éducation aux nouvelles notions. Les expériences faites à travers le monde
illustrent que les cantines sont une initiative à encourager et à multiplier dans les pays pauvres.

Toutefois, l’installation des cantines est très coûteuse et exige les appuis des bailleurs des
fonds, notamment le PAM. Il faut que la communauté des écoles s’implique dans cette activité
pour en assurer la pérennité après le départ des bailleurs de fonds, étant donné que les
avantages qu’on tire touchent non seulement les enfants, mais aussi les parents et toute la
communauté.

Mots Clés: Cantine scolaire – Développement, Éducation, & Restauration Scolaire.

INTRODUCTION
Nous allons dans notre contribution, définir la cantine et partant la cantine scolaire, donner les
motifs qui ont milité en faveur de ces structures, présenter quelques cantines scolaires à travers
le monde, tout en différenciant la cantine dans les pays nantis et dans les pays pauvres, peu
développés. Nous présenterons les avantages que la communauté tire de la présence d’une
cantine scolaire, et enfin donner quelques préalables pour implanter une cantine et dire
comment en assurer la pérennité après le départ des partenaires extérieurs.

I. DÉFINITIONS
À l’origine, la cantine indique un meuble de voyage pour transporter des aliments.
C’est seulement au XVIIème siècle qu’apparaît le mot français « cantine » et il désigne un coffre à
compartiments qui permet le transport de bouteilles et parfois d’aliments. On va garder le mot
pour désigner la malle qui contient les effets personnels (vêtements, livres, cahiers de notes,
etc.) qu’on emporte en voyage.
Dès le XVIIIe siècle, la cantine est aussi le nom du magasin où l’on vend du tabac, des aliments et des boissons aux soldats. Ce magasin peut être fixe (dans un bâtiment) ou ambulant (une simple charrette d’abord, puis une automobile un wagon de chemin de fer). (Le Petit Larousse illustré 2012).

A la fin du XIXe siècle, la cantine est un lieu où l’on sert à boire et à manger aux personnes d’une collectivité, et même le service généralement subventionné qui organise la restauration collective.

À la moitié du XIXe siècle, ce même magasin placé dans un hospice, une école, une prison, une usine va aussi s’appeler cantine. (Le Petit Robert de la langue française 2010)

La cantine se différencie du restaurant par le fait que ses repas sont gratuits ou bon marché, car ils sont payés partiellement ou totalement par la collectivité.


Aujourd’hui, la cantine indique à la fois le meuble, le magasin et le réfectoire où l’on prend ses repas en commun. À la cantine, on mange le repas qu’on a apporté dans sa gamelle ou celui qui a été confectionné dans la cuisine de l’établissement par des cuisiniers.

Au XXe siècle s’est ajoutée la notion de service de restauration. L’augmentation du nombre des cantines dans les collectivités, et leur agrandissement, ont obligé les responsables à s’organiser. Les repas peuvent être préparés sur place ou à l’extérieur, dans des « cuisines centrales ».

La cantine est ainsi devenue aussi un service de restauration. Organisée dans les écoles, elle s’appelle cantine scolaire.

II. LES CANTINES SCOLAIRES DANS LE MONDE

Les cantines scolaires datent d’il y a cinquante ans. Selon le PAM qui en est le principal donateur, (PAM, Rapport annuel 2013) plus de 70 pays peu développés font fonctionner les cantines scolaires. Les réalités qui dictent la création de ces structures diffèrent selon qu’on est dans un pays pauvre ou dans un pays développé.

Dans les pays nantis, étant donné l’augmentation de la population, la grandeur des villes et tout son lot d’embouteillage qui ne facilitent pas la circulation, les distances de plus en plus grandes entre les lieux de travail et les habitations (sachant que certains quittent une ville pour aller travailler dans une autre), les horaires de travail, il s’avère obligatoire que les employés s’alimentent à proximité de leur lieu de travail, depuis le XXIe siècle. Dans les pays développés, la cantine est souvent fréquentée depuis le plus jeune âge (à la crèche et à l’école maternelle) jusqu’aux dernières années de la vie (dans les maisons de retraite) ; on en trouve dans les entreprises, dans l’administration, dans les hôpitaux, les prisons, l’armée, les usines.

S’agissant des cantines scolaires dans les pays développés, notamment en France, ce sont les municipalités qui les gèrent à la maternelle et dans le primaire. Depuis le choix du prestataire, jusqu’à la réalisation des menus. La municipalité peut choisir de faire appel à un prestataire extérieur ou d’assurer le service avec des employés municipaux, 25% des écoles choisissent de faire appel à une société de restauration privée.

Au collège et au lycée la restauration est du ressort du chef d’établissement et assurée par du personnel de l’éducation nationale. Dans les collèges, le conseil régional qui porte cette responsabilité. Dans les établissements privés, les directeurs d’établissement sont responsables de tout.
En ce qui concerne la qualité des aliments et les aspects sanitaires, les cantines scolaires peuvent être contrôlées par deux types d’intervenants : les inspecteurs des services vétérinaires et les contrôleurs des services de la consommation, de la concurrence et de la répression des fraudes.

Dans les pays pauvres, en voie de développement, il n'en est pas de même. La cantine est surtout scolaire. Les cibles principales sont les enfants dans les écoles primaires. Ce sont les contraintes sociales (la faim, la malnutrition, la mauvaise santé, la déperdition scolaire…) qui motivent la création des cantines scolaires. Dans ces pays, la cantine joue un rôle très important pour les enfants car, souvent grâce à l'aide d'organismes internationaux comme l'UNESCO, elle permet de leur offrir un repas à l'école, ce qui pousse les parents à scolariser leurs enfants.

La cantine scolaire, qui n'est parfois qu'un préau ou un hangar avec à peine quelques bancs, permet donc d'améliorer la nutrition des jeunes, de leur assurer une meilleure santé, de leur faire suivre les cours et s'instruire. Elle participe ainsi au développement social et économique de ces pays. *(Laetitia ANTONOWICZ, consultante indépendante en éducation et développement international, 2010)*. Selon PAM (2013), les cantines scolaires sont organisées dans :

- 8 pays d’Afrique Centrale et Orientale : soit 2,6 millions d’enfants.
- 16 pays d’Afrique de l’Ouest : soit 1,1 millions d'enfants.
- 7 pays d’Amérique Latine et Caraïbes : soit 2,4 millions d’enfants.
- 12 pays d’Asie : soit 5,1 millions d’enfants.
- 9 pays d’Afrique australe : soit 4,2 millions d’enfants.

Concernant la République Démocratique du Congo, c’est le 19 septembre 2018 que le Gouvernement à travers les ministères de l’Enseignement primaire, secondaire et professionnel, du Plan, du travail et prévoyance sociale, a discuté pour la première fois du projet des cantines scolaires pour toute l’étendue du pays, avec le PAM et les autres partenaires techniques et financiers des organisations internationales. Ce projet nommé « Saber cantines scolaires » fut évalué à 637 millions de dollars. *(Digitalcongo.net/EPSP.)*

C’est le 12 avril 2019 que les premières cantines deviennent réalité dans les écoles protestantes Lisanga à Kinshasa. *(KONGOTIMES.INFO)*.

Avant cette mise en œuvre formelle, le PAM avait posé quelques actions non formalisées notamment en Ituri, où en 2010, plus de 79.000 élèves avaient bénéficié d’un repas. A quelques écoles de Bukama, où on a constaté la désertion des élèves aux écoles dépourvues des cantines scolaires. A l’école Ntamugenga dans le Kivu. Dans cette école, le taux d’abandon était de 15,5% avant l’instauration des cantines. *(RADIOOKAPI.NET)*. De façon formelle c’est depuis le 12 avril 2019 que la RDC a ses premières cantines scolaires.
III. LES AVANTAGES QUE LA COMMUNAUTÉ TIRE D’UNE CANTINE SCOLAIRE

Partout où les cantines scolaires ont été installées, elles ont donné énormément d'avantages, cela aussi bien pour les enfants que pour les parents et pour toute la communauté.

**Sur le plan social** : la cantine est un lieu d'échange, de partage, d'apprentissage de l'autonomie, de croissance de la solidarité et de l’amour entre les enfants d’une part et entre les membres de la communauté d’autre part. Les écoles sont au cœur de bon nombre de villages et de communautés. Les repas scolaires rapprochent les professeurs, les parents, les cuisiniers, les enfants, les agriculteurs et les marchés.

**Sur le plan éducatif** : les cantines scolaires contribuent largement à l’augmentation du taux de scolarité. En effet, les parents pauvres sont encouragés à envoyer et à garder leurs enfants à l’école parce que là au moins ils peuvent être nourris. Gardés à l’école, ces enfants échappent à l’exploitation que subissent plusieurs enfants pauvres, non scolarisés dans le monde. Autrement dit, l’école et sa cantine sont des lieux de protection pour les enfants. Elles permettent aussi d’éduquer au goût et à l’équilibre alimentaire des jeunes convives. A travers les cantines les enfants apprennent différents mets, leurs origines et leur apport dans le corps.

**Sur le plan nutritionnel** : les repas scolaires offrent d’importants avantages : ils sont riches, variés, équilibrés et contribuent à la bonne santé des enfants.

Les cantines scolaires sont un élément qui booste l’économie de la collectivité, elles luttent contre la pauvreté et créent des emplois.

Outre le personnel utilisé dans les cuisines et l’administration, d’autres membres de la communauté tirent profit dans le cadre des achats locaux comme les légumes, manioc, patates douces, courge, ignames, bref les produits agricoles que le PAM ne peut pas fournir. Les cantines font appel aux agriculteurs locaux et à d’autres vendeurs du marché. Ceux-ci ont ainsi un débouché sûr, permanent. Cette agriculture locale peut aussi contribuer à la pérennité de ce programme du fait qu’une partie des aliments est permanente.

« En Côte d’Ivoire les cantines scolaires ont créé 35.000 emplois directs et indirects. »

Tandis qu’à Madagascar : « Le projet s’est déroulé d’une manière satisfaisante avec une implication motivée de la communauté locale. En effet, ils réalisent en conscience les aides qui ont été fournis pour améliorer les conditions de travail de leurs enfants et ils ont fournis en conséquence des efforts pour assurer la continuité du fonctionnement de la cantine.

« Il n’y a pas de différence sauf sur les employés. En effet, on n’a pas embauché d’employés pour les tâches à la cantine. Car ce sont les parents d’élèves qui se sont relayés bénévolement pour la préparation des repas et pour les différentes courses à la cantine.

Au Congo : (...Les repas interviennent entre les heures des cours. Il est généralement plus copieux pour faire la différence avec la maison (riz, petits pois, haricots, conserves de poisson et de poulet…). Initié par le Gouvernement du Congo en 2007 dans le but d’attirer, motiver et maintenir les élèves du primaire à l’école.

L’année 2019, les cantines vont toucher au moins 60.000 élèves de 318 écoles rurales reparties dans six de douze départements que compte le Congo. Le Gouvernement japonais soutient cette
politique depuis son lancement. Il a déjà investi 20 millions de dollars (10 milliards de franc CFA). Les cantines scolaires sont toujours appuyées par le PAM qui soutient que « investir dans les cantines scolaires, c’est investir dans l’avenir, c’est relever le défi “faim zéro” ».

A côté de ces avantages, les désavantages sont minimes et négligeables. Ils concernent surtout la qualité des repas, les petits caprices individuels des enfants, chose que l’on peut corriger par la présence des contrôleurs.

**IV. PRÉALABLES POUR CRÉER UNE CANTINE SCOLAIRE**

Les cantines scolaires sont difficiles à faire fonctionner par un État à cause de son coût exorbitant. Il l’est encore plus dans les pays où l’enseignement maternel et primaire n’est pas gratuit. En effet, si déjà l’État paie mal ses employés (enseignants, fonctionnaires), sera-t-il capable de faire fonctionner ce service qui exige des sommes colossales ? Voilà pourquoi, on recourt toujours à des financements extérieurs.

Néanmoins, ceci nous pousse à dire que certains préalables sont requis pour ouvrir une cantine scolaire.

1. **Avoir un minimum de bonne gouvernance** : connaissant la gestion chaotique de nos pays africains, où souvent les dirigeants ne font pas la différence entre les finances de l’Etat et leurs poches personnelles, nous pensons qu’il faut un minimum de bonne gouvernance pour installer les cantines scolaires au niveau national. Ou alors choisir une équipe indépendante ou une ONG vraiment crédible pour gérer les cantines scolaires. Ceci pour éviter le détournement des fonds destinés aux cantines.

2. **La formation des membres de gestion de la cantine** : La réussite d’une telle organisation requiert l’acquisition des compétences de ceux qui ont en charge la gestion de l’école et de la cantine. Parmi les objectifs de la formation de l’équipe gestionnaire, figure le renforcement des capacités de mobilisation sociale. La cantine doit être une affaire de toute la communauté pour qu’elle puisse bien fonctionner.

3. **La responsabilisation et la sensibilisation des communautés.** (C. BOURDEL, 2010) la sensibilisation de la communauté est très importante. Les parents et la communauté doivent savoir ce que l’on fait pour leurs enfants et ils doivent y prendre une part active pour en assurer la bonne marche et le succès. Concrètement, l’équipe dirigeante doit veiller à ce que:

   - Les parents envoient les enfants à l’école, sans discrimination du point de vue sexe.
   - Les parents et les enseignants fassent tout pour maintenir le maximum d’enfants (filles et de garçons) à l’école

Les parents et la communauté veilleront à ce que les infrastructures de l’école soient propres et toujours en bon état ; que l’équipement et le matériel soient disponibles, en nombre suffisant et en bon état ; que l’enseignant soit intégré à la communauté.

L’implication des parents et de la communauté impactera aussi bien sur la qualité et la quantité des repas à donner aux enfants que sur le bon comportement de ces derniers vis-à-vis de leurs amis grâce aux conseils prodigués. L’engagement des parents et de la communauté sera un élément essentiel pour la pérennisation de ce projet.

4. L’équipe dirigeante doit élaborer les Statuts et Règlement Intérieur sur le fonctionnement de la cantine dans lesquels seront bien définies les attributions de chaque membre afin d’éviter les querelles de leadership.

5. Les membres doivent garantir une gestion correcte des fonds de la cantine, avoir une conduite morale exemplaire et intégrer la dimension du genre, pour garder la confiance des partenaires financiers.


7. L’école doit avoir un grand espace vide à sa disposition pour permettre de développer les activités de petite agriculture pour les aliments à acheter sur place.

8. Bien choisir les locaux : L’idéal est que la cantine soit assez proche de l’école pour permettre aux enfants et à leurs accompagnateurs d’y aller à pied.

9. L’équipe dirigeante scolaire doit rester en contact avec l’entité administrative étatique la plus proche (la Commune, le quartier etc. par une convention) pour obtenir certaines facilités administratives.

ÉTUDE DE CAS : EXPÉRIENCE D’UN PARTENARIAT ENTRE L’ONG UNAF ET QUELQUES ÉCOLES

L’Union nationale des femmes, en sigle UNAF est une plate-forme regroupant des associations féminines. Elle est implantée dans plusieurs provinces de la République démocratique du Congo. Cette structure a mené une expérience de cantines scolaires dans 4 écoles du district de Tshangu, dans les communes de Masina (1 école) et Kimbanseke (3 écoles) et une école du district du Mont-Amba dans la commune de Kisenso, dans la ville de Kinshasa.

Ces trois communes sont situées dans la partie dite périphérique de la ville de Kinshasa où la majorité de la population vit dans des conditions très précaire.

Cette idée est partie de trois constats :

Primo, les parents très pauvres, la plupart au chômage ou alors ouvrier mais avec un salaire fort modique, se trouvaient dans l’impossibilité de scolariser leur progéniture, à cause de leur incapacité à payer les frais d’étude. Autrement dit le taux de scolarisation était très bas.

Secundo, n’ayant pas accès à l’école, la délinquance juvénile s’en est trouvée doublée, en conséquence le phénomène filles-mères a pris de l’ascenseur, augmentant encore le nombre d’enfants non scolarisés.

Tertio, beaucoup d’enfants étaient en mauvaise santé ; en effet le taux de kwashiorkor et verminose allait crescendo.

Ce sont-là les faits qui ont mûli pour la création des cantines scolaires à titre expérimental.

Deux partenaires soutenaient ces cantines : l’Ambassade du Canada pour le volet finance et le PAM pour la distribution des vivres. L’UNAF a également reçu un grand camion pour assurer
le transport des vivres du dépôt central vers les écoles. Pendant cinq ans, soit de 2001 à 2006, ce projet de cantine scolaire a très bien fonctionné.

L’équipe dirigeante du projet se présentait comme suit : voir organigramme :

**Organigramme du projet des cantines scolaires de l’UNAF.**

Chaque cuisine avait 25 travailleurs, recrutés tous dans les associations de l’UNAF. Soit au total 125 personnes. Chacun avait un salaire (80$ à l’époque) et chaque samedi chacun avait droit à une ration alimentaire, pour leur ôter toute idée de vol.

Les autres membres de l’UNAF habitant dans les environs des cantines tiraient profit en ce sens que tout achat local (légumes, braises, manioc, huile de palme etc.) ne pouvait se faire qu’auprès des membres de l’association. Toutes les femmes maraîchères et vendeuses avaient été inventoriées et organisées pour que les ventes se fassent par rotation afin de donner satisfaction à tout le monde.

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**Les avantages de ces cantines scolaires** :

- **Pour les enfants**:
  
  - Le taux de scolarité avait fortement augmenté et dépassé les capacités d’accueil de ces écoles. L’absentéisme et le retard avaient disparu.
  
  - Le rendement scolaire s’était fortement amélioré. Les enfants s’appliquaient comme il faut.
  
  - La santé des enfants s’était améliorée et le taux de grossesse de filles mineures avait diminué. Les enfants étaient gais et heureux.
  
  - Le problème de la faim n’existait plus et ne constituait plus un souci même quand à la maison on ne préparait pas.

- **Pour les parents**:
  
  - C’était un véritable ouf de soulagement pour les parents qui éprouvaient des difficultés à nourrir leurs enfants ! Ils étaient épanouis, le stress de l’alimentation des enfants ayant pratiquement disparu ou en tout cas amoindri, surtout quand on avait plusieurs enfants à l’école.
  
  - Les parents ne toléraient plus que les enfants s’absentent des cours.

- **Pour les autres membres de la plate-forme** :
  
  - La pauvreté avait reculé du fait que les travaux annexes étaient une occasion sûre de gagner de l’argent de façon régulière par la vente de leurs produits et en grande quantité avec pour conséquence l’amélioration de la qualité de la vie du ménage.

**Organisation concrète de la cantine**

- La nourriture était gardée dans le dépôt central ; la responsable de la cuisine établissait une réquisition pour le retrait de la nourriture et de l’argent dont elle avait besoin pour la semaine.

- Les enfants étudiaient en deux vacations. Ceux du matin prenaient un petit déjeuner à 9 heures et le dîner à 12h30 avant de rentrer à la maison. Ceux de l’après-midi mangeaient à 12h30 avant de commencer la classe.


Le temps du repas était bien chronométré pour ne pas perturber l’horaire des cours. Une équipe de santé passait régulièrement pour examiner les enfants et suivre leur balance de croissance. Il était prévu qu’après les cinq premières années le projet soit reconduit, malheureusement à cause de la més gestion constatée vers la fin, les partenaires ont décidé d’arrêter le financement. (Rapport annuel d’activités de l’UNAF 2005)

Hélas ! la fin de cette cantine scolaire a marqué un net recul dans la scolarité de ces écoles concernées et les vieilles antivaleurs combattues sont revenues en force.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ECOLE</th>
<th>Nbre Es/capacité réelle avant cantine</th>
<th>Taux d’abandon</th>
<th>Nbre Es/capacité réelle pendant cantine</th>
<th>Taux d’abandon</th>
<th>Nbre Es/capacité réelle après cantine</th>
<th>Taux d’abandon</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EP. ELIKYA /Kisenso</td>
<td>304/500</td>
<td>39,2%</td>
<td>453/500</td>
<td>9,4%</td>
<td>300/500</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EP. BONDEKO (Kimbanseke)</td>
<td>285/350</td>
<td>18,6%</td>
<td>345/350</td>
<td>1,5%</td>
<td>260/350</td>
<td>25,8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EP. ASSIJIF (Kimbanseke)</td>
<td>255/320</td>
<td>20,4%</td>
<td>320/320</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>250/320</td>
<td>21,9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EP. AFEDEK (Kimbanseke)</td>
<td>260/300</td>
<td>13,4%</td>
<td>295/300</td>
<td>1,7%</td>
<td>275/300</td>
<td>8,4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EP. AFAKI (Masina)</td>
<td>230/250</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>245/250</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>206/250</td>
<td>17,6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Total**

1334/1720 19,9% 1684/1720 14,6% 1291/1720 22,6%

**CONCLUSION**

Les cantines sont une réalité que nous retrouvons dans au moins 70 pays pauvres et elles touchent à peu près 20 millions d’enfants parmi les plus pauvres au monde. (PAM, rapport 2013). C’est un programme qui coûte très cher et qui exige des financements extérieurs. Mais vu les nombreux avantages que procurent les cantines scolaires, il faut obtenir qu’elles deviennent une affaire de toute la communauté là où elles sont implantées, cela pour garantir que ce projet continue après le départ des bailleurs des fonds.
Le PAM a commencé son programme de cantines scolaires il y a plus de 50 ans et il est aujourd'hui le plus grand fournisseur mondial de repas dans les écoles.

Vu le nombre croissant des demandeurs, le PAM finit par transférer la responsabilité des programmes de repas scolaires aux gouvernements et aux communautés partenaires pour se tourner vers d’autres horizons. C’est pourquoi l’implication des communautés (parents, partenaires locaux, membres des communautés) est vivement souhaitée. En effet, une fois qu’elles ont compris l’importance du programme, elles n’hésiteront pas à s’en approprier.

Toutefois, dans cadre, de la réduction des coûts dans les cantines, au Mali, ils ont opté pour une restauration intermittente : 2 ou 3 jours de repas consistants et les autres jours, les enfants reçoivent la bouillie.

**Carte : le nombre des repas scolaires distribués dans le monde par le PAM en 2013.**

![Carte des repas scolaires](image)

**Légende :**
- Couleur jaune : 16 pays d’Afrique de l’Ouest.
- Couleur bleue : 9 pays d’Afrique australe.
- Couleur verte : 8 pays d’Afrique centrale et orientale.
- Couleur rouge : 12 pays d’Asie.
- Couleur orange : 11 pays du Moyen-Orient et Asie centrale.
- Couleur mauve : 7 pays d’Amérique latine et Caraïbes

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PART 11
PEACE EDUCATION
SCHOOL SAFETY STRATEGIES IN NIGERIA: EDUCATIONAL PLANNERS INTERVENTIONS

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ABSTRACT
Safety is a basic necessity for man apart from food and clothing. As important as education is, so also is security of life and properties. However, effective teaching and learning cannot take without adequate provision for safety of students and teachers. In view of this, this paper focused on school safety strategies and educational planners’ intervention in Nigeria. The paper examined the concept of school safety and characteristics of a safe school. Also, for security reason, factors to be considered in siting of school were discussed which include, location, building layout and security. Some of the school safety strategies discussed in this paper were reinforcement of school fencing, installation of security devices, and engagement of services of armed guard such as police or military officer and training staff as school safety officers. Some of the challenges to ensure effective safe school in Nigeria include poor school financing, lack or inadequate basic security devices (such as bell signals, fire extinguishers, fire blanket, sand buckets, school ambulance and metal detector among others). The paper recommended adequate financing of schools to procure necessary security devices required. It was concluded that Educational administrators and planners should not only plan but ensure effective implementation of school security plans.

Keywords: Intervention, Physiological needs, Safety, School Plant, & Strategies.

INTRODUCTION
Fundamentally, education is the bacon of national development and a right to every child irrespective of colour, race, sex or religion. In the developing world, education has been recognized as a viable tool for achieving national growth and development, economic prosperity and social transformation (Ovwasa, 2010). School is an agent of social transformation is consciously designed to make an individual to be useful to himself and his immediate society by developing and improving his experience and receptiveness to new ideas, knowledge, concepts, values and innovations. However, these cannot be achieved effectively where there is threat to life. Therefore, every child is entitled to secure, safer, comfortable and health feeling environment in order to benefit maximally from teaching-learning process.
Threat to life is threat to educational goal achievement. Characteristically, growth and development in some parts of the world have been threatened by insecurity such as war, kidnapping, raping and suicide bombing among others. Addison (2015) added that natural disasters (like earthquakes, flood, landslides, tornadoes, etc) and non-natural disasters (like vehicle accidents, fire out-break, building collapse, nuclear reactions, plane crashes, etc.) cause loss of life in any area and the school is not exclusive.

The issue of insecurity all over the world and especially in Nigeria has been a trending issue for a decade. This becomes so worrisome to note that teaching and learning processes were stopped due to several attacks on schools. Amnesty International (2014) reported that more than 50 schools were attacks; some are partially destroyed while some are burned down. In Yobe state, 41 students and a teacher were shot dead on 6th of July, 2013 at Government secondary school, Mamudo in Potiskum Local Government Area. Another 50 Students were killed by gunmen while almost 1,000 students ran outside the campus at the Gujiba college of Agriculture, Yobe state. There were cases of forceful abduction of teenager, the kidnapped of three students at Babington Macaulay Junior Secondary School, Ikorodu, Lagos on March 1, 2016. Although the girls have been rescued by officers of the Nigerian police, the fact that they could be kidnapped inside the school compound drew widespread criticism from observers and parents whose children were kidnapped and also those who have kids in other schools. On 13th of January, 2017, three students, three female supervisors one female cook and a female Turkish teacher were abducted at Tulip International College, Isheri, Ogun State (formally known s Turkish International College) by armed men. Notably among several others was the kidnap of the Chibok girls in which many are still under the captivity of book haram.

Education in the North Eastern part (particularly in Borno, Adamawa and Yobe States) has been severely disrupted. Permanent damage has been done to the education system in the region with defenseless students being murdered and abducted on a regular basis. The Boko Haram sects that were responsible for the abduction declared Western education as evil and has waged a sustained and bloody onslaught against the education system. Some of the negative consequences of these are that school buildings and facilities were destroyed across the states, communities left their homestead and become refugees thereby disconnecting the education of the children, students study under atmosphere of extreme fear, some students in the areas affected by insurgency resolved never to go back to school. This is corroborated by Kennedy (2004) when he says that if students and staff do not feel safe, education often takes a back seat.

The implications of these are that the society is dissatisfied with the rate of insecurity in Nigeria, schools’ programmes are obstructed, administrators cannot boast of proper security for pupils/students, teachers are scared to attend classes, parents/guardians also think twice before releasing their children/wards to schools, students/pupils are learning in an unsafe environment while those that still have interest are not bold enough to attend classes. Therefore, educational administrators and planners are saddled with more responsibilities to think out of the box to in ensuring a safe school.

**CONCEPT OF SCHOOL SAFETY**

Safety is the state of being safe, the condition of being protected against physical, social, spiritual, financial, political, emotional, occupational, psychological and educational failure, damage, error, accidents, harm or any other events which could be considered non-desirable (Awodiji, Ogbudinkpa and Osasuyin, 2015). Safety is an indispensable part of school
effectiveness, without safety nothing else matter. Addison (2014) added that safety depicts a state of full protection from danger be it physical, social or emotional. However, safety goes beyond protection against physical harm and includes all very supportive social and environmental factors that can guarantee peace of mind to the individual achieve his or her maximum potentials.

Donlin (2014) described school safety as the necessary environment in which effective teaching and learning can take place. School safety supports student learning by creating and promoting a physically, emotionally, socially, and academically secure climate for students, staff, and visitors. Safety in school environment means making adequate provision for overall wellbeing and ensuring that no harm comes the way of the student during the course of education. School safety is of utmost importance as it supports student learning by creating and promoting a physically, emotionally, socially and academically secured climate for students, staff and visitors (Addison, 2014).

**Components and Characteristics of Safe School**
The components and characteristics of safe school include:

a. **Physical Environment**: A safe school has a well-maintained facilities, ground and perimeter fencing with well-lighted and sighted access to traffic areas; controlled access to facilities and directing visitors and occupants around school property.

b. **Social-cultural Environment**: A safe school has clearly stated and written expectations of behavior, conduct for all school participants and consequences for inappropriate behavior and conduct for all school participants. It also has established procedures for clear, consistent and equitable enforcement of policies, and personnel who are prepared to implement such procedures.

c. **Parent-community Involvement**: A safe school maintains an effective communication between parents and educators and with all relevant community agencies/organizations for student safety (such as law enforcement, mental health, social services, public health and juvenile justice). Shares responsibility among members of community to discipline, achieve quality supervision, care and recreation for student outside of regular school hours.

d. **Surveillance Support**: A safe school has trained staff prepared to respond to alarms or detection of security threats or violations, collaborates with law enforcement officers, and/or volunteers to patrol school properly, and provides accessible and functional communication devices for various users’ support of security.

e. **School Climate**: A safe school operates on the basis of “total quality” concept (provides meaningful involvement and empowerment of all stakeholders). Promotes mutual respect, acceptance, and affiliation among all stakeholders.

**The Need for Safe School**
Safety is a fundamental need of every individual. It is a basic need that must be met in order for the child to achieve cognitive outcomes as expected from schooling. Next to physiological needs is safety. The theory of motivation as presented by Abraham Maslow explained that human needs are met in hierarchical order as thus:
As shown in figure 1, the first two needs, which are basic needs are the most important needs for every personality before considering other needs. The first needs is physiological needs consist of feeding clothing and shelter, while the second need is protection to life. These needs have a major effect on the integral maturation and organization of psychological competencies, learning functions and motivation (Gibert, 1993). Every child is entitled to some rights which must be given to them. The Federal ministry of education in Nigeria came up with a programme titled every child counts in collaboration with a human right developed an instrument titled “Right of the child” (CRC) signed in Turkey in 1989. The instrument contained the rights for every child, according to Miske (2010), the following are the rights:

i. *The right to survive:* every child is entitled to live, no one has the right to take any life of any child for any reason on his/her own. All boys and girls have the right includes necessities for food, housing, medicine, clothing, etc.

ii. *The right to protection:* all boys and girls needs to be protected from abuse, neglect and exploitation. The CRC simply stated that every child must be protected from physical and mental violence.

iii. *The right to development:* every child is entitled to development to develop his/ herself potential to fullest, it includes right to be educated, every child has right to play, rest to engaged in cultural activities and to have access to news and information.

iv. *The right to participation:* all boys and girls have right to participate/freedom to participate in community activities/development.

**SCHOOL PLANT PLANNING AND SAFETY**

School security management is the plan for the protection that is given to the stakeholders within the school, learners, educators and managers from crime and accidents, by means of well-drawn policies which should be well managed (Trump, 2010). School plant is the place where the school programmes and activities take place or where school curriculum is implemented. School plant is defined by Isaac and Ajayi (2010) as a consciously designed and controlled environment with the sole aim of promoting teaching and learning activities within the school. It is putting together of facilities to protect the physical well-being of individuals associated with a school. This implies that the term “school plant “is more than the school building and the piece of land on which is situated.
School plant means the school building, all materials, furniture and equipment attached and unattached to the building, all structures and features on the school site, including paths, roads, parking lots, playgrounds, open grounds, trees, flowers and other objects used for implementing or supporting the implementation of an educational programme (Ejeh, Fadipe, and Ajadi, 2000). The school plant is not only to provide conducive environment for both teaching and learning but also to ensure a safe, a hygienic and comfortable shelter for students, teachers, and other staff as teaching, learning and other activities go on.

FACTORS TO BE CONSIDERED WHEN SITTING A SCHOOL

Location: For safety purpose, location should be considered when siting a school. No matter how laudable the school programme is, if the safety of lives and properties in the school is not guaranteed, such a school cannot boast of a good academic achievement (Oluchukwu, 2008). It is noteworthy that schools should not be located along air path, near the market, industrial layout or too far away from town. According to Ajayi (2007), it is not to the best interest of the life of the students and to locate a school along an express way, too near a thick forest or very close to a deep sea. Ajayi opined that the school compound should be walled with a single gate which can always be locked.

The location of the school matters a lot whether it is located to areas that are prone to hazard, harm, danger, kidnapping or any form of attacks. The location of the school should not be close to market, garage, motor-park, river, bush, stream, highways and so on. A school that is safe from disaster or hazard must:

a. Be far from road reserve line, high voltage power and river (>0.5km)
b. Be on a land spacious enough to accommodate school members: classroom is 8 x 7m2 in size for 35 persons; spaces available for playground and sport
c. Be surrounded by trees to allow fresh air
d. Be on land with a slope of less than 6%

Therefore, unless schools are well sited with buildings adequately constructed and equipment adequately utilized and maintained to ensure the safety of the users, much teaching and learning may not take place.

Building layout: The school building should be constructed in a way that there will be easy access and exit for children without stepping on or collide with one another in the state of emergency or panic. In order to identify the vulnerability of school building, there can be quick assessment on building layout and configuration to assist in more detailed structural assessment or quick structural assessment in general strength assessment related to the structural design of the school building.

Security: This is a major factor in the design and sitting of any new school building. The security concerns of schools are to be considered before citing schools to ensure that school buildings are properly erected and properly organised in terms of spacing in order to reduce risks to lives of students. The security of the learners is supposed to be compared with the security of educators because they also tend to be victimized by those learners and the people who intend to attack the entire school.

SAFE SCHOOL STRATEGIES

Safe school strategies are security measures put in place by all stakeholders (school, community, government, parents and students among others) in ensuring safety of life and properties within a school system. Basically, the school and the community are two institutions of men that are inseparable. The relationship between school and community is symbiotic and
complementary in nature. The school cannot exist without a community while the community might not develop without a school. The community establishes schools while the school, in turn, provides the learning for the education of the members of the community.

**a. School-based Strategies:** These are security arrangements made by the school to ensure adequate protection and security of lives and properties from internal and external threats. These are collective efforts made by the school heads, teachers, other staff and students. Some of these strategies are as follows:

i. Reinforced infrastructure through adequate and effective fencing of school

ii. Installation of security devices such as CCTV camera.

iii. Engaging the services of Armed guard(s) such as police or military officer(s)

iv. Training staff as school safety officers: each of the staff of the school need to be trained on different safety measures in the school

v. Inclusion and teaching of security education

vi. Provision of effective rapid response system

**Community-based Strategies:** The security management strategies put in place by the community includes:

1. **Community Education Committee:** Community members have the best knowledge of their community and even individuals to some extent. Schools should work hand in hand with the community so as to ensure security and better performance.

2. **Teacher-Student-Parent Defense Units:** Fostering all these units together can go in a long way in protecting and securing the school from external attack.

3. **Religious Leader Engagement:** Engagement of religious leaders will promote education as this will reduce attack on the lives of the students. The religious leaders will definitely teach their followers on the need to shun violence and promote good moral.

4. **Community-driven Negotiations:** This is to develop and agree to codes of conduct for zones of peace. In some communities, co-operation among different political and ethnic groups in widely publicized mass meeting can lead to the development of “Safe School Zones.”

**EDUCATIONAL PLANNING INTERVENTIONS**

The school is an organisation that needs to planned safety rules and regulations to protect its components so that the culture of learning and teaching is enhanced. The evidence of a secured school is the existence and execution of security plans which are well drawn policies of protection that should be given to the stakeholders within the school, be it learners, educators and managers. Ensuring safety for schoolchildren encompasses a myriad of ways, which involve immediate, medium and long term plans targeted at overall safety. Medium and long term plans will involve monitoring school children’s safety by providing good source of potable water to prevent outbreak of diseases (like cholera and diarrhea), building of infrastructures like fence, hand rails on stairways to prevent falls, security cameras for monitoring and surveillance of school environment, building more classrooms to avoid overcrowding and its attendant problems, fire extinguishers for fire and flammable chemicals in school, training and drilling of students, teachers and school security personnel on networking with the law enforcement agencies, such as, the police, army and so on to ensure continuous and random security checks on schools. Educational planners make policies and procedures that direct and limit access to and movement about school property as well as providing steps to responses to in case of security violations.

**Primary Intervention**
These are preventive interventions which consist of plans, programmes and policies made to ensure effective safe school. These are activities devoted to preventing a crisis or security threats from occurring. This is a micro level planning. Proactive planning enables the school management to play active role in risk management and effective participation in the process of security management. It helps the school not to absolutely prevent threats but at least to reduce the fear and anxiety associated with the security threat. This can also assist in reducing the fatality rate in the event of any security threat in physical psychological and economic terms (Dory, 2003).

Secondary Intervention
This is known as contingency plan or emergency intervention as a result of natural disasters (such as floods, earthquakes, fire and cyclones) and man-made destruction (such as bomb threat, school violence and kidnapping) that happen to schools unaware. Emergency plan, according to Amanda (2003), is a method by which awareness and understanding (support by risk education) can be translated into action and can include a range of activities such as developing contingency plans, participating in education and awareness activities. School safety emergency plan is a guide for providing a response system, to possible major disasters, occurring on the controlled premises of the institute. It is designed to help prepare for and effectively coordinate the use of school and community resources to protect life and property immediately following an event.

Advantages of Secondary Intervention
1. It provides guidance during emergency situation of security attacks
2. It reduces the possible consequences of the emergency situation by preventing fatalities and injuries; reducing damage to buildings and accelerating the resumption of normal school activities.
3. It enables the individuals in the school to respond creatively to any situation of security attack, even without seeking for external intervention.
4. It helps in discovering unrecognized hazardous conditions that would aggravate an emergency situation and the team in charge can work to eliminate them.
5. The school may discover unrecognized hazardous conditions that would aggravate an emergency situation and the team in charge can work to eliminate them (The Canadian Centre for Occupational Health and Safety, 2005)
6. Failure of emergency plan could lead to chaos during crisis. This implies that emergency plan is necessary to prevent further loss of life and properties.

Tertiary intervention
This is a long-term or strategic planning directed towards ensuring a safe school. This intervention involves providing long-term follow-up assistance to those who have experienced a severe crisis such as ongoing emotional support and counselling for victims in order to minimize its debilitating psychological effects.

Challenges
It is unfortunate to note that educational planning and administration as well as security in Nigeria are politicized in such that appointment of school administrators, school programmes, implementation and release of funds are based on nepotism, favoritism and party affiliation. Therefore, many schools lack basic infrastructures in required quality and quantity. Also, basic security gadgets (such as bell signals, fire extinguishers, fire blanket, sand buckets, emergency medical bags, school ambulance and metal detector among others) are virtually inadequate or
lacking in schools. The challenges of educational system are not actually in the planning but in the implementation. There are good safety plans but there are poor implementations. Also, most planners are not given freehand to implement their plans while the process implementation is carried out by people who did not participation in planning the programme.

**SUGGESTIONS AND CONCLUSION**

Teaching and learning can be efficient and effective in a safe and secured environment. Ensuring a secured learning environment is everybody’s priority and business. Educational administrators and planners should have safe plans and programmes which are not only to protect the learners and staff from harm, but also to prevent harm from occurring. Security votes should be allocated to schools management for purchasing the relevant security prevention devices in order to respond quickly and effectively to potential crises.

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RÉSUMÉ
La RDC vit depuis plus d’un quart de siècle des situations de conflit qui mettent en péril la volonté maintes fois exprimée par le peuple congolais de « vouloir-vivre en ensemble ».

Il s’avère cependant que cette volonté n’est pas clairement traduite ou prise en charge par des programmes et manuels scolaires par l’introduction dans les curricula, notamment ceux d’histoire, des enseignements d’éducation à la paix, les cours d’éducation civique et morale au secondaire et d’éducation à la citoyenneté au supérieur : ils évitent d’aborder le cœur du problème, parce que parfois jugé « sensible ».

Cet article décrit une situation de « crise curriculaire » et propose pour les instituts de formation d’enseignants, de s’appuyer sur les programmes de certaines filières dans les universités où l’Éducation à la paix et le vouloir-vivre ensemble apparaissent dans divers enseignements.

Mots Clés : Éducation à la Paix, Manuels Scolaires, Programmes scolaires, Question socialement vive & Vouloir-vivre.

INTRODUCTION
La note introductive du Programme National d’Histoire (PNH, 2005) affirme que « l’histoire constitue l’une des matières fondamentales et stratégiques […] représente un enjeu important […] où elle doit s’imposer comme une discipline scientifique, culturelle et de synthèse ayant la vocation d’être à la fois une matière d’ouverture, de mobilisation, d’engagement, de socialisation, d’enracinement et de développement ». Cet enseignement a entre autres pour finalités « former un homme fortement attaché à la nation et ouvert au monde, responsable, conscient de ses droits (liberté, justice, paix …) et respectueux de ses obligations (familiales, sociales et patriotiques) ».

La contribution ci-après tente d’analyser les finalités, les intentions affichées ainsi que le contenu en ce qui concerne la question de l’« éducation à la paix et du vouloir vivre ensemble » qui intéresse dans cette réflexion. Dans la mesure où ces questions sont abordées dans d’autres sciences de la société comme l’éducation civique et morale et la géographie humaine, un intérêt sera également porté vers ces disciplines, sans cependant entrer dans les détails.

L’enseignement de l’histoire, en RDC en ce nouveau siècle qui devrait s’insérer dans la problématique générale de la question scolaire, pose la question de l’objectif même de cet enseignement : construction de l’« identité nationale » ou, l’ère de la mondialisation aidant,
compréhension de l’histoire du monde dans lequel l’enfant vit ? Il semble que les deux objectifs ne soient pas incompatibles et antinomiques. En effet, dans un monde globalisé, « l’idée de l’État-Nation s’estompe au profit des réseaux qui forment une chaîne dont les maillons s’étendent à l’échelle de la planète, ce n’est pas sans avoir des conséquences sur l’identité des hommes qui la peuplent et celle de leurs institutions » (Gohier, 2002). L’idée de « nation » englobe depuis Renan, ce qu’on appelle le « vouloir –vivre » en commun.

1. LE « VOULOIR-VIVRE ENSEMBLE » ET L’ÉDUCATION A LA PAIX : DES « QUESTIONS SOCIALEMENT VIVES »

Depuis un peu plus d’un quart de siècle, sont apparues dans la recherche didactique ce qu’on a pris coutume d’appeler les « Questions socialement vives » (QSV), ou les « controverses issues » des Anglo-Saxons. Au nombre de ces QSV, figurent en bonne place le « vouloir vivre-ensemble » (VVE) et l’ « éducation à la Paix » (EP), qui font appel à des références éthiques et culturelles, ainsi qu’à des valeurs susceptibles de donner lieu à des débats polémiques avec une forte charge émotionnelle (Legardez et Simonneaux, 2006).


2. LE VVE EN RDC: ÉTAT DES LIEUX


« migrations africaines » : en réalité, il s’agit des migrations « bantoues », si l’on se réfère au contenu des manuels.


Il s’agit donc d’une difficulté majeure. En effet, du moment que les « architectes » du discours ethniciste ou d’exclusion sont des intellectuels de haut vol, ceux qu’on appelle « entrepreneurs identitaires » (Jolivet 2003), parfois formateurs de ceux qui élaborent et mettent en œuvre les programmes et manuels scolaires, si, pas eux-mêmes membres de la « noosphère » (Chevallard, 1991). Qu’attendre de l’enseignant en situation de classe ? L’inquiétude de L. N’Sanda Buleli (2006) se trouve pleinement justifiée, lui qui se désole du fait que « l’élite universitaire […] semble parfois oublier son rôle de phare de la société et va jusqu’à jouer le rôle de pyromane »

Ces intellectuels, qui érigent les idéologies ethnicistes et tribales en « barrières mentales » (Kambayi, 1995), apparaissent parfois comme des demi-dieux dont les analyses et autres productions sont considérées comme parole d’évangile pour le commun des mortels, donc forcément vraies. Alors que normalement, comme dans des sociétés policées, ils auraient dû faire « bénéficier des éclairages critiques du regard universitaire » (Jewsiewicki, 2006).

Il serait cependant naïf et injuste de croire que le discours ethniciste est le fait des seuls politiciens et autres intellectuels: c’est le cas du discours anti-luba et la haine raciste à l’encontre de ce groupe ont été et sont régulièrement observés dans le reste du pays. Une boutade en témoigne : « boma Muluba tika nioka » ; « bazalaki Zaïrois mibale na Muluba moko » ; (« Tue le Muluba, épargne le serpent ; » ils étaient deux Zaïrois et un Muluba, ce qui fait de ce dernier un « étranger »). La difficulté viendrait peut-être aussi et même principalement de ce conditionnement mental et idéologique qui prend en charge l’enfant dès le bas âge en le situant non seulement dans une « ethnie », dans une lignée où des caractéristiques sont définitivement préétablies. Des décennies d’enseignement peuvent-ils aider à dégommer de nos têtes la théorie « hamitique », le Muluba « vantard », le Mukongo « peureux » ou « fourbe » ou le Mongo « voleur », « menteur » ou « impudique », le Katangais « arrogant », etc. ?

Plusieurs intellectuels qui participent à certaines études tombent dans des pièges : en tant que chercheurs, ils professent une opinion différente selon qu’ils participent à des forums politiques en tant que « militants ». Ils se retrouvent ainsi dans la situation que décrit G. Orwell (Devroey, 1985). Atteint de schizophrénie, l’intellectuel, acceptant la discipline d’un parti politique, adhère « à une mentalité religieuse qui consiste à accepter deux affirmations totalement inconciliables : ceci donne au militant le pouvoir de tenir compte, en même temps, de deux idées qui s’annulent, d’ignorer des faits patents, de croire des choses que l’on sait fausses et de nier l’évidence ». C’est ainsi que, beaucoup de Congolais, parfois universitaires, intellectuels,
font des « Tutsi » une « nationalité » à travers des affirmations du genre « X a une double « nationalité » : il (ou elle) est de père (ou de mère) congolaise (e) et de père (ou de mère) tutsi »…, les « Hutu » n’étant finalement pas une « nationalité », mais une simple « ethnie ». Quant à certains « Tutsi », ils considéreraient les Congolais (les « bantous » en général), comme des BMW : ils ne seraient préoccupés que par la Beer, le Money et les Wives…

3. L’ÉCOLE ET LE VVE
3.1. Le VVE et l’EP dans les curricula


Il est donc essentiel que le programme scolaire et les manuels qui lui sont associés encouragent un débat ouvert en vue de favoriser les compétences requises pour traiter les questions polémiques et échanger des vues de manière civile et productive (D. Georgescu & J. Bernard, 2007).

Après les événements de 1994, le Rwanda avait décidé de suspendre l’enseignement de l’histoire à l’école primaire et à l’école secondaire. Cette décision avait été qualifiée d’« émotionnelle, de colère et d’amertume, en adéquation avec la situation sociopolitique du moment » (Gasana, 2004). Il est indiqué pour la RDC de prévenir la survenance de telles tragédies, d’autant plus que la situation qui prévaut, surtout dans la partie orientale, est susceptible d’y basculer. « À force de trop tendre la corde, qu’elle se brise », disait F. Kabemba dans une conférence à l’ISP-Gombe le 18 mars 2017, pour souligner le caractère potentiellement explosif en RDC, où la plupart des Congolais continuent de désigner les hommes et les femmes, non pas par ce qui fait la singularité de chacun d’eux en tant qu’être humain et en tant que citoyen d’une société donnée, mais par son appartenance supposée à une « race », à une « ethnie », à une « région ».

Pourtant, ayant mesuré les dégâts du racisme, du nationalisme, du micro nationalisme et de l’ethnisme, les sociétés policées du monde entier ne manient désormais plus ces concepts (race, nation, ethnie, région) qu’avec les plus grandes précautions et pour en stigmatiser le dangereux potentiel de destruction (Elikia 2012). C’est le sens qu’il faut donner à l’introduction de ces questions qui font débat dans les curricula.

Voilà pourquoi, il faut « explorer les pistes susceptibles de préserver la nation d’une descente aux enfers » (Obotela 2007), se situant dans la ligne de P. Nora, pour qui « l’histoire s’écrit toujours du point de vue de l’avenir » (Carpentier, 1999). Même si, dès lors qu’elle est enseignée à l’école, l’histoire « consiste à organiser le passé en fonction du présent » (Corbel & Falaize, 2004). C’est aussi le sens « du plus jamais » souvent entendu, après des épisodes dramatiques, mais généralement sans beaucoup d’effets, parce que les mêmes événements se répètent.


Il est toutefois regrettable, que le Programme National d’Histoire (PNH 2005) ne s’appuie pas sur cette problématique de pays déchiré par les guerres et conflits de tout genre, les stéréotypes, clichés, et une mauvaise image de l’autre. Il se présente comme si rien ne s’était passé dans ce
pays, à part bien entendu le besoin ressenti d’une réforme des programmes scolaires, déjà vieux de plus de trente ans. Le passé récent des conflits ayant marqué le Congo au cours de deux dernières décennies n’est pas suffisamment repris (Nfudiko & Langer, 2017), même pas les intentions du programme.

3.2. Les intentions du programme
Les intentions du Programme tirent leur fondement dans les textes qui organisent la vie de la République, à savoir la Constitution du 18 février 2006 et la Loi-cadre de l’enseignement national du 11 février 2014. En effet, même si elle est postérieure au PNH (2005), la Constitution du 18 février 2006 pose les options fondamentales, susceptibles de retenir l’attention dans le cadre de cette contribution. L’article 45 par exemple, dispose que « toute personne a accès aux établissements d’enseignement national sans discrimination de lieu d’origine, de race, de religion, de sexe, d’opinions politiques ou philosophiques, de son état physique, mental ou sensoriel, selon ses capacités ».

Quant à l’article 51, il stipule que « l’État a le devoir d’assurer et de promouvoir la coexistence pacifique et harmonieuse de tous les groupes ethniques du pays. Il assure également la protection et la promotion des groupes vulnérables et de toutes les minorités ». Pour sa part, la Loi-cadre du 11 février 2014 parle à l’article 9, de :
- « L’éducation aux valeurs » ;
- De l’ « utilisation des langues nationales » ;
- « Droits de l’homme » ;
- La « lutte contre les discriminations et les inégalités en matière d’enseignement scolaire » ; et
- La « promotion de l’intelligence et de l’esprit critique ».

Les mesures d’application de cette Loi se font toujours attendre…

Quant à la traduction de ces intentions dans les manuels scolaires et dans les situations de classe, il faut relever le fait qu’en dépit des intentions positives affichées en lien avec l’enseignement de la paix dans le cours d’éducation civique et morale, ce dernier est confronté à divers défis que résument Nfudiko et Langer (2017) et qu’il n’est pas utile d’étaler ici, faute d’espace.

L’enseignement du passé violent et les questions controversées constituent un défi important dans le système éducatif des pays ayant connu des conflits ; on y note des stratégies comme la falsification ou la distorsion de l’histoire et le contournement des thèmes controversés par les narrations alternatives qui sont envisagés dans l’enseignement pour faire face à ce passé violent. Telle cette volonté de remplacer le nom de l’archevêque de Bukavu, cité en héro, dans les ouvrages ‘Ma patrie’ par de personnalités internationales qui ne font pas polémique comme Nelson Mandela (Nfudiko et Langer, 2017).

Voilà donc les raisons pour lesquelles les valeurs édictées éprouvent de la peine à se retrouver dans les salles de classe, du moins en ce qui concerne l’histoire. Pour les disciplines comme l’éducation civique et morale, la géographie humaine et le cours de langue française, d’intéressants développements sont à lire dans Nfudiko & Langer (2017).

3.3. Traduction du programme : les manuels scolaires

Dans un rapport rédigé à la demande de l’UNESCO, il est question des « dimensions et stéréotypes culturels dans les manuels scolaires ». On y note que « les stéréotypes, positifs
comme négatifs, peuvent avoir des effets négatifs sur l’apprendre à vivre ensemble ». Dans certains cas, les stéréotypes positifs peuvent projeter une image erronée concernant des individus et/ou des communautés, notamment on loue des Qualités locales ou nationales exceptionnelles que d’autres peuvent ne pas posséder. Les stéréotypes négatifs génèrent des images dévalorisantes de différents types, fondées sur des généralisations dénuées d’équité et de critique. Les stéréotypes positifs comme négatifs sont très souvent employés pour légitimer la discrimination, les traitements inéquitables et la violence.

En conséquence, l’éducation pour la paix et pour apprendre à vivre ensemble devraient accorder une particulière attention au développement des Compétences de pensée critique comme moyen de lutter efficacement contre les préjugés et la manipulation.


Concernant les pygmées, les manuels de 1ère, 3ème et 6è secondaire (Lupamanyi & Lisongo, 2009, 2013) ne parlent de pygmées qu’en tant que refoulés par les « bantu », distincts eux-mêmes d’une « minorité » Hutu laissée au couloir de la savane qui longe la chaîne des Grands Lacs et se dirigeant vers le Sud, pour former le « noyau des Bantu orientaux ». Ces manuels se contentent de décrire le mode de vie des pygmées « batwa » mais font l’impasse sur leur marginalisation croissante et l’oppression dont ils sont victimes, se situant dans la logique admise selon laquelle « les manuels scolaires reflètent souvent l’image de l’autre biaisée, surtout lorsqu’il s’agit de minorités ou de segments de population » (Gasanabo, 2011). De même, la « science » pygmée de la maîtrise des secrets de la forêt n’est mise en valeur nulle part.

Enfin, dans le manuel « Histoire classes terminales » Longo Kazumba (2005), décrit les « pygmées ou négrilles » en ces termes : ils « sont caractérisés par leur petite taille (1,30 à 1,50 m) où le tronc prend la principale place, leur grosse tête, leur peau brunâtre ou cuivrée, leur nez très épaté, leurs lèvres minces, leurs systèmes pileux très développé (poitrine velue) » (p.46). On peut dès lors se demander si une telle description figée, stéréotypée doit figurer dans un manuel scolaire : les élèves pourraient assimiler aux pygmées toute personne (notamment les nains, macrocéphales), née avec des malformations sans qu’elles en soient de cette origine. Comment dès lors faire un tel enseignement dans des écoles situées par exemple en zones pygmées, dans des classes où il y a également des élèves pygmées, ou dans les zones où la stigmatisation ethnique est la plus forte ? La question centrale sera alors : « comment former, aider aux questions délicates de l’histoire nationale […] ? Comment aider à faire face aux revendications identitaires des élèves, comme à leur sensibilité face à ces questions ? […]. Comment prendre en compte les élèves dans leur singularité identitaire, ou répondre à leur demande de reconnaissance collective confrontée à des histoires, jusqu’ici non traitées, tues ou simplement minorées » ? (INRP, 2006). On le sait, il est difficile de faire réfléchir l’élève hors des lieux communs condamnés.
4. L’ENSEIGNEMENT DU VVE ET L’EP PAR L’HISTOIRE ET LES SCIENCES DE LA SOCIÉTÉ


D’aucuns pensent toutefois que les savoirs scolaires, supposés scientifiques, permettraient de dépasser stéréotypes, préjugés et pressions. Les résultats des sciences, transposés pour l’école, seraient garants d’universalité et d’esprit critique (Tutiaux-Guillon, 2008). C’est dans cette lignée que se situent les travaux de L. Kohlberg (M. Hassani Idrissi, 2007) qui établissent que la progression dans l’échelle des valeurs et les principes du développement des facultés morales reposent largement sur le développement des aptitudes intellectuelles : les préjugés et les incompréhensions s’expliquent souvent par des défauts de maturité intellectuelle. Cependant, ceci ne remet pas en cause le fait que les « entrepreneurs identitaires » se recrutent justement dans la frange la plus éduquée de la société : c’est par eux que tout arrive. On l’a vu dans le cas de la RDC pendant la Conférence Nationale Souveraine (CNS 1991-1992), où ce sont des professeurs d’université qui ont dénaturé la notion de « géopolitique », la réduisant à une simple arithmétique de représentation des délégués au prorata de la dimension et du poids démographique de chaque région.

Tout en reconnaissant donc le rôle de premier plan joué par l’école pour sensibiliser les jeunes à leur rôle de citoyen et favoriser leur insertion dans une société démocratique, on ne peut tout de même pas s’empêcher de se demander, à la suite de Duhamel (V. Karwera, 2012) si cette école est capable de « bien refaire ce que la société elle-même défait » : un rapport de l’UNESCO note par exemple que « les processus d’enseignement – apprentissage soutenus par les manuels et autres outils ne peuvent être dissociés de l’environnement socio-culturel. Par exemple, l’exposition à la violence dans la vie réelle ou à travers les médias peut facilement contrarier les intentions des enseignants et des manuels. Les effets potentiellement positifs des programmes scolaires et des manuels peuvent être annihilés par des environnements qui font obstacle à la promotion d’une culture de la paix, de la compréhension mutuelle, du respect et de la coopération (Georgescu & Bernard, 2007) ».

Ici, nous partons de l’observation pertinente de A.M. Thièsse (M. Neagu, 2012) pour qui « le sentiment national n’est spontané que lorsqu’il a été parfaitement intériorisé ; il faut préalablement l’avoir enseigné ». Ndaywel, à la suite de Mudimbe qui avait tenté de « conceptualiser certains processus d’« invention » d’un soi collectif » Congolais (Elikia, 2017), peut également parler de « L’invention du Congo contemporain » (2017)... Reste cependant à enseigner ce Congo inventé...

de la RDC dans leur ancienne configuration. Il est vrai qu’il ne suggère pas expressément l’insertion de cette histoire plurielle dans les programmes scolaires…

Pour sa part, tout au long de sa longue carrière au service de l’enseignement national, Ekwa Bis Isal (Faïk-Nzuji, 2013), n’a cessé de souligner « l’importance d’enraciner l’éducation scolaire dans les cultures identitaires dès la prime jeunesse, convaincu que toute éducation scolaire non enracinée demeurera superficielle, voire marginale ». Voilà pourquoi, pense Faïk-Nzuji, « la connaissance de [ces] cultures […] figurerait en priorité parmi les programmes de rénovation de l’enseignement ».

Il faut à ce stade de la réflexion, noter avec intérêt l’appel de M. Ndjondjo Ndjulak’asha (2017) « aux Ministres qui ont en charge l’enseignement [qui] doivent prendre des arrêtés intégrant la diversité tribale dans les programmes d’enseignement qui devront souligner les valeurs et les richesses culturelles présentes dans chaque tribu. Ces publications couronnant les études diligentes par ces ministères doivent être attendues en vue de l’apprentissage. Une telle connaissance mutuelle peut avoir le mérite de juguler les préjugés véhiculés par les défenseurs de la division ».

S’il faut reconnaître que le rôle de l’école dans la construction identitaire nationale est incontestable, la vraie question dans cette recherche est de savoir ce que fait ou doit faire l’école en RDC et si elle en a les moyens. Il s’agit en effet d’apprécier ou de déterminer la contribution du système d’enseignement (par l’histoire et les sciences de la société) à l’élimination des stéréotypes et clichés, éléments contributifs à la stigmatisation. Il est évident qu’ici, le type de citoyen à former prend une importance cruciale. Ceci ne peut se faire que par l’analyse des contenus scolaires, selon la grille proposée dans les différentes études, notamment celles commandées par l’UNESCO, et dont certaines ont été citées ici.

Le défi est immense en RDC dans la mesure où les dirigeants politiques eux-mêmes se « recroquevillent » dans le cadre de leur ethnie : tel se découvre « subitement » des origines liées à un groupe « ethnique », tel autre, occupant des charges d’Etat ne parle qu’avec les ressortissants de « sa » province. Tel autre enfin se fait « introniser » chef des « Ana », « Bena » ou « Bakwa » ceci ou cela… Que peut-on dès lors attendre de tels dirigeants dans le cadre de la construction nationale ? Mwayila Tshiyembe (2007), ne s’y trompe pas lorsqu’il affirme qu’il y a une « mise en cause du vouloir-vivre ensemble, une crise de sens et de devoir ». C’est cela qui amène certains, comme Katembo (2005) qui, parlant de la crise dans la région des Grands Lacs, a affirmé qu’il existe un problème ethnique au Zaïre » (sic).

Dans sa thèse en effet, F. Muhimpundu (2000), a cherché à savoir si une éducation à la citoyenneté aurait pu remédier aux conflits qui ont affecté le Rwanda en 1994 et si elle pourrait en prévenir la réactivation. La recherche de F. Muhimpundu avait pour but de chercher des stratégies à proposer aux concepteurs du système éducatif rwandais et qui pourraient lui permettre de jouer sa fonction de changement social, en instituant les valeurs traditionnelles positives. Elle s’est demandée pourquoi l’éducation, considérée comme moteur du changement social, n’a pas permis d’éviter la catastrophe humaine de 1994 et ce drame humain chez des concitoyens.

Cette même thématique a été développée quelques années plus tard par J. D. Gasanabo (2004), E. Mutabazi (2010, 2012, 2013) qui ont cherché à « scruter » la responsabilité de l’enseignement de l’histoire dans le drame rwandais, à la lumière de la décision prise par le gouvernement rwandais de supprimer l’histoire dans les programmes scolaires. Les autorités ont reproché aux manuels scolaires d’histoire d’avoir participé et joué un rôle dans la transmission des idéologies qui ont divisé la population rwandaise, et se sont efforcées de justifier une politique discriminatoire, en se demandant « en quoi les manuels scolaires
d’histoire ont contribué à l’échec du vivre-ensemble au Rwanda », et si « l’enseignement de l’histoire avant le génocide avait contribué à la souffrance à l’école au Rwanda ».


Dans cette perspective, l’histoire est un terrain fertile pour équiper les élèves des outils mentaux et des attitudes propices à la résolution rationnelle des problèmes sociaux. Dans sa thèse sur « La transposition didactique du concept de citoyenneté à travers des pratiques d’enseignement de l’histoire au secondaire », V. Karwera (2012), à la suite de Weinstock, note que « des citoyens ayant été formés tôt à dialoguer avec des concitoyens très différents sur le plan des valeurs et des pratiques peuvent espérer intérioriser les dispositions affectives et psychologiques requises ».

Ainsi, aux trois piliers traditionnels de l’éducation (savoir, savoir-faire et savoir-être), il faut ajouter un quatrième : le savoir-vivre-ensemble. Ce dernier volet s’impose, puisque les États nationaux constatent que les élèves doivent acquérir et développer des connaissances, des habiletés ainsi que des attitudes leur permettant de maîtriser leur environnement et de s’intégrer dans un contexte sociétal en mutation en tant qu’« êtres créatifs et citoyennes et citoyens responsables ».

Comment donc, dans le cadre d’une éducation citoyenne, l’enseignement de l’histoire peut aider l’élève à se défaire des stéréotypes, clichés et autres manipulations qui entourent ces questions en RDC ? Il est en effet admis que le curricula en général « a toujours été perçu par les politiciens comme une voie royale de manipulation des consciences », ainsi que le note Dakmara Georgescu dans une étude sur les manuels scolaires commandée par l’UNESCO (2008).


Il existe en République Démocratique du Congo, des populations qui elles, sont réellement « marginalisées », méprisées, « minoritaires », même en voie de disparition : c’est le cas, on

5. LES LIMITES DE L’ÉCOLE DANS LA PROMOTION DU VVE ET DE L’EP: LES PESANTEURS SOCIÉTALES


Cependant, ceci ne remet pas en cause le fait que les « entrepreneurs identitaires » se recrutent justement dans la frange la plus éduquée de la société, ainsi que je l’ai souligné plus haut : c’est par eux que tout arrive : « le négationniste le plus retors est l’universitaire. [Il] est le meilleur recours des gouvernements qui font appel à lui pour organiser leur discours et lui donner l’apparence de la vérité ». Ce sont des « intellectuels idéologues [qui] incitent, souvent à [leur] insu, à la destruction des groupes humains. Là ils manipulent les faits, escamotent la vérité et assassinent la mémoire (Y. Ternon, 1999). On l’a vu dans le cas de la RDC pendant la CNS où ce sont des professeurs d’université qui ont dénaturé la notion de « géopolitique », la réduisant à une simple arithmétique de représentation des délégués au prorata de la dimension et du poids démographique de chaque région.

Tout en reconnaissant le rôle de premier plan joué par l’école pour sensibiliser les jeunes à leur rôle de citoyen et favoriser leur insertion dans une société démocratique, on ne peut tout de même pas s’empêcher de se demander, à la suite de Duhamel (V. Karwera, 2012) si cette école est capable de « bien refaire ce que la société elle-même défait » : un rapport de l’UNESCO note par exemple que « les processus d’enseignement – apprentissage soutenus par les manuels et autres outils ne peuvent être dissociés de l’environnement socio-culturel. Par exemple, l’exposition à la violence dans la vie réelle ou à travers les médias peut facilement contrarier les intentions des enseignants et des manuels. Les effets potentiellement positifs des programmes scolaires et des manuels peuvent être annihilés par des environnements qui font obstacle à la promotion d’une culture de la paix, de la compréhension mutuelle, du respect et de la coopération (Georgescu & Bernard, 2007) ».

La tâche est somme toute herculéenne ; mais il faut dire, à la suite de I. Taboada-Leonetti (2000), dans une lecture de l’ouvrage d’A. M. Thiesse que « Les catégories raciales et le racisme, les définitions sociales sexuelles (…), les nations et les nationalismes porteurs d’exclusion et de violence ne sont pas des conséquences de caractères inhérents à la nature humaine : ils ont une histoire, une origine, et donc une fin probable. Cette vision du social traduit une grande confiance dans les capacités humaines à transformer et à améliorer le monde, (…) il ne dépendrait donc que des individus, de chacun de nous, d’écrire l’histoire autrement » ?
CONCLUSION
Il a été observé une insuffisance de l’intégration de cette problématique dans l’enseignement secondaire et les pratiques pédagogiques et même dans les institutions de formation des enseignants. En effet, si dans certaines filières comme la psychologie et les sciences de l’éducation, des cours portant spécifiquement sur la culture et l’éducation à la paix ont été introduits dans le « Pacte de Modernisation de l’Enseignement Enseignement Supérieur et Universitaire » (PADEM 2004), il s’observe par contre qu’au niveau des Instituts Supérieurs Pédagogiques (ISP), seul le cours d’éducation à la citoyenneté, du reste généralisé dans toutes les filières, apparaît pour les thèmes abordés dans cette contribution. Ceci n’a pas permis la mise en place de la filière « éducation à la paix » (Nfudiko & Langer, 2017). La proposition que nous faisons pour les ISP dans cette contribution devrait donc prendre appui sur ce qui se fait dans certaines filières des universités congolaises (Voir PADEM, 2004). C’est le cas de la Faculté des Lettres et civilisations congolaises, des sciences historiques, d’« Éducation à la Paix » (Faculté de Psychologie et des sciences de l’éducation).

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THE ROLE OF PEACE AND CONFLICT RESOLUTION STUDIES IN PRODUCING RESPONSIBLE YOUTH LEADERSHIP FOR NATION BUILDING: IMPLICATION FOR SOCIAL STUDIES EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT
The absence of peace mutilates a nation’s identity, pride and future most especially when it has to do with the involvement of the youths that are expected to be future leaders. The mental and creative vitalities of these youths are wrongly sidetracked from getting involved in useful and constructive activities that can grant them total development. A nation’s systems of governance, strong attachment to ethnic and religious sentiments and wrong indoctrination consistently create lasting damages to the attitudes of the youth. Be that as it may, hope could be found in the introduction of a General Studies’ course (in the Nigerian Universities) titled Peace and Conflict Resolution Studies. The course generally exposes students to the values of peace and better ways of managing their grievances within and outside the Universities’ campuses. A better knowledge of all these put together will help produce responsible and effective leaders and leadership. This paper is vested with the responsibility of examining the true nature of conflict and peace education and the consequences of conflict on students and the nation as a whole. It will also identify the various ways in which the introduction of this area of study can help produce responsible leaders for the purpose of nation building. The implication of this work on Social Studies Education shall equally be highlighted in the course of this investigation.

Keywords: Conflict, Nation building, Peace education & Responsible Leadership.

INTRODUCTION
The occurrence of conflict the world over is normal. It is often particularly pervasive in urban schools and the society at large as a result of their large size, available but, limited resources, and greatly diverse populations [Morton]. In addition, communication technology also brings distant events closer on daily basis thereby, making the youth have better access to viewing and developing ideas leading to conflict [Goldberg]. According to Morton [1991]

To cope with the institutional problems created by conflict, and to help students better, peace and conflict resolution studies has
recently been legitimized as a valid topic of discussion and study at all levels of education today. There are now thousands of school-based programs in the nation that students are learning new ways of fighting, listening to the other person's viewpoints and discussing their differences until a compromise can be worked out.

Conflicts abound in every society and mechanisms of various kinds are being initiated by concerned bodies all over to curb the height of menace in the universities’ campuses in particular and the society at large. The Nigerian government is no exception to this. The rate of violent uprisings and crime has increased dramatically over the last few years. These are attributable to rise in terrorism, political agitation, and ethnic discrimination. Misunderstandings weigh in on every religious, racial, and social differences leading to violence. Children and students are often more easily manipulated because of their psychological and physical immaturity. [www.creducation.org/cre/global_cre/global_cre_faq].

In view of these discussions, governments worldwide are trying to intervene by introducing peace education in the curricula of educational institutions. The Association for Conflict Resolution suggests that conflict resolution education should be taught in culturally meaningful ways, a variety of processes, practices and skills that help address individual, interpersonal, and institutional conflicts, and create safe and welcoming communities (www.upeace.org/.../index.cfm). This is not outside what the Nigerian Universities Commission [NUC] had designed for its students under the General Studies units of universities. It has been christened Peace and Conflict Resolution Studies [PCRS]. In view of this, some universities have it enshrined in their already existing courses under General Studies and departmental courses.

This attempt has turned out graduates from various disciplines since its inception in 2006/2007. According to its projection and as contained in the syllabus, Peace and Conflict Resolution Studies in the Nigerian universities will help produce youths that will promote peace building initiatives which at the end of the day will add vibrancy and creativity to peace building efforts. Believing that youths have creative energy and active potential for the transformation of violent conflict in the world and believing that education is a spice for nurturing cultures of peace or cultures of war.

In line with the general objectives of Social Studies education, learning process as it involves man occurs both inside and outside the classroom. In the actual sense, the community is perceived to be the laboratory for learning. Therefore, life on campus incorporates involvement in both formal and informal activities that will help foster all-round personal development, responsible citizenship, commitment to the promotion of social justice and peaceful coexistence. What this portends therefore, is that, for a nation like Nigeria to be fully equipped with responsible, efficient and effective leaders, developing students along the line of being transformed (attitude-wise) by the application of every available resource, this area of study is paramount. There is the need to incorporate the contents of peace and conflict resolution studies in addition to the objectives of social studies education in the walk/work towards producing such leaders that will help to move the nation forward knowing that, ‘nation building is the product of conscious statecraft, not happenstance’ [Gambari, 2008].
Conflict- this concept is surrounded by diverse definitions. It is a situation whereby, aspirations, interests, values, ideologies and goals appear to be unharmonious with one another. In confirming this, Otite and Albert (2001: 1-2) in Lamle (2015: 3), state that, conflict is ‘opposition among social entities directed against one another.’ It is a frequent occurrence that is expected to address issues of life. In line with this, is the opinion of Albert [2000] where he states that, there is nothing wrong with conflict; it is a natural and inevitable human experience. It is a critical mechanism by which goals and aspirations of individuals and groups are articulated; it is a channel for the definition of creative solutions to human problems and a means to the development of a collective identity. In furtherance to expressing the importance of conflict in human lives, is that given by Augsburger (1992:62) in Lamle (2015: 2);

Conflict, to choose a simile, is like sex. Victorians saw sex as something one must tolerate, not enjoy. Like sex, conflict should happen between persons committed to continuity, occur with appropriate frequency, be mutually exciting, activate both parties equally to contribute their best selves, and to be prolonged until mutually satisfactory climax is possible for each. When it is over, both should feel better as a result. And its energy should empower other areas of life with vitality and creativity. Like sex, conflict is a source of joy, fulfillment, empowerment and celebration.

Conflict situation bearing all the characteristics described above can only occur when the right approach to managing conflict situations is applied. Adopting a destructive approach towards addressing oppositions, most time, end up with half-baked outcome/response. After a while, such conflict scene will be revisited but this is absent in the case where constructive approach is adopted because, most time, the response/outcome satisfies the intricate needs of the parties and it is long lasting.

Conflict resolution- this is the application of constructive approach to managing conflicts of all kinds. According to Conflict Resolution Education Connection, people around the globe have started embracing conflict resolution as a key component of a quality education. There are major themes of conflict resolution program as stated by ZinoxCard [2015]. According to this organization, the themes are those of active listening, where participants summarize what each has said to ensure accurate comprehension; there is also that of cooperation between disputants; acceptance of each other's differences; and creative joint problem-solving, which takes into account each disputant's position. The program lays emphasis on learning from experience and expects teachers to serve as facilitators and coaches. The program also indicates that, through role-playing and a variety of team projects, students are to learn how to deal with anger and how to work with others to arrive at win-win solutions. Schools with mediation programs use students as mediators so they can learn from experience how conflicts can be resolved peacefully.

Peace Education- the concept of peace education stresses the acquisition of positive attitude, values and knowledge that can promote a harmonious human coexistence. It is an interdisciplinary area of study that has its focus on equipping students (in this case) with the skills on how to manage incompatible and divergent interests. According to Best (2006), this is a practice which aims to confront and resist violence in its totality and to transform societies toward cultures of peace. It focuses both on education about peace and education for peace while addressing the knowledge, values, skills and behaviors needed to nurture a peace culture.
Education in all its ramifications can produce a well-rounded person that can fit in anywhere around the world to affect the society with positive ways of promoting a successful and peaceful coexistence. In like manner, UNESCO (1994) states that, since wars begin in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that the defenses of peace must be constituted. It is Peace Education that inculcates and builds love, friendship and international understanding. There is need to teach the young minds valuable contributions towards a peaceful society. A society which upholds the values of equality, solidarity, freedom, democratic inclination, tolerance, care and respect for others and willingness to change (Goldberg 1991).

**Responsible leadership**- leadership in its self is a process of social influence, which maximizes the efforts of others, towards the achievement of a goal (Kruse, 2013). Responsible leadership, therefore, entails the development of leaders and situations that will help bring about the transformation of the nation (in this case). This implies that such leaders will promote a sense of willingness to delegate tasks and responsibilities, honesty, setting goals, self-awareness, power of communication, confidence, resilience, commitment, creativity, positive attitude, spiritual sensitivity, patriotic, show of equity and others.

**Nation building**- this is an ongoing process that every nation must undergo towards satisfying the needs of its people and sustaining development. A nation undergoing such process will display a sense of transparency in its dealings, alleviate the sufferings of the people, promote effective maintenance culture and national consciousness, eradication of every form of injustices and discrimination and others. Nations building according to Gambari [2008], is about building a political entity which corresponds to a given territory, based on some generally accepted rules, norms, and principles and common citizenship.

**THE NATURE OF CONFLICT IN THE SOCIETY**
The word, conflict, when heard or witnessed, is a stimulus for fear of chaos, anxiety, tension, destruction, disruption, disorganization, shock, violence, unexpected life-threatening triggers and others. What conflict situations create on the minds of those directly or indirectly involved is that conflict should be totally avoided. In contrast to this, Ross [1993] in Albert, [2000] opines that, if disadvantaged aged groups and individuals refuse to consider open conflict, they deny themselves what sometimes is their most effective means for bringing about needed change. What this implies is that, conflict, is very needful [if the approach is well channeled] if challenges of life are to be addressed. Being able to manage it successfully incites and sustains the ability to think critically and creatively.

Conflict, when generally defined, is conceived to be a situation whereby, different parties (people) are engaged in a friction to defining their interests and goals which are at divergence. Mitchell [2006], in a holistic manner, makes a distinction between two elements of conflict. According to him:

Conflicts can be seen as possessing objective and subjective elements. By objective is meant the basis for the conflict situation in terms of competition for resources or positions e.g. positions of power or control, land, oil, budgets, etc. The subjective elements are those attitudes and perceptions which may have a role in determining the course of the conflict and are in turn affected by behavior in the course of the conflict. For example, feelings about and perceptions (or misperceptions) of the opponent or other conflict party. Conflicts are most often a
One of the constituents of conflict is that, it is not static. It is dynamic by nature. One stage giving birth to another stage when not constructively managed. There are pre-conflict stage/ conflict stage/ escalation stage/ and de-escalation stage which eventually can breed the stage of post conflict stage (the period of reconstruction, rehabilitation, reconciliation and demilitarization). The interesting thing being that each stage comes with its peculiar ways of being managed.

Values, whether ideological, moral, religious or other, also play a role or more in conflict situations. According to Albert [2000], where there is a value-based conflict it is likely to be much more difficult to resolve as values are part of the core identity of the person and are not to be bargained away in a negotiation process. It is also important to try to understand the fears of the conflict parties which may be fuelling the conflict or forming an insuperable barrier to resolution and seek to respond to them in the search for solutions. Besides this, is the resource-based conflict. This covers the areas of land space, fishing space, farmland, money, and others. Conflict centered on any of these is easily managed. They are tangible (able to be seen and felt) and can be moved about to suit the occasion.

In some situations, conflict is latent. In other words, it has not yet come to the surface or it has not been recognized yet. The identification and acknowledgement of conflict is the first step in handling it. An analysis of the conflict including the conflict situation, identification of the parties to the conflict, the issues involved at the level of positions and needs and the development of the conflict so far should be undertaken [Albert, 2000].

Conflicts occur in different forms and those of Nigerian Universities’ campuses over the years, usually come in the forms of conflicts among students, conflict between the management and the students, conflict between students and lecturers and conflict between students and host communities. The incessant campus demonstrations and riots dating from 1957 at the University College Ibadan [now University of Ibadan] till date can obviously prove the number of loses recorded in every of these events. According to Ojo [1995]… students’ unrests have become more and more violent with the emergence, lately, of cults to aggravate the already tense atmosphere.

The aftermath of students’ involvement in unruly behaviour within and outside the university campuses is destructive and in all, a high sense of nonconformity to the rule of law governing the land is established amongst them. Most worrisome being that, such behaviour can equally be transported to the larger society where these students may stand to become leaders.

PEACE AND CONFLICT RESOLUTION STUDIES’ CURRICULUM AND ITS TEACHING

According to existing record, the curriculum of this programme entails the inculcation of core values of alternatives to violence, respect for fundamental human rights, issues regarding to conflicts both locally and internationally, sensitivity to the environment and attainment of social justice. All of these rightly fit into the objectives of the 1999 Global Campaign for Peace Education of the Hague Appeal for Peace and UNESCO [2001-2010], International Decade for a Culture of Peace and Non-Violence for Children of the World [xa.yimg.com/./Nigeria]. The curriculum expects a total integration of peace and conflict concepts, principles and strategies. All of these are to be reflected in all aspects of the methodology (student-friendly) adopted for the teaching of the course. It is a multidisciplinary course and cuts across every discipline and the administration of schools. [Alimba, 2009]. This, according to her; is so because, Peace
Education is not just about adding topics or themes to the curriculum but about mind transformation through the acquisition of appropriate skills, values and attitudes which will empower the learner to seek and maintain peace wherever he finds himself. The teaching of peace education to the younger people, particularly the youths, is an invaluable decision. It will go a long way in equipping the youths with knowledge and skills that would help bring about peace through better understanding. The youths, as future leaders, should be well informed about themselves, their immediate and outside environment.

The 21st century technological advancement calls for unceasing review of the education curricula. This is in view of making it more approachable and relevant as it is expected of every existing curriculum. In the Nigerian situation, the institutionalization of the programme in the nations’ universities’ curriculum by the NUC is timely since universities are equipped with the responsibility of being agents of peace. According to the then Secretary General, Okebukola Peter [at the workshop organized for this reason at Benin in 2005], the need for the course was necessitated by the diversity of Nigeria and the inevitability of justice for peace.

Through the efforts of University for Peace [UPEACE] and NUC, the development of the course and the materials meant for the programme [An Introduction to Peace and Conflict Studies in West Africa] were made possible. The specific objectives of GST 222 [as it was christened] and according to NUC include;

i. To create awareness on issues concerning peace and conflict both locally and internationally;  

ii. To understand the nature of conflict and related issues of social justice, human rights and development; and

iii. To promote a better understanding of the conditions for peaceful change.

THE COMPONENTS OF PEACE AND CONFLICT RESOLUTION STUDIES
Components of Peace and Conflict Resolution Studies basically cover the most essential part of the content of the programme. These are those aspects that make up the expectations of the programme and therefore are paramount in the successful implementation of the programme. They come in the forms of principles/values and strategies. The principles and values are viewed under the following variables – nonviolence, tolerance, respect, patience, compassion, justice, cooperation, sharing, love and democratic skills while the variables under strategies come as- peacemaking, peacekeeping and peace building which will eventually pass through the processes of negotiation, mediation, conciliation and facilitation. What these imply, according to Morris and Harris [2003] is that, teachers should design appropriate scenarios for students to learn the need for peace as well as the strategies for peace. The practice of these strategies will further help learners internalize the objectives, values and principles in peace education. This further explains the reasons why importance should be attached to the application of the methodology as proposed by NUC in the teaching of the course in the universities. The non-application of these components will not only create problems for the initiators and their set goals, but also to the students who at the end of the day, will fail to promote a peaceful coexistence in their relationship with people.

To further buttress this point, United Nations [2004], in Morris and Harris [2003], states that, lessons should be geared towards building of positive attitudes, values and behavior of constructive living within the community. Through this practice, students can get better
acquainted with what this area of study expects of them which is, attaining the position of responsible and effective citizens of Nigeria.

**PRODUCTION OF RESPONSIBLE YOUTH LEADERSHIP FOR NATION BUILDING.**

The Eight Programme Action of the United Nations General Assembly shall be made reference to in handling this part of the paper for it undoubtedly, aligns with the objectives of peace and conflict resolution studies in the Nigerian universities. These actions [as mandated by UN], if strictly adhered to by the relevant authorities in the Nigerian universities, would have being on the path of producing truly responsible and effective leaders. According to the United Nations Assembly and as contained in Alimba [2005] and United Nations culture of peace, the following should be considered in the promotion of peace.

i. **Culture of peace through education:** in other to sustain the culture of peace through education, the UN mandated there should be ways of enabling people resolve conflicts peacefully. According to them, relevant bodies should take up the responsibility of ensuring that the sense of right attitude/values/good behavior is inculcated into the children at early age. This move will help the children develop the spirit for human dignity, tolerance and better ways of managing grievances.

ii. **Sustainable economic and social development:** this implies the eradication of every form of hindrances that could undermine the socio-economic development of the nation for no form of development thrives in the midst of conflict situations. Building a nation that is devoid of consistent chaos starts from the point of equipping the youth with the right kind of economic and social skills that will help curb [if not eradicate] poverty, for this is obviously one of the many reasons why people engage in destructive conflicts.

iii. **Equality between men and women:** this area of study will enable the youth appreciate and cultivate the idea of promoting a sense of equity in all they are engaged in. A call for this by the UN will help the students understand the need to support women who happen to be victims of violence at home, market, religious worship centers and at their places of work. A society that does not promote equity in gender roles is not being fair to its people for these same people, when not included in the affairs of a nation; develop a sense of bitterness, withdrawal and lack of confidence in themselves and their government. They may be the solution to the challenges the nation may be encountering.

iv. **Respect for all human rights:** this entails the promotion of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights at all levels (the university education inclusive). Respecting the rights of human beings is a show of social justice which the programme also professes. A sense of satisfaction, fulfillment, confidence and happiness is established when people are made to enjoy what befits them as human beings. With this in place, some of the challenges students face in implementing the components of this course will not be here.

v. **Democratic participation:** developing this sense in students will help to equip them with the ability to work towards mapping out ways of strengthening established socio-economic and political institutions that can aid the sustenance of democracy.
According to the United Nations Assembly and as contained in Alimba [2005] and United Nations culture of peace, helping to sustain democracy can be done through capacity building of public officials. Secondly, it indicates that, the act of terrorism, organized crime, corruption, illicit drug trafficking and consumption and money laundering can weaken a democratic process and at the same time, disrupt the promotion of the culture of peace. Therefore, with the introduction of this course, the youths are fully equipped with a sense of promoting a peaceful coexistence through the maintenance of positive democratic values.

vi. **Participatory communication and the free flow of information and knowledge:** The use of the internet and other available technologies could be used for the promotion of peace among the people. This is achievable in the lives of these students if the mandate of NUC [as regard the objectives of this area of study] which includes the use of CDs, DVD, and other sources of information dissemination are applied. Their one-on-one contact with pictures from conflict scenes will leave a lasting impression on their minds and help keep them away from starting or engaging in one.

vii. **International peace and security:** According to this declaration, there is the need to ensure that the military, political and economic and other forces work in consonance with the international standard. Peace and conflict resolution programme in the Nigerian universities is mandated with this authority to walk students along the line of adopting positive values that can promote a peaceful coexistence both within and outside Nigeria.

viii. **Advance understanding/tolerance/solidarity:** this calls for the support of actions that will promote tolerance and solidarity among the people of a nation. All these equally form part of the values this programme advocates for. The inculcation of such values on the minds of the upcoming leaders will help shun the sense of ethnicity and social injustices that already exist among some of them.

A sense of nonconformity to an ideal way of doing things within any given environment and system would not promote nation building of any kind. There is the utmost need to consider all the options raised above [by relevant authorities] if the development of responsible and effective leaders and leadership is truly needed. The inculcation of acceptable attitude and values can undoubtedly produce people with acceptable behavior that can affect the structures of the nation positively and the content of peace and conflict resolution studies as practiced in the Nigerian universities at present, can realize this. In line with this, is the formula for a great nation as given by Chakravarthi (2011). According to him;

Good student-virtuous society-great nation. A good student forms a virtuous society means which is graft-less, politically balanced, economically standard and stands on moral grounds. The nation with integrity stands forever…the students are prospective heirs of a nation. So, they should be well equipped with sound moral, political and economic views.

**IMPLICATION FOR SOCIAL STUDIES EDUCATION**

Social Studies Education as a course is multidisciplinary in nature. It draws its subject matter from a variety of social sciences, physical/natural sciences and humanities. The content of Social Studies is drawn from sociology, economics, political science, anthropology, psychology, archaeology, literature, arts, music, religion, demography, linguistics,
communications (Kochhar, 2006). In addition to these are those drawn from physical and natural sciences. All of these give meaning to Peace and Conflict Resolution Studies in one way or the other.

Just like Social Studies Education, Peace and Conflict Resolution Studies, as a broad concept, is primarily concerned with the study of human beings and their relationships in relation to their physical and socio-cultural environment. Both areas of discipline attempt to inculcate in the students the requisite attitude and aptitude needed to make informed decisions about their life unaided and also learn, explore, utilize and deal with the challenges facing the society.

In another vein, Forrester in Kochhar (2006) views social studies as that which aims at promoting critical thinking, encouraging a readiness for social change, at creating a disposition for acting on behalf of the general welfare, an appreciation of other cultures and a realization of other culture. The definitions above view Social Studies education in relation to Peace Education, as that area of study which focuses on enabling people identify and acquire the necessary skills needed in managing and bringing about solutions to human problems irrespective of their socio-economic and political divides.

It is a common knowledge that the world over today, is being plagued by social vices or evils like excessive profiteering, internet crime, embezzlement, kidnapping, ritualism, arm struggles and others by the youths. Social studies can help greatly to educate the youths on the importance of peace and security in our nations. In addition, Social studies as a discipline, if properly programmed and effectively taught, should help to solve social problems that are facing some developing nations [like Nigeria] where the traditional norms are fast losing their grips and no effective substitutes to replace them.

CONCLUSION
A peaceful society basically cuts across people’s socio-economic and political needs being met for these are the prerequisites that can stimulate better behavior in the long run. Everyone must be trained for peace. There is need to create positive attitude towards peace in young minds for the display of a positive behavior at one point, will obviously trickle down to affecting every sector of the nation in one way or the other.

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PARENTING STYLES AS CORRELATE OF TEMPERAMENT EXHIBITION AMONG UNDER-8 CHILDREN IN IJEBU-ODE, NIGERIA

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ABSTRACT
Several glitches in parenting in the 21st century has become a matter of concern to all stakeholders most especially those whose direct operation has to do with the early years of a child. While most of our dailies and social media broadcasts have confirmed an increased prevalence of wrong parenting styles employed by parents, not much is known about the relationship between the kind of temperament children exhibit and the various parenting styles that exists. This study, therefore, examined the relationship between parenting styles and temperament exhibition among Under-8 children in Ijebu-ode Local Government Area, Ogun State, Nigeria. A correcional survey research of the descriptive type was adopted. Two questionnaires: “Guardian-Directed Parenting Style Questionnaire (GDPSQ)” and “Child Temperament Questionnaire (CTQ)” were used. Data collected was analyzed using Pearson product moment correlation coefficient to determine whether a relationship existed between the independent variable and dependent variable. Simultaneous Multiple Regression Analysis was used to test the composite contribution and relative contribution between the parenting style types and the dependent variable. Authoritative and uninvolved parenting styles were found to have the highest contributions ($\beta = 0.644$ and $0.569$ respectively) to child’s temperament. Parenting education that teaches positive parenting styles should be initiated in order to foster apposite temperament in the developmental years of the child.

Keywords: Child Temperament, Parenting styles, & Punishment.

INTRODUCTION
Throughout human history, people have lived in small, close-knit communities, but today not all parents have relatives nearby to support them and give guidance in child upbringing. In some ways knowing how to make good and wise decisions about parenting are intuitive, but sometimes the stresses and mixed messages of the world can make it difficult. Therefore, there is the need to take every opportunity to learn more about what it takes to parent effectively.

Being a parent is probably the most important job any individual can do in life. To parent positively there is a need to understand what it takes to do the job well. The more understanding
about a child’s development and needs one has the more awareness of what it takes to create a healthy environment for children to thrive.

Parents often express amazement at how two children from the same family, within the same home are so different. In the same way, parents vary in their own temperaments, their life experiences and their values on which they base how they parent their children. Most started from the basis of the parenting style being experienced from individual parent.

**Parenting style**
This is a concept that grew out of the work of Diana Baumrind, and other researchers in child development. Parenting style means the type of behaviour that is being used when interacting with your child. Many people are now trying to develop an approach to parenting that combines the most helpful aspects of these different approaches. The combination of parental control with parental responsiveness is known as ‘parenting style’. Research on parenting styles represents the main approach to the study of parent effects on children’s development.

Further work that has been influential in understanding effective discipline falls within the **parenting styles paradigm**, exemplified by the work of Baumrind (1991) and Maccoby et al (1984). In studies of parenting styles, two dimensions of parenting behaviour have emerged: whether parents are high or low in control or demands, and whether parents are high or low in warmth or responsiveness. Depending on where parents lie along these dimensions, they can be categorized as:

**Authoritative parents**
They are warm and communicate well with their children. At the same time, they retain their authority, stay in control and expect mature behavior from their children. They respect their youngsters’ independence and decisions, but generally hold firm in their own positions, being clear and explicit about their point of view. Researchers found that the best adjusted children, particularly in terms of social competence, had parents with an authoritative parenting style. It is represented by high levels of control and maturity demands, in the context of nurturance and open communication. Discipline usually involves the use of reason and power, but not to the extent that the child’s autonomy is severely restricted.

**Authoritarian parents**
They are highly controlling in their use of authority and rely on punishment. They value obedience as a virtue and do not encourage give-and-take. They do not expect their children to express disagreement with their decisions. Researchers found that the children of authoritarian parents tend to lack social competence, have lower self-esteem and rarely take the initiative in activities. They show less intellectual curiosity, are not spontaneous and usually rely on the voice of authority. It is identified by high levels of control and demands of the child, coupled with low levels of nurturance. Authoritarian parents engage in low levels of communication with their children, rarely explaining why compliance is necessary.

The authoritarian parent expects the child to unquestioningly accept parental judgments and allows the child little freedom of expression. In contrast the authoritative parent permits the child enough freedom of expression so that he or she can develop a sense of independence. Both authoritarian and authoritative parents have high expectations of their children and use control but there’s a difference in their styles.
Permissive parents
These parents are warm and accepting, but mainly concerned about not stifling their child's creativity. They make few demands for mature behavior. The children of permissive parents generally have difficulty controlling their impulses, they are immature and reluctant to accept responsibility. It is characterized by high levels of nurturance and warmth, and low levels of control and maturity demands. This parenting style could be described as an accepting, but lax style of parenting – parents rarely exert control over their children’s behaviour and do not closely monitor their activities.

Uninvolved parents
They demand little and respond minimally. In extreme cases, this parenting style might entail neglect and rejection. It is identified by low control and low responsiveness. This style has often been termed “permissive-neglectful parenting style”.

Studies on the impact of parenting styles have found that authoritative parenting has most commonly been associated with positive outcomes (Teti and Candelaria, 2002). A later development of this approach teased apart parenting practices (content) and parenting style (context) (Steinberg and Silk, 2002). Practices refer to specific parenting behaviours and goals for socialisation (such as slapping a child, requiring children to do their homework, taking an interest in children’s activities). Style, on the other hand, refers to the emotional climate in which parenting practices take place (such as tone of voice, bursts of anger, and displays of empathy). Thus, parenting practices (such as specific disciplinary strategies) can differ according to the style or emotional climate in which the message is transmitted to the child. Steinberg and Silk (2002) argue that parenting styles (such as authoritative, authoritarian) are best understood as a context that moderates the influence of specific parenting practices on the child. For example, the effect of a harsh disciplinary strategy may vary depending on whether it is delivered within the context of a warm or a rejecting relationship between the parent and child.

Children’s Temperament
Differences among children can be seen even at infancy. Children are born with a tendency toward certain moods and styles of reacting to people and events in their lives in specific ways. This preferred style of responding is called temperament. Researchers have delineated three broad styles of temperament:

**Easy children** are calm, happy, and regular in sleeping and eating habits, adaptable, not easily upset.

**Difficult children** are often fussy, irregular in feeding and sleeping habits, fearful of new people and situations, easily upset, high strung, and intense in their reactions.

**Slow to warm up children** are relatively inactive and fussy, tend to withdraw or to react negatively to novelty, but their reactions gradually become more positive with experience.

No matter what the child's temperament, it’s the harmony, or the **goodness of fit**, between mother or caregiver and child that's important. In a circular fashion, the behavior of one influences the responses of the other. The parents or caregivers should observe and identify the needs of the child especially when it has to do with their entire domains (Sulaiman, 2016). However, temperament is not destiny, and family and other life experiences can make a difference.
Parents who are attuned to their child's temperament and who can recognize their child's particular strengths will find life more harmonious. In a new situation, the easy child needs little help in adapting; the slow-to-warm up child does best if not hurried and given time to think about the situation; the difficult child may need advance warning and practice of the appropriate behavior. Think about your own temperamental style and whether it meshes with your child's temperamental style. An active on-the-go parent may have to learn patience in dealing with a slow-to-warm up child. Obviously, neither parents nor children fit neatly into these categories. Most parents use a combination of styles, and most children have elements of different temperamental styles. In both cases, however, one style usually predominates.

A broad and complex array of factors operates to shape and determine parenting styles. Specifically, these factors can be discussed under three broad categories: child characteristics, parent characteristics and contextual factors. Undoubtedly, specific parental discipline responses often occur as a result of the complex interplay of factors across these categories and it is, therefore, a demanding and challenging task to attempt to elucidate the precise nature of such influences.

**Child characteristics**
In contrast to the traditional view of parental attitudes as originating in the parent, over the past decade children’s influence on their parents’ attitudes has been emphasized. Such a concept is noteworthy because it approaches parental attitudes from the ‘child effects’ or ‘two-way effects’ perspective (Bugental and Goodnow, 1998, p. 389). With specific reference to parental attitudes to physical punishment of children, Holden et al (1997) found that 75% of mothers who reported a change in their attitude to physical punishment attributed it to the particular child’s reaction to a discipline strategy or to child characteristics. Parental experiences in the family, therefore, appear to be linked to changes in parental attitudes and behaviours.

A number of studies have examined the influence of child gender on parental use of physical punishment, although findings are somewhat inconsistent. In general, boys have been found to be at greater risk of physical punishment than girls and of it being administered more severely (Dietz, 2000). However, other studies have found no gender differences in parental use of physical punishment (Politis, 2004). Smith et al (2005) reported that severity of physical punishment has also been examined in relation to gender differences.

The age of a child has also been implicated in parental discipline responses, with younger children tending to experience physical punishment more than older children (Dietz, 2000). However, there is also evidence that older children are more likely to be the victims of more severe physical punishment than younger children (Brewer, 2007). Durrant (2005) attributes these age-based influences to children in this age group demonstrating high activity, exploration and independence, together with negativism, impulsivity and a limited understanding of harm and danger – a combination that can lead to a high frequency of disciplinary incidents.

**Parent characteristics**
A wide range of parental characteristics may influence a parent’s use or approval of physical punishment. With regard to gender of parents, findings are inconclusive, with some studies finding no gender differences (Kostelink et al, 2007), while other studies indicate that mothers tend to use physical punishment more than fathers (Anderson et al, 2002). Younger parents have also been found to use higher levels of physical punishment (Dietz, 2000). Parenting values and beliefs have been shown to influence the discipline responses of parents to their
children (Estes, 2004). Parents who believe that parenting positively affects child outcomes are less likely to adopt coercive strategies as a discipline response. Parents, who are depressed, have drug/alcohol problems (Brewer, 2007) or anti-social/hostile personality characteristics are also more likely to use physical punishment with their children. The more frustration, irritation or anger a parent feels in response to conflict with a child, the more likely they are to use coercive discipline strategies, including physical punishment (Ateah and Durrant, 2005).

The intergenerational transmission of parenting practices and attitudes is also likely to be a significant factor in influencing parents’ responses to the discipline of their children. Findings are consistent that parents who were themselves physically punished as children or adolescents have an increased likelihood of physically punishing their own children (McWayne et al, 2004).

In a longitudinal study on the development of attitudes about physical punishment, a temporal link was suggested between children’s experiences of being slapped and their later endorsement of slapping as a discipline strategy (Deater-Deckard et al, 2003). Experience of physical punishment in childhood also predicts approval of this practice and approval has been found to be one of the strongest predictors of the use of physical punishment by parents (Durrant, 2005).

**STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM**
Many parents are unaware of the implications of certain parenting styles on the development of their children which in-turn makes success in all developmental domains including academic and peer success mostly difficult due to the paucities in their social competences. Stories abound in our dailies of various havocs done through ferocious act of parenting which place the child on the side of more victimization than any other member in the family as a social institution. Because it is important that all young children are healthy in all aspects, taking a look at the causes of inappropriate social emotional development is imperative to the future of our children and society.

**SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**
Research has been building to suggest that there is a strong link between young children's socio-emotional competence and their chances of early development. In fact, studies demonstrated that social emotional knowledge has a critical role in improving and correcting children's temperament and lifelong learning. This study would be relevant to the field of knowledge especially parents. The results of the study would be beneficial to parents in the sense that it would provide them with the knowledge of how far their actions could go in determining the socio-emotional state of their children both intra-personally and interpersonally.

**OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY**
This research study was carried out on the following objectives:

a. It examined the existing relationship between parenting style and children’s temperament.

b. It studied the composite contribution of Parenting Style types to children’s temperament.

c. It assessed the relative contribution of Parenting Style types to children’s temperament.

**Research Hypothesis**
*(H01): There is no significant relationship between parenting style and children’s temperament.*
(H02): There is no significant composite contribution of Parenting Style types to children’s temperament.

(H03): There is no significant relative contribution of Parenting Style types to children’s temperament.

METHODOLOGY
The correlational survey research design was carefully chosen for this study. Kerlinger (2000) described survey research as that research which involves large and small populations where samples are selected and studied in order to discover relative incidence, distribution and interrelation of sociological and psychological variables. Parenting style and children’s temperament are existing variables which can’t be manipulated but one can report the relationship just as they exist. The population size of study was primary 1 to primary 3 pupils from selected schools. Six primary schools were randomly selected by selected children and parents of Ijebu Ode Local Government Area. A total of 120 children consisting of 62 females and 58 males with mean age of 8 years were purposively selected alongside their parents respectively. Two questionnaires were designed for the Parents and children of selected schools in Ijebu-Ode Local government respectively. The two questionnaires were named as Guardian-Directed Parenting Style Questionnaire (GDPSQ) and Child-Directed Temperament Questionnaire (CDTQ). However, the questionnaires were administered on a pilot test to determine their reliability which yielded reliability coefficient of 0.72 and 0.64 respectively. The data collected was analysed using Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient to determine whether a relationship existed between the independent variable (Parenting Style) and dependent variable (Child’s Temperament), Simultaneous Multiple Regression Analysis was used to test the composite contribution and relative contribution between the parenting style types and the dependent variable (Childs Temperament).

RESULTS
Test of Hypothesis

Hypothesis one (H01): There is no significant relationship between parenting style and children’s temperament. This hypothesis was tested using Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient and the result is presented in table 1 below.

Table 1: Relationship between Parenting Styles and Children’s Temperament.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. dev.</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>Remark</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parenting Style</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>47.9</td>
<td>5.798</td>
<td>.082</td>
<td>.390</td>
<td>Not Sig</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temperament</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>27.6</td>
<td>3.934</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*P < 0.05

Results of analysis show that the correlation coefficient (r) is not significant at P < .05 (r = .390, P > .05) This implies that the null hypothesis of no significant relationship is rejected indicating a bond of relationship between Parenting Style of Parents and Child’s temperament.
**Hypothesis two (H02):** There is no significant composite contribution of Parenting Style types to students’ temperament. This Hypothesis was tested with Simultaneous Multiple Regression Analysis and the results are presented in the following tables.

### Table 2(a). Model summary of the R, R square and adjusted R square in the Multiple Regression Analysis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R square</th>
<th>Adjusted</th>
<th>SE of the R square</th>
<th>Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>R square</td>
<td>.328b</td>
<td>.308</td>
<td>.074</td>
<td>3.78543</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b. predictors: (constant), Uninvolved Style, Authoritarian Style, Authoritative Style, and Permissive Style.

From the table above, the $R^2$ is .308, which indicates that 30.8 percent of the variance in the dependent variable (temperament) is explained by the independent variables as listed below Table 2a. This means that the four types of Parenting Style collectively influenced temperament to the tune of 30.8%. The remaining unexplained 69.2% could be attributed to the effect of several other variables not investigated by this study. This composite contribution is further interpreted by the ANOVA Summary below.

### Table 2(b) Anova Summary of Significance Level in the Multiple Regression Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Regression</td>
<td>183.181</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>45.795</td>
<td>3.196</td>
<td>.016b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>1518.927</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>14.330</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1702.108</td>
<td>110</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Temperament

b. predictors: (constant), Uninvolved Style, Authoritarian Style, Authoritative Style, and Permissive Style.

Though the $R^2$ is slightly low (Table 4.2a), the Analysis of Variance is very significant at $(0.016, F_{(4,110)} = 3.196, P < 0.05)$. This indicates that there is a statistically significant relationship between the independent variables (Authoritative, Authoritarian, Permissive and Uninvolved) and the dependent variable (temperament). Therefore, it can be assumed that the four types of parenting style could reasonably predict children’s temperament and as a result the null hypothesis is rejected.

**Hypothesis three (H03):** There is no significant relative contribution of Parenting Style types to children’s temperament. This Hypothesis was tested with Simultaneous Multiple Regression Analysis and the results are presented in the following table.
Table 3: The Beta (β) coefficients in the Multiple Regression Analysis showing relative contributions of parenting style types to children’s temperament.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coefficientsa</th>
<th>Unstandardized coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized coefficients</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>SE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>26.012</td>
<td>3.664</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authoritative</td>
<td>.421</td>
<td>.166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authoritarian</td>
<td>-.063</td>
<td>.152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Permissive</td>
<td>-.306</td>
<td>.159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uninvolved</td>
<td>.223</td>
<td>.149</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Achievement levels

From table 3; the Beta (β) weightings of the four predictor variables are given in the standardized coefficient column. The constant is 7.009. Relative to each other, authoritative parenting style has a positive effect on children’s temperament (β = 0.644) and this is statistically significant at (0.013, P < 0.05), authoritarian parenting style has negative effect on children’s temperament (β = -.040) and this is statistically not significant at (0.681, P > 0.05), permissive parenting style has a negative effect on children’s temperament (β = -.209) and this is slightly not significant at (0.057, P > 0.05) and uninvolved parenting style has a positive effect on children’s temperament (β = 0.569) and is significant at (0.136, P > 0.05). From the result presented, it can be observed that it is only the Authoritative Parenting Style that had a statistically significant effect on children’s temperament. Their Beta values represent their relative contributions to children’s temperament. Authoritative Parenting Style made a contribution of 24.4%, Authoritarian Parenting Style made a contribution of -4.0%, Permissive made a contribution of -20.9% while Uninvolved Parenting Style made a contribution of 56.9%. Therefore, authoritative parenting style predicts children’s temperament more than the other three but closely followed by uninvolved parenting style, authoritarian parenting style then lastly by permissive parenting style. Their contributory power is in the order Authoritative Parenting Style (24.4%) > Uninvolved Parenting Style (56.9%) > Authoritarian Parenting Style (-4.0%) > Permissive Parenting Style (-20.9%).

**DISCUSSIONS**

The result of hypothesis one revealed that there is a level of interplay relationship (r = .390) between parenting styles and child’s temperament. This result indicates that these parenting styles are strong determinants of temperaments in children. The list of parenting styles investigated in this study may not however be exhaustive as there are other factors that are not parental but are capable of contributing to the development temperaments in children. The study also showed that 30.8% of the variability in children’s temperament could be explained by variability in these parenting styles investigated. This implies that 30.8% of the ways, manners, types or extent of temperament shown among children in this study is affected by the
variability in authoritative, authoritarian, uninvolved and permissive parenting to which temperaments have been exposed. This was also established by Arendell, (1997) who said that the temperament of the child is in varying dependence of the specific culture and context within which parents are raising their children.

Also, authoritative parenting style from the tested hypothesis was acclaimed to be the most influential of all parenting style types with contributing power (24.4%). Relative to each other, authoritative parenting style has a positive effect on child’s temperament and significant at (0.013, P< 0.005). (Teti and Candelaria, 2002) ascertains that studies on the impact of parenting styles have found that authoritative parenting has most commonly been associated with positive outcomes. This is also in support of the works of Gershoff (2002) who said that authoritative parenting, combining reasonable demands and control within a responsive and accepting environment has been linked with positive child outcomes across a range of domains of functioning such as behavior and social competence.

Authoritarian has negative effect/ influence on child’s temperament not significant at < 0.681. P>0.005) supported by Mulvaney and Mebert (2007) who examined the impact of physical punishments and parental control in young children temperament and aggressive commands on children uniquely contributed to negative behavioural adjustment in children. Supporting this, Gershoff (2002) reported on five studies linking experience of using physical punishment and being a victim of physical abuse in childhood.

In line with the permissive parenting style, the outcomes of the tested hypothesis 3 revealed that permissive parenting style has negative influence on children’s temperament with a contribution of -20.9% and P value = 0.209. This was further backed up by (Govender 2007) that low levels of parental monitoring and high levels of permissiveness are associated with high level of temperament behavior. This also corroborated the word of God in Hebrews 12:9-11(MSG) which claimed that a parent-child training is a normal experience for children and that only irresponsible parents leave their children to fend for themselves.

CONCLUSION
Having established the pivotal relationship between parenting style types and child’s temperament, Parenting style should be increasingly viewed as an interactive parent-child process, rather than solely as a parental action or as “something that parents do to children”. For example, the effectiveness of a disciplinary message depends on the child’s willingness to comply with the demands of the parent. Thus, parenting style needs to be considered to variation in child characteristics.

Parenting is not a one-sided activity; it's a dynamic, interactive situation, and children also have styles or temperaments that in turn affect their parents' styles and elicit different responses.

Most children drew a clear distinction between giving a child a smack or a light tap and giving them a slap causing an injury or leaving a mark. The latter form of punishment was deemed unacceptable by children.

It has in this study so far been observed that through the use of physical punishment, parents model aggressive behaviour for their children and promote biases towards aggression in children’s social relationships. Younger children would list a range of responses to such punishment (sadness, unloved, mad and upset), all conveying negative effects. Other children sometimes make mention that they would feel sore, scared, upset or embarrassed. Children in
the older age group also described negative responses (hurt, sad, mad) and one child described as a form of physical abuse.

RECOMMENDATIONS
Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations were made:

1. That parent must understand their individual style of parenting exerted towards their child.
2. In educating the populace, parenting education that teaches positive parenting styles should be initiated in order to foster exhibition of apposite temperament in the developmental years of the child.
3. That family education should be of great emphasis in such a way that it will put into consideration the benefits of all stake holders of the family not excluding the least child.
4. That power assertion, low withdrawal which are associated with authoritative parenting style should be minimally exercised by the parents.
5. That child's temperaments are subjected to positive outcomes under the exertion of authoritative parenting. Therefore, more emphasis should be placed on the cultivation of such parenting style types.
6. Parents should be brought to the knowledge of varying types of parenting style so as to bring into effect the appropriate measures when exhibiting any.
7. Proper guidance and counseling should be given to the child in cultivation of proper behavioral changes.

REFERENCES


CULTURE DE LA VIOLENCE ET ÉDUCATION À LA NON-VIOLENCE EN AFRIQUE CENTRALE. CAS DE LA RÉPUBLIQUE DÉMOCRATIQUE DU CONGO

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RÉSUMÉ
Dans le débat politique et scientifique de ces dernières années en République Démocratique du Congo, on a signalé de plus en plus qu’il faudrait déployer des efforts plus importants pour réduire le taux de violence et donner un nouveau profil à la politique du pays. Les bouleversements économiques, politiques et sociaux ont depuis longtemps atteint la population et engendré de nouveaux défis politiques. En plus de la « violence », un concept assez global de l’éducation à la « non-violence » s’avère donc nécessaire, celle-ci ayant pour base une idée du rôle et de l’importance de la population pour la société et se référant à des tâches centrales de développement et de santé ainsi qu’à des situations problématiques du groupe de population violée dans son ensemble. Alors que l’homme est à la recherche du bonheur comme le soutient Jean Louvet : « le bonheur, dit-il, c’est la vie quotidienne » (Jean Louvet : 1972, 7), c’est-à-dire celle que chacun, même les ouvriers, est censé mener décemment (Justin Mwamba : 2012, 146). C’est dans ce contexte qu’on ne cesse de dénoncer et revendiquer une politique cohérente et transversale pour éradiquer ce fléau. Cette revendication se concentre sur les déficits conceptuels de base et les limites institutionnelles et stratégiques d’une pratique en politique sur la culture de la violence et éducation à la non-violence en Afrique centrale, le cas précis de la République Démocratique du Congo qui ne répond plus fondamentalement à la complexité des défis actuels.

Mots Clés: Guerre, Instinct, Non-violence & Violence.

0. INTRODUCTION
étude, et donc son contenu. La réponse à toutes ces interpellations peut être positive et/ou discutable. Les liens avec la sorcellerie ne sont pas moins évidents. Les jeunes filles ou femmes sont destinées au réseau de prostitution où elles travailleront pour leurs nouveaux maîtres. Le corps de la femme est utilisé pour piéger et capturer les opposants et même devenu une arme de guerre. Le résultat de cette recherche, (comme le soutient Pius Ngandu : 1997), intervient et/ou va contribuer dans le débat actuel sur la nécessité d’une politique de la non-violence. Il définit un cadre conceptuel et les éléments indispensables d’une telle approche de violence, attire l’attention sur des étapes possibles de sa pérennité, et apporte ainsi une contribution constructive à l’orientation et la pratique future d’une politique de la non-violence en République démocratique du Congo.

L’actuelle insignifiance relative du viol en République Démocratique du Congo ne s’explique pas seulement par la complexité des phénomènes de la violence, de l’instinct et de la guerre nous imposant plusieurs remarques préliminaires à l’analyse de leur histoire et leurs enjeux. Cette complexité se manifeste à travers : 1°) les problèmes que posent les difficultés observées à maîtriser les effets de violence en nos milieux ; 2°) l’appartenance de l’Instinct et de la Violence à un ensemble complexe de concepts qui leur sont plus ou moins directement apparentés sémantiquement ; 3°) la grande variété d’usages de la guerre, associée à de projets semblants extérieurement consensuels, mais aussi à des intérêts minoritairement égoïstes variant en degré de radicalisme idéologique ; 4°) et enfin, le fait que les racines idéologiques de la violence et de la guerre sont à chercher dans le processus de révolution politico-culturelle et de sécurisation occidento-africaines remontant à plusieurs décennies.

Les approches méthodologiques : sociocritique, descriptive et analytique méritent bien notre particulière attention pour atteindre notre objectif. Une approche littéraire, typiquement sociocritique, est à notre portée une démarche inévitable pour déceler les effets instinctifs et sexuels issus de violence et sa pérennité en République Démocratique du Congo (Pius Ngandu : 1984). La sociocritique, elle, est une approche du fait littéraire qui s’attarde à l’univers social présent dans le texte. Pour ce faire, elle s’inspire tant et si bien de disciplines proches comme la sociologie de la littérature qu’on a tendance à les confondre. Bien que pour bien comprendre ce qu’elle est, il est important de commencer par ses racines. Claude Duchet, propose une lecture socio-historique du texte. Et là sociocritique s’est peu à peu constituée au cours des années pré et post 1968 pour tenter de construire « une poétique de la socialité, inséparable d’une lecture de l'idéologique dans sa spécificité textuelle » (Claude Duchet : 1978). L’arrivée des théories marxistes sur la société au début du XXe siècle marqua profondément l’approche sociale de la littérature. À partir de là se formulèrent plusieurs approches différentes du fait littéraire, que ce soit en lien avec les notions de lutte des classes, d’économie ou de technologie. La méthode descriptive, elle, a permis pour décrire les faits déshumanisants et cruels constatés contre la personne humaine, notamment la femme, en particulier, et l’homme en général, dans les différentes provinces de la RD Congo. La méthode analytique, quant à elle, nous a permis à analyser et à relever le forfait de violence faite à la femme, sa pérennité, et à proposer la politique éducationnelle de la non-violence en Afrique centrale partant de cette base. A cet effet, l’origine des concepts de base fixerait la suite logique de notre étude.

1. ORIGINE DU CONCEPT « VIOLENCE » ET SON ÉMERGENCE OU DÉVELOPPEMENT IDÉOLOGIQUE

1.1. La Violence

L’histoire de la violence, à la fois en tant que concept et processus antirévolutionnaire, antidémocratique, est sinueuse et complexe. Nous pourrions succinctement la relater en nous
limitant à ne mentionner que quelques faits. La violence est l’utilisation de force physique ou psychologique pour contraindre, dominer, causer des dommages ou la mort. Elle implique des coups, des blessures et de la souffrance. Selon l’OMS (Organisation mondiale de la Santé), la violence est l’utilisation intentionnelle de la force physique, de menaces à l’encontre des autres ou de soi-même, contre un groupe ou une communauté, qui entraîne au risque fortement d’entraîner un traumatisme, des dommages psychologiques, des problèmes de développement ou un décès.

1.1.1. Effets et conséquences

Au-delà de la mort et des blessures, des formes de violence largement répandu (telles que la maltraitance sur mineur et la violence conjugale) entraînent de sérieux traumatismes non physiques à vie. Il arrive alors que ces victimes adoptent des comportements à risques tels que la consommation d'alcool et l'usage de stupéfiants, la consommation de tabac et les rapports sexuels à risques. Ce qui peut, dès lors, participer au développement de maladies cardio-vasculaires, de cancers, de dépressions, de diabètes et du virus du SIDA ou d'autres maladies conduisant à une mort prématurée. (Haward Bloom : 2002).

Dans les pays présentant un niveau de violence élevé, la croissance économique peut être ralentie, la sécurité dégradée et le développement social entravé. Les familles sortant peu à peu de la pauvreté et investissant dans l'éducation de leurs enfants peuvent être ruinées par la mort violente ou la sévère infirmité de la principale figure de famille générant les ressources. Les communautés peuvent être prises au piège dans la pauvreté, où la violence omniprésente et la précarité forment un cercle vicieux qui étouffe la croissance économique. Pour les sociétés, le fait de couvrir les dépenses directement liées aux coûts de la santé, de la justice et de la protection sociale résultant de la violence empêche les gouvernements d'investir dans des mesures sociales plus constructives. La majeure partie des coûts indirects de la violence provenant de la productivité perdue et de l'investissement dans l'éducation perdu contribuent ensemble à ralentir la croissance économique, à dessiner davantage les clivages socio-économiques et à dégrader le capital humain et social (Jean-Marie Muller : 1995).

1.1.2. Justifications

Selon les points de vue, ces différentes formes de violences peuvent être légitimes ou non, « bonnes » ou « mauvaises » : on pourra ainsi justifier la contrainte étatique (police, armée) comme nécessaire face au crime. Inversement, on justifiera la « violence révolutionnaire » (Walter Benjamin, « Thèses sur le concept d'histoire ») des opprimés contre l'État, considéré par Marx et Engels comme le « bras armé de la bourgeoisie », ou encore contre la violence structurelle et symbolique (racisme institutionnel qui justifiait, selon les Black Panthers, la constitution de milices d'auto-défense). Dans la sphère privée, certains justifieront la violence comme moyen légitime d'exercer une autorité (fessée pour les enfants, violence conjugale ou violence contre les femmes : on tentera alors de justifier la violence en distinguant différents seuils : une gifle serait acceptable mais pas une bastonnade, etc.) ; d'autres critiqueront au contraire ces comportements comme sexistes ou autoritaires, conduisant à terroriser les sujets afin de les contraindre à la soumission. La définition même de ce qui constitue une violence, a fortiori une violence « légitime », fait ainsi l'objet de débats politiques et philosophiques. Ce débat entre violence, force et justice est ramassé par Pascal dans un aphorisme célèbre des Pensées : « Il est juste que ce qui est juste soit suivi ; il est nécessaire que ce qui est fort soit suivi. La justice sans la force est impuissante, la force sans la justice est tyrannique. La justice sans force est contredite, parce qu'il y a toujours des méchants. La force sans la justice est accusée. Il faut donc mettre ensemble la justice et la force. Et faire en sorte que ce qui est juste soit fort, ou que ce qui est fort soit juste. La justice est sujette à dispute, la force est très
reconnaissable et sans dispute. Ainsi, on n’a pu donner la force à la justice, parce que la force a contredit la justice et a dit qu’elle était injuste. Ne pouvant faire qu’il soit forcé d’obéir à la justice, on a fait qu’il soit juste d’obéir à la force. Ne pouvant fortifier la justice, on a justifié la force, afin que le juste et le fort fussent ensemble, et que la paix règne.

Selon Howard Bloom, la violence est l’outil de la nature pour améliorer notre comportement social. Beaucoup de confusions proviennent du manque de précision sur les termes violence, conflit, agressivité, lutte, force, contrainte. Le conflit n’est pas violence : il peut être géré de façon non-violente comme il peut dégénérer dans la violence. De même l’agressivité peut s’exprimer de façon non-violente ou dégénérer en violence. La lutte, la force, la contrainte peuvent être positives ou négatives. La violence, selon Simone Weil, « blessie et meurtrit l’humanité de celui qui la subit ». Pour Isabelle et Bruno Eliat, "la violence commence dès qu’il y a non-respect de la dignité d’un homme." La violence commence lorsque, dans mon regard, "l’autre" est tout-négatif. Sortir de la violence, c’est donc, en distinguant la personne et ses actes, reconnaître la dignité de toute personne. (Jean-François malherbe : 2003).

### 1.1.3. Typologies des violences

Avant de parler de toute la litanie de violence, il est important qu’on sache les principales sortes de violences selon la classification de Johan Galtung dans son triangle de la violence.

![Triangle des Violences](image)

- **Violences directes**
  - Physique
  - Psychique (violations, gifles, guerre)

- **Violences Culturelles**
  - Traditions
  - Idéologies, *Légitimations* (Ce que les hommes ontimes peuvent changer)

- **Violences Structurelles**
  - Politiques
  - Sociologiques, *Conditions de vie* (Ce que le gouvernement peut changer)

En plus du triangle de la violence de Johan Galtung, plusieurs types de violence sont distingués. Leurs définitions - parfois contradictoires - varient selon les époques, les milieux, les lieux, les évolutions sociales, technologiques, etc. (Dr Reinard J. Voss : 2013). Il s’agit de :

**a) Violence entre personnes** : comportements de domination ou asservissement employant la force, physique (coup, viol, torture...), verbale et psychologiques (injures, injonctions paradoxales, harcèlement, privation de droits ou liberté, abus de position dominante...). Ces comportements peuvent être conscients ou non. Cette catégorie inclut la violence entre partenaires ou de parent à enfant, et différentes formes d’embrigadement ; les violences externes sont celles qui sont commises dans le cadre du travail par des tiers extérieurs à l’organisation (clients, usagers, élèves...). En France, en 2013, 70% des salariés déclarent travailler au contact d’un public selon la DARES. Au début des années 2000, environ 20% des salariés en contact avec le public estiment subir cette violence.

**b) Violence d’État** : les États pratiquent discrètement ou revendiquent selon la définition célèbre de Max Weber, un « monopole de la violence légitime », pour exécuter les décisions...
de justice, assurer l'ordre public, ou en cas de guerre ou risque de guerre (on tente alors de la légitimer par les doctrines de la « guerre juste »). Celle-ci peut dégénérer en terrorisme d'État ou d'autres formes de violence les plus extrêmes telles que le génocide.

c) Violence criminelle : le crime, spontané ou organisé, peut avoir des causes sociales, économiques, ou psychologiques (schizophrénie, etc.). Cette forme de violence est selon certains auteurs l'envers d'une violence étatique et/ou symbolique.

d) Violence politique : la violence politique regroupe tous les actes violents que leurs auteurs commettent légitimement au nom d'un objectif politique (révolution, résistance à l'oppression, droit à l'insurrection, tyrannicide, « juste cause »). Certaines formes de réponses violentes mais proportionnées (et de résistance ou servant le rétablissement de l'état de droit), quand d'autres solutions ne sont plus possibles sont couramment admises, par la morale et le droit, et selon la doctrine des droits de l'homme, en cas de légitime défense, par exemple, ou d'état de nécessité, en cas de résistance à l'oppression d'une tyrannie.

e) Violence symbolique : c'est notamment la thèse de Pierre Bourdieu, qui désigne plusieurs sortes de violences : verbale (éventuelle première étape avant passage à l'acte) ; ou invisible, institutionnelle : c'est aussi la violence structurelle (Galtung) face à laquelle les individus semblent impuissants. Celle-ci désigne plusieurs phénomènes différents qui favorisent la domination d'un groupe sur un autre et la stigmatisation de populations, stigmatisation pouvant aller jusqu'à la création d'un bouc émissaire.

f) Violence économique : en droit civil, la violence économique est une hypothèse récente de vice du consentement, justifiant d'annuler les contrats dont la conclusion reposait sur ce vice. Elle est admise dans certaines limites par les tribunaux. Elle est maintenant considérée par certains juristes comme une nouvelle forme du "vice traditionnel de la violence". En France, la 1ère chambre civile de la Cour de cassation, dans un arrêt du 3 avril 2002, et sur le fondement de l'article 1112 du Code civil, a ainsi jugé que « l'exploitation abusive d'une situation de dépendance économique, faite pour tirer profit de la crainte d'un mal menaçant directement les intérêts légitimes de la personne, peut vicier de violence son consentement ». (Audrey Huigens : 2008).

g) Violence pathologique : certains désordres mentaux sont accompagnés de bouffées de violence. On a récemment trouvé dans l'urine et le sang des patients touchés par ces maladies mentales une toxine qui semble anormalement produite par leur organisme. Cette toxine (une bufoténine) n'a été trouvée à ces doses que chez des patients présentant des troubles psychiques, et aussi chez des patients non drogués, n'ayant pas eu de contacts avec des amphibiens, mais violents. On la retrouve dans l'urine ou le sang des patients pour toutes les grandes maladies psychiatriques, au point de la proposer comme indicateur de diagnostic. La toxine est identique à celle qu'on trouve parmi les bufotoxines (hallucinogènes et provoquant des symptômes évoquant une psychose de type schizophrénie) du venin des nombreuses espèces de crapauds. Mais on ignore encore si le même processus est en jeu dans les deux cas et à déterminer si cette molécule est à l'origine des troubles mentaux chez l'homme, ou si elle est elle-même un sous-produit d'un autre processus pathologique. Des indices plaident en tous cas pour certaines similitudes entre l'action de bufotoxine sur le cerveau, et en particulier sur la dégradation de la sérotonine et des processus intervenant dans les désordres mentaux.
h) **Violence naturelle** : c'est la violence des forces de la nature : des tempêtes, inondations, tremblements de terre, incendies de forêt, tsunamis et autres catastrophes naturelles. C'est parfois la violence que l'être humain perçoit du monde animal (instinct de chasse, rituels de domination, etc.). Pour le philosophe Jean-François Malherbe, on ne pourrait à proprement parler de violence dans ces cas-là : « C’est dire que les Grecs de l’Antiquité considéraient que la question de la violence (βία) ne se pose pas pour les animaux (ζῷοι) mais seulement dans le domaine de la vie humaine (Bios). Cela suggère très précisément que la question de la violence a affaire avec la parole qui est le propre de l’humain. Cela suggère aussi que les animaux ne sont pas, à proprement parler, violents : leurs comportements obéissent simplement aux lois inexorables de la nature. La « violence animale » n’est donc qu’une projection anthropomorphique sur le comportement animal ». Ce sont aussi d'autres types de violences ayant pour caractéristique l'absence apparente de conscience ou de volonté. (Jean-François Malherbe : 2003).

La violence peut être instituant et instituée. Les relations sociales évoluent dans le cadre de rapports de force généralement inégalitaires qui se traduisent par des impositions et l'établissement temporaire d'un statu quo fondé sur cette violence initiale.

- Karl Marx a décrit la violence qu'a représentée l'accumulation primitive.
- Michel Foucault a montré la violence instituée sous la forme de la répression étatique.
- Pierre Bourdieu a démontré que la violence symbolique recouvre une situation de domination légitime ou non d'une personne sur une autre, d'un groupe de personnes sur un autre, mal vécue par l'une des deux parties. Exemples : autoritarisme d'une hiérarchie d'entreprise ou d'armée, organisation politique d'un pays, vie de famille mal vécue par un membre de la famille.
- Max Weber considère que tout État possède le monopole de la violence physique légitime. Celle-ci s'exprime par le fait que les sujets de l'État consentent, soit par tradition ou par un désir d'égalité, à ce que l'État soit le seul pouvant, de façon légitime, exercer une violence sur son territoire, que ce soit par les forces policières, militaires ou bien juridiques.
- Pour Michel Maffesoli, la violence serait consubstantielle à la dynamique de toute société qui, dès lors, se doit de la gérer. C'est pourquoi la violence est tantôt assumée institutionnellement dans le droit de mort que s'arrogent les États (guerres, exécutions capitales), tantôt ritualisée et canalisée dans la vie sociale à travers les arbitrages sociaux (syndicaux, politiques), les extases sportives ou les débordements juvéniles en tous genres ;
- Michel Maffesoli, à la suite de Georges Sorel, a montré la violence réactionnelle qui, d'en bas, s'oppose à la violence instituante et instituée ; Karl Marx a légitimé la violence révolutionnaire.
- Pour Charles Rojzman la violence est à distinguer impérativement du conflit : « Les mots « violence » et « conflit » sont souvent pris l’un pour l’autre. Ainsi par peur de la violence, ce sont les conflits que nous taisons. Et c’est l’impossibilité d’exprimer ces conflits qui provoque la violence. Au cours d’un conflit, nous envisageons la personne avec laquelle nous avons un différend et non plus seulement le groupe qu’elle est supposée représenter ou l’image que nous nous faisons d’elle. Nous ne considérons pas l’autre comme mauvais par essence. » Ainsi préconise-t-il la nécessité de « transformer la violence destructrice en conflit constructif ». (Charles Rojzman : 2008)
- Pour Theodore Kaczynski, la sur-socialisation est parmi les pires choses, la pire violence, qu'un être humain peut infliger à un autre. « La pensée et le comportement d’une personne sur-socialisée sont bien plus aliénées que celles d’une autre modérément socialisée. » « La personne sur-socialisée ne peut même pas avoir une expérience, sans culpabilité, de pensées
ou sentiments qui soient contraires à la morale en place ; elle ne peut avoir de « mauvaises » pensées. Et la socialisation n’est pas juste une question de morale ; nous sommes socialisés pour nous adapter à de nombreuses normes qui n’ont rien à voir avec la morale proprement dite. Ainsi, la personne sur-socialisée est maintenue en laisse et sa vie avance sur les rails que la société a construits pour elle. Pour beaucoup de personnes sur-socialisées, cela se traduit par un sentiment de contrainte et de faiblesse qui peut être un terrible handicap. Nous affirmons que la sur-socialisation est parmi les pires choses qu’un être humain peut infliger à un autre” ». Les libertaires placent la liberté comme valeur sine qua non pour un humain, et reconnaissant la violence systémique présente dans la société et les organisations. Ils proposent également des sociétés plus ouvertes, humanistes, et libres (Theodore Kaczynski : 1995).

i) **La violence froide** est un terme utilisé en opposition à la violence agressive. Elle consiste à contraindre directement, ou par exécutants interposés, autrui à entrer et demeurer dans une situation de souffrance (par exemple : séquestration, déportation, extermination). Elle peut être retournée contre soi-même par une personne qui décide de ne pas tenir compte de tous ses besoins dans ses actions et d'accepter des tâches qui l’écrasent. La violence éducative est perpétuée à des fins éducatives, à ne pas confondre avec la maltraitance laissant des marques sur le corps et qui n'ont pas de but éducatif.

j) **La violence primitive** est celle qui découle d'une simple opportunité de prédation hors de toute catégorie décrite ci-dessus, qu'il s'agisse de prédation matérielle (appropriation de biens) ou narcissique (appropriation du corps d'autrui, voir ci-dessous).

k) **La violence sexuelle** est le fait d’une personne consciente d’avoir un partenaire qui impose à un autre des actes sexuels non désirés. La domination par une personne ou un organisme : après avoir établi un acte impose à une autre des souffrances psychiques et/ou physiques, pouvant avoir pour conséquences : des suicides et l'assassinat. L’une des conséquences dramatiques des conflits armés en RD Congo est la pratique, aujourd’hui banalisée, du viol que ce soit envers les femmes, les enfants ou encore les hommes. La pratique des violences sexuelles dans des conflits armés se distingue des autres crimes par son ampleur et sa cruauté. L’Organisation des Nations Unies (ONU) a notamment précisé que le viol étant aujourd’hui considéré non seulement comme une arme de guerre, mais aussi une arme de destruction des populations (Amityt Health International : 2016, p.4).

l) **La violence conjugale** et/ou familiale dont la maltraitance laissant des marques sur le corps, sans but éducatif. Le comportement d’un conjoint ou d’un autre membre de la famille est identifiable à l’une des violences décrites ci-dessus sur l’autre conjoint ou sur divers membres de la famille (Dr Reinhar J. Voss : 2013). À cet effet, la légitimation et les points de vue éthiques peuvent éclairer la lanterne.

1.1.4. Légitimation et points de vue éthiques

L'usage de la force peut être légitimé. La légitime défense est invoquée quand une victime de violences se défend par la force. Un groupe humain (ethnie, classe sociale ou membres d'une religion) peut agir violemment lorsqu'une idéologie, une foi ou une autorité le justifie. Néanmoins des causes psychiques internes sont juridiquement invocables pour décharger la responsabilité de l'auteur des violences auquel cas un traitement psychiatrique pourrait être requis. Aux crimes et délits de droit commun (vol, kidnapping), une réplique juridique est

Dans l’approche de beaucoup de praticiens de la psychologie, de l’aide sociale ou du droit (côté défense), la plupart des personnes adoptant des comportements de prédation et/ou de violence relèvent de la sociopathie ou d’une problématique sociale et/ou économique. D’autres approches, notamment en éthologie appliquée à l’espèce humaine, et certains chercheurs (dont Konrad Lorenz, ainsi que beaucoup de behavioristes) estiment que les personnes adoptant des comportements de prédation et/ou de violence ne le font pas forcément par manque de ressources, d’éducation, d’émotion ou d’empathie (les séducteurs et les manipulateurs n’en manquent souvent pas, soulignent-ils) mais par choix narcissique, en vertu du principe du plus grand plaisir et/ou de la plus grande facilité/rentabilité. Les points de vue les plus extrêmes (qui ressortissent régulièrement malgré la réprobation de la communauté scientifique) vont jusqu’à affirmer que ces comportements seraient génétiquement inscrits et héréditaires. D’autres spécialistes de l'éthologie humaine, tels Boris Cyrulnik et les cognitivistes, nuancent ces points de vue et récusent tout héritage génétique de la violence. Plusieurs spécialistes de la psychologie développementale tels Richard Tremblay et Daniel Schechter soulignent l'importance de multiples facteurs de risque pour le développement de la violence, surtout les interactions entre la biologie en incluant les gènes et l'environnement familial (Guyot S. : 2014). Une partie des prescriptions religieuses vise à maintenir la paix interne, la cohésion dans la communauté, en prévenant ou en ritualisant sa violence.

Les prêtres entrent en scène lorsque la violence ou le désordre menacent, soit sur le plan interne (discorde civile) soit sur le plan externe (agression ou menace extérieure). Pour apaiser le « courroux de la divinité », la réponse sera la mise en œuvre d'une violence rituelle : le sacrifice, humain ou animal, ou le recours à la guerre extérieure. Dans les deux cas, le recours à la violence est perçu comme défensif, comme un moyen de se protéger d'une autre violence pouvant détruire la communauté. René Girard a montré que l'évolution culturelle conduisant vers les religions monothéistes à vocation universelle, s'est accompagnée d'une évolution des rites sacrificiels du concret vers l'abstrait, qui deviennent de plus en plus symboliques, sans disparaître. Le christianisme, dans certains de ses textes originels, n'abolit pas le sacrifice, mais il préconise le « sacrifice de soi » comme alternative au sacrifice de l'autre (Michel Callewaert : 2011).

2. L’INSTINCT

En dehors de toutes les définitions qu’on peut évoquer, l’instinct est une impulsion intérieure indépendante de la réflexion qui détermine les sentiments, les jugements, les actes d’une personne. Instinct de la discipline, de (la) domination, de (la) possession ; instinct belliqueux, bestial ; obéir, se laisser aller à son instinct. L’instinct guerrier a beau existé par lui-même, il ne s'en accroche pas moins à des motifs rationnels, écrit Bergson, Deux sources, 1932, p. 307. C'est l'instinct payzan de prévoyance, de défiance, de honte, de risque, le souci de ne rien laisser au hasard, ajoute Mauriac, (Nœud vip. 1932, p.206).

2.1. L’instinct sexuel

Il ne manquera pas de sages précoces pour m’objecter que l’instinct naturel - que nous appelons instinct sexuel - se laisse surmonter, qu'il n'est pas nécessaire de lui donner satisfaction, et que par suite cette prétendue dépendance de la femme vis-à-vis de l'homme lui est facile à éviter. Eh bien, admettons qu'un individu, encore favorisé par une disposition naturelle, arrive - au prix de quelques difficultés - à dompter cet instinct : le sexe ne le dompera pas, car le sexe est
fait pour servir à l'union. De plus, des individus isolés ne sauraient modifier une situation sociale donnée. L'objection est donc superficielle et sans valeur. Martin Luther a merveilleusement dépêché l'instinct naturel, quand il a dit, comme nous l'avons rappelé déjà : « Celui dont qui essaie de lutter contre l'instinct naturel et d'empêcher les choses d'aller comme le veut et le doit la nature, que fait-il, sinon essayer d'empêcher la nature d'être la nature, le feu de brûler, l'eau de mouiller, l'homme de manger, de boire et de dormir ? » Ce sont là des paroles qu'on devrait graver dans la pierre au-dessus des portes de nos églises où l'on prêche contre « le péché de la chair ». Pas un médecin, pas un physiologiste, ne saurait démontrer d'une manière plus frappante la nécessité, pour l'homme sainement constitué, de satisfaire les besoins amoureux que l'instinct sexuel éveille en lui (Michel Callewaert : 2011).

Il est une loi que l'homme est obligé de s'appliquer rigoureusement à soi-même s'il veut se développer d'une façon saine et normale, c'est qu'il ne doit négliger d'exercer aucun membre de son corps, ni refuser d'obéir à aucune impulsion naturelle. Il faut que chaque membre remplisse les fonctions auxquelles la nature l'a destiné, sous peine de voir déperir et s'endommager tout l'organisme. Les lois du développement physique de l'homme doivent être étudiées et suivies avec autant de soin que son développement intellectuel. Son activité morale est l'expression de la perfection physique de ses organes. La pleine santé de la première est une conséquence intime du bon état de la seconde. Une altération de l'une trouble nécessairement l'autre. Les passions dites animales n'ont pas une racine plus profonde que les passions dites intellectuelles ; toutes sont le produit du même organisme général et les unes subissent constamment l'influence des autres.

Il suit de là que la connaissance des propriétés physiques des organes sexuels est aussi nécessaire que celle des organes qui produisent l'activité intellectuelle. Et que l'homme doit apporter les mêmes soins à leur développement. Celui-ci doit comprendre que des organes et des instincts qui sont innés à tout être humain, qui forment partie intégrante de sa nature et qui même, dans certaines périodes de la vie, le maîtrisent complètement, ne doivent pas être l'objet de mystères, de fausse honte ou d'une complète ignorance. Il s'ensuit encore que la connaissance de la physiologie et de l'anatomie, celle des organes sexuels et de leurs fonctions, tant chez l'homme que chez la femme, devraient être aussi largement répandues que toute autre partie de la science humaine. Cette connaissance de notre nature physique une fois acquise, nous verrons nombre de circonstances de la vie d'un tout autre œil que maintenant. La question de savoir s'il n'y aurait pas lieu de supprimer certains inconvénients devant lesquels la société actuelle passe silencieuse et prise d'une sainte horreur, mais qui ne s'en imposent pas moins à presque toutes les familles, se souleverait d'elle-même. Partout ailleurs la science passe pour une vertu, pour le but le plus noble, le plus digne d'efforts, de l'humanité ; seule est exceptée la science en ces matières qui sont sur relation étroite avec le caractère, avec les saines qualités de notre Moi, avec la base de tout développement social (Hugues Langrage, in Revue française de sociologie, vol.25, n°4).

Kant en effet dit : « L'homme et la femme ne constituent l'être humain entier et complet que réunis ; un sexe complet l'autre ». Schopenhauer déclare ceci : « l'instinct sexuel est la plus complète manifestation de la volonté de vivre ; c'est donc la concentration de toute volonté ». Et ailleurs : « l'affirmation de la volonté de vivre se concentre dans l'acte charnel, qui en est la plus éclatante expression ». Mainlaender est du même avis : « Le point essentiel de la vie humaine est dans l'instinct sexuel. Lui seul assure à l'individu la vie, qu'il veut avant tout... L'être humain n'attache à rien plus d'importance qu'aux choses de la chair ; il ne fixe et ne concentre au soin d'aucune autre affaire, d'une façon aussi remarquable qu'à l'accomplissement
de l'acte sexuel toute l'intensité de sa volonté ». Et encore avant eux tous, Bouddha disait : « L'instinct sexuel est plus aigu que le croc avec lequel on dompte les éléphants sauvages ; plus ardent que la flamme, il est comme un dard enfoncé dans l'esprit de l'homme ». Cette intensité de l'instinct sexuel étant donnée, il n'y a pas lieu d'être surpris de ce que la continence dans l'âge mûr influe comme elle le fait sur le système nerveux et sur tout l'organisme de l'être humain, et qu'elle conduise aux plus grands troubles, aux aberrations les plus extraordinaires, voire, dans certaines circonstances, à la folie et à une mort misérable.

L'être humain, homme ou femme, se perfectionne au fur et à mesure que dans chaque sexe les penchant et les symptômes vitaux se manifestent et prennent une expression dans le développement organique et intellectuel, dans la forme et dans le caractère. Chaque sexe est alors parvenu à la perfection qui lui est propre. « Chez l'homme de bonnes mœurs, dit Klencke dans son ouvrage « la femme-épouse », la contrainte de la vie conjugale a sans contredit pour guide des principes moraux dictés par le bon sens, mais il ne serait pas possible, la liberté la plus exagérée fut-elle permise, de réduire complètement au silence les exigences de la conservation de l'espèce, que la nature a assurée par la formation organique normale des deux sexes. Lorsque des individus bien constitués, masculins ou féminins, se soustraient leur vie durant à ce devoir envers la nature, il n'y a pas là libre résolution de résistance, même dans le cas où cette résolution est présentée comme telle ou illusoirement érigée en libre arbitre ; mais c'est la conséquence de difficultés et de nécessités sociales qui portent atteinte au droit de la nature et en flétrissent les organes. Ces agissements impriment aussi à l'organisme général le type du dépérissement et du contraste sexuel, tant en ce qui concerne l'aspect extérieur que le caractère, et provoquent par l'atonie nerveuse, pour l'esprit comme pour le corps, des tendances et des dispositions maladives (Isabelle et Bruno Eliat-Serck : 2011). L'homme s'effémine, la femme prend des allures masculines dans la forme comme dans le caractère, parce que la conjonction des sexes ne s'est pas accomplie suivant le plan de la nature, parce que l'être humain n'a revêtu que l'une de ses faces, qu'il n'est pas parvenu à sa forme complète, au point culminant de son existence ».

Et la doctoresse Elisabeth Blackwall écrit, dans son livre : « The moral éducation of the young in relation to sex » : « L'instinct sexuel existe comme une condition inévitable de la vie et de la fondation de la société. Il est la force prépondérante dans la nature humaine. Il survit à tout ce qui passe. Même non encore développé, n'étant en rien l'objet de la pensée, cet instinct inéluctable n'en est que d'autant plus le feu central de la vie humaine et notre protecteur naturel contre toute possibilité d'extinction ». Ainsi la philosophie moderne est d'accord avec les idées de la science exacte et avec le bon sens humain de Luther. Il suit de là que tout être humain doit non-seulement avoir le droit, mais encore le pouvoir, même le devoir, de satisfaire des instincts qui se lient de la façon la plus intime à son essence, qui constituent son essence même. S'il en est empêché, si cela lui est rendu impossible par les institutions et les préjugés sociaux, il en résulte que, gêné dans son développement, il est voué à l'étiollement, à la transformation régressive. Quelles en sont les conséquences, nos médecins, nos hôpitaux, nos maisons de fous, nos prisons en sont témoins, sans parler des milliers de familles qui en sont troublées.

Quelques faits à signaler éclairciront encore la question. Le docteur en médecine Hegerisch, le traducteur de « l'Essai sur la population » de Malthus, s'exprime ainsi sur les suites de la compression violente de l'instinct sexuel chez les femmes : « Reconnaissant avec Malthus toute la valeur de la continence, je suis cependant obligé, comme médecin, de faire cette triste remarque que la chasteté des femmes, qui passe chez tous nos peuples pour une haute vertu et qui n'en est pas moins pour cela un crime contre la nature, est fréquemment expiée par les
maladies les plus terribles. De même que c'est avoir peur d'un fantôme que de craindre les suites fâcheuses de la continence masculine et de certaines façons de satisfaire l'instinct sexuel qui en résultent, de même il est certain que la chasteté des femmes exerce une influence considérable sur les redoutables métamorphoses de la poitrine, de l'ovaire et de la matrice. Les maux qui en résultent sont presque, entre tous, les plus désolants parce que, causés par les systèmes les moins appropriés à la vie individuelle, ils brisent la malade du haut en bas. Les pauvres femmes, pour la plupart distinguées, qui en sont victimes, et qui malgré les luttes cruelles qu'elles ont à soutenir contre un tempérament ardent finissent par triompher du mal, offrent aux yeux un spectacle triste entre tous. La jeune fille négligée, la veuve prématurée, se tordent sur leur couche... ! » - Et l'auteur cite ensuite à titre d'exemple comment les maux et les maladies qu'il a dépeints s'emparent notamment des religieuses (Guyot S. : 2014).

2.2. Le mariage : obstacles et difficultés qu'il rencontre
À quel degré hommes et femmes souffrent de la compression de leur instinct sexuel, combien l'insuffisance des mariages vaut encore mieux que le célibat, les chiffres suivants vont nous l'apprendre. En Bavière, en 1858, le nombre des aliénés était de 4899, dont 2576 hommes (53 %) et 2323 femmes (47 %). Les hommes y étaient donc en plus forte proportion que les femmes. Des résultats analogues sont fournis par nombre d'autres États. Pour les suicides de femmes, le chiffre de ceux accomplis entre 10 et 21 ans est particulièrement élevé ; il est donc clair que ce qui est surtout en cause ici, c'est la non-satisfaction de l'instinct sexuel, les peines d'amour, les grossesses dissimulées, la tromperie de la part des hommes. Les mêmes causes déterminent la folie, et encore dans une proportion tout aussi désastreuse. C'est ainsi qu'en Prusse, en 1882, sur 10.000 habitants dont l'état civil a été dûment vérifié, on comptait en aliénés : 33, 2 garçons, 29, 3 filles, et seulement 9, 5 hommes mariés, 9, 5 femmes, 32,1 veufs et 25,6 veuves (Guyot S. : 2014). Il n'est pas douteux que la non-satisfaction de l'instinct sexuel a sur l'état physique et moral de l'homme et de la femme l'influence la plus pernicieuse et qu'il n'est pas possible de considérer comme saines des institutions sociales qui mettent obstacle à la satisfaction de l'instinct naturel par excellence. Ici se pose maintenant cette question : La société actuelle a-t-elle fait le nécessaire pour assurer à l'être humain, en général, et au sexe féminin, en particulier, un mode d'existence raisonnable ? Peut-elle le faire ? Et si : non ! Comment ce nécessaire peut-il se réaliser ?

Le mariage est la base de la famille, et la famille est la base de l'État. Quiconque s'attaque au mariage s'attaque à la société et à l'État et les détruit tous deux. Voilà ce que disent les défenseurs de l'« ordre » actuel. Le mariage est assurément la base du développement social. Il s'agit seulement de savoir quel mariage est le plus moral, c'est-à-dire quel est celui qui répond le mieux aux fins du développement et de l'existence de l'humanité ; est-ce, avec ses nombreuses ramifications, le mariage forcé, basé sur la propriété bourgeoise et qui manque son but le plus souvent, c'est-à-dire une institution sociale qui reste lettre morte pour des millions d'êtres ; est-ce, au contraire, le mariage libre et sans obstacles, ayant pour base le choix de l'amour, tel que la société socialisée peut seule le rendre entièrement possible ? (Michel Callewaert : 2011).

Pour John Stuart Mill, « le mariage est la seule véritable servitude que la loi reconnaîsse ». D'après la doctrine de Kant, l'homme et la femme ne forment que l'être humain complet. Le sain développement de l'espèce humaine repose sur l'union normale des sexes. Exercer d'une façon naturelle, l'instinct sexuel est nécessaire pour assurer le bon développement physique et moral de l'homme comme de la femme. Mais comme l'être humain est, non pas un animal, mais un être humain, il ne lui faut pas seulement, pour contenter son énergique et impétueux instinct,
la satisfaction physique, il réclame en outre l'affinité intellectuelle et l'accord moral avec l'être auquel il s'unit. Si cet accord n'existe pas, alors l'union sexuelle s'accomplit d'une façon purement mécanique, et passe à bon droit pour immorale. Elle ne satisfait pas les nobles exigences de celui qui, dans la sympathie réciproque et personnelle de deux êtres, envisage l'ennoblissement moral de relations qui ne reposent que sur des lois purement physiques. Celui qui se place à un point de vue plus élevé demande que la force d'attraction réciproque des deux sexes se continue encore au-delà de la consommation de l'acte charnel, et qu'elle étende aussi tout ce que son action a de noble sur l'enfant qui naît de l'union réciproquement consentie de deux êtres (Hugues Langrage, in Revue française de sociologie, vol.25, n°4). Puisqu'il faut illustrer les violences, il est important que nous parlions de la guerre qui occasionne la violence « sexuelle » en République Démocratique du Congo.

3. LA GUERRE
La guerre et les conflits armés, chiffre à l'appui, ont contribué à l'intensification des violences sexuelles en RD Congo. Parallèlement aux outils de collecte des données adoptés dans le cadre de l'Initiative Conjointe, l’Enquête Démographique et de Santé en RDC (EDS-RDC) a été l’occasion de mesurer la prévalence des violences sexuelles à partir de quelques questions très simples. Le tableau ci-après présente les résultats de trois indicateurs clés à savoir les pourcentages des femmes pour lesquelles les premiers rapports sexuels se sont déroulés sous la contrainte, de celles qui ont été obligées d’avoir des rapports sexuels à un moment quelconque et au cours des 12 mois ayant précédé l’enquête.

Dans l’ensemble, une femme de 18-49 ans sur dix a déclaré que ses premiers rapports sexuels s’étaient déroulés sous la contrainte, 16% ont déclaré avoir eu des rapports sexuels à un moment quelconque contre leur volonté et 4% ont déclaré avoir eu des rapports sexuels forcés au cours de 12 mois ayant précédé l’enquête. Ces propositions varient selon les caractéristiques sociodémographiques. Le tableau ci-dessous illustrerait mieux la situation.

Tableau 1 : Rapports sexuels contre la volonté
Les pourcentages de femmes de 18–49 ans qui ont déjà eu des rapports sexuels, et dont les premiers rapports sexuels se sont déroulés sous la contrainte, pourcentages qui ont été obligés d’avoir des rapports contre leur volonté à un moment quelconque. Ces pourcentages qui ont été obligés d’avoir des rapports sexuels contre leur volonté dans les 12 derniers mois, selon certaines caractéristiques sociodémographiques de la République Démocratique du Congo.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Caractéristique sociodémographique</th>
<th>% des femmes dont les premiers rapports sexuels se sont déroulés sous la contrainte</th>
<th>% des femmes qui ont été obligées d'avoir des rapports sexuels contre leur volonté à un moment quelconque</th>
<th>% qui ont été obligées d'avoir des rapports sexuels contre leur volonté dans les 12 derniers mois</th>
<th>Effectif de femmes qui ont déjà eu des rapports sexuels</th>
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<td><strong>Groupe d'âges</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<td>20,3</td>
<td>9,5</td>
<td>267</td>
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<tr>
<td>20-24</td>
<td>11,3</td>
<td>16,9</td>
<td>3,4</td>
<td>995</td>
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<td>25-29</td>
<td>10,1</td>
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<td>30-39</td>
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<td>14,4</td>
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<td>5,9</td>
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<tr>
<td>En union</td>
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<td>14,7</td>
<td>4,2</td>
<td>3 063</td>
</tr>
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<td>18,8</td>
<td>2,3</td>
<td>441</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Âge aux premiers rapports sexuels</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;15</td>
<td>12,4</td>
<td>21,0</td>
<td>7,0</td>
<td>836</td>
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<tr>
<td>15-19</td>
<td>9,4</td>
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<td>3,4</td>
<td>2 571</td>
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<td>20-24</td>
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<td>4,5</td>
<td>337</td>
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<tr>
<td>25+</td>
<td>(5,3)</td>
<td>(10,7)</td>
<td>(2,2)</td>
<td>29</td>
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<td>Manquant</td>
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<td>4,4</td>
<td>2 238</td>
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<td>18,4</td>
<td>7,3</td>
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<td>Equateur</td>
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<td>7,5</td>
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<td>18,5</td>
<td>4,0</td>
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<td>7,6</td>
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<td>Sud-Kivu</td>
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<td>17,5</td>
<td>5,5</td>
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<td>Maniema</td>
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<td>4,9</td>
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<td>Kasai Oriental</td>
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<tr>
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<td>3,7</td>
<td>1 524</td>
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<td>1,4</td>
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<td><strong>Quintile de bien-être économique</strong></td>
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<td>Le plus pauvre</td>
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<td>18,3</td>
<td>4,9</td>
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<tr>
<td>Second</td>
<td>7,8</td>
<td>14,1</td>
<td>4,0</td>
<td>872</td>
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<td>16,5</td>
<td>4,9</td>
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<td>Quatrième</td>
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<td>18,3</td>
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<td>Le plus riche</td>
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<td>Ensemble</td>
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<td>4,2</td>
<td>3 963</td>
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Source basée sur un faible nombre de cas non pondérés issu d’une Enquête Démographique et de Santé en RDC (2007)

**Graphique 1 : Pourcentage de violence par province de la RD Congo**

[Graphique 1]

**Graphique 2 : Pourcentage de violence selon le niveau d’instruction**

[Graphique 2]

**Graphique 3 : Pourcentage de violence d’après le quintile de bien-être économique**

[Graphique 3]
Toutes les provinces sont touchées par ce phénomène, ce qui confirme l’idée de persistance aussi bien en temps de guerre qu’en temps de paix. La prévalence est relativement élevée au Nord-Kivu, au Maniema, à l’Equateur et au Bandundu. Ces résultats s’expriment en grande partie par le contexte particulier de guerre et de conflits armés au cours desquels les violences sexuelles ont été utilisées comme arme de guerre dans certaines provinces (Nord-Kivu, Maniema, Equateur, Sud-Kivu et Province Orientale). Les résultats indiquent, comme on pouvait s’y attendre, que toutes les catégories de femmes sont concernées par les violences sexuelles. Les jeunes filles en particulier sont les plus exposées. En effet, la prévalence des violences sexuelles à un moment donné varie de 21% chez les jeunes filles de 18-19 ans à 14% chez les femmes de 40-49 ans. Au cours de 12 derniers mois, cette prévalence passe de 10% à 3% pour les mêmes catégories d’âges. De plus, parmi les femmes qui ont eu des rapports sexuels avant 15 ans, on constate que dans plus d’un cas sur cinq (21%) les premiers rapports sexuels ont été forcés.

Les résultats selon le niveau d’instruction mettent en évidence une augmentation des proportions de femmes ayant subi des rapports sexuels sous la contrainte avec le niveau d’instruction : en effet, de 9% quand les femmes n’ont aucune instruction, la proportion de celles qui ont déclaré que les premiers rapports sexuels avaient été forcés passe à 11% parmi celles de niveau secondaire et à un maximum de 15% parmi celles de niveau supérieur. Les proportions de femmes ayant été obligées d’avoir des rapports sexuels contre leur volonté à un moment quelconque présentent les mêmes variations : d’un minimum de 15% parmi les femmes sans instruction, la proportion atteint 25% parmi les plus instruites. Par contre, pour la période récente, on constate le résultat opposé, la proportion de femmes ayant eu des rapports sexuels sous la contrainte au cours de 12 derniers mois étant plus faible chez les femmes les plus instruites que chez les autres (1% pour le niveau supérieur contre 5% pour le primaire). Les résultats selon les quintiles de bien-être économique montrent que, dans la période récente, la proportion de femmes qui ont eu des rapports sexuels sous la contrainte est environ deux fois plus élevée dans les quatre premiers quintiles que dans le plus riche (4 à 5% contre 2%) (EDS-RDC : 2007). En clair, la violence est une force brute qui détruit, il n’y a pas de violence positive ; elle toujours négative. Il y a nécessité d’instituer l’éducation de la non-violence.

Source, données de l’EDS-RDC, 2007
4. LA NON-VIOLENCE

La non-violence est un mode de vie, une résistance active au mal et à l’injustice, enracinée dans la prière. Un non violent ne peut pas s’habiter au mal ni se taire devant l’injustice. La non-violence cherche à construire l’amitié et à réconcilier les différents groupes sociaux. Elle cherche à vaincre l’injustice et non la personne. Elle reconnaît que les auteurs d’un système injuste sont aussi des victimes. Personne n’a le droit de les insulter, de frapper, de blesser, de tuer. La non-violence peut éduquer, transformer et parfois convertir l’ennemi. Un non violent accepte la souffrance et même la mort, mais il n’inflige pas de violence à l’autre. Il ne répond pas à la provocation.

En effet, la non-violence choisit l’amour et rejette la haine ; elle choisit la vérité et rejette le mensonge. Un non violent refuse toute obéissance à des autorités qui veulent violenter le peuple. S’inspirant de l’Évangile [Bible ou Coran], le croyant ne veut pas flatter l’opinion ou ceux qui ont le pouvoir. Au contraire, il doit aller à contre-courant parfois, parce qu’on [le pouvoir] ose dire des choses qui ne plaisent pas et qui peuvent lui [peuple] causer des dommages. Alors que « Celui que vous devez craindre, c’est Dieu » (Bible, Luc 15 : 5). Celui à qui il faut faire plaisir ; celui qu’il faut aimer, c’est Dieu. C’est Lui qui nous demande d’aimer notre prochain comme nous-mêmes (Mathieu 22 : 36-40). D’où, il y a nécessité de parler des piliers de la violence en opposition avec ceux de la paix, suivront ensuite les piliers et étapes du Dialogue.

4.1. Les (six) piliers de la violence

Pas de violence sans oppression ! Pas de violence sans mépris ! Pas de violence sans mensonge ! Pas de violence sans injustice ! Pas de violence sans haine ! Pas de violence sans vengeance !

4.2

Pas de paix sans liberté ! Pas de paix sans dignité ! Pas de paix sans vérité ! Pas de paix sans justice ! Pas de paix sans amour ! Pas de paix sans pardon !

« L’Amour et la vérité se rencontrent, la justice et la paix s’embrassent » (Psaumes 85 :11)
4.3. Les quatre piliers du dialogue
Une conversation ou échange de propos entre deux ou plusieurs personnes, le dialogue est une discussion engagée en vue d’un accord (Le Petit Larousse illustré, 2013, p.342). Les quatre piliers du dialogue sont les suivants : 1°) l’écoute, 2°) la justice, 3°) le respect et 4°) la vérité. Écouter n’est pas facile, nous aimons être écoutés, mais nous n’écoutons pas facilement. Il faut nous préparer pour pouvoir entrer dans une écoute véritable de l’autre. Quatre conditions sont nécessaires pour une bonne écoute : l’écoutant doit être vraiment disponible ; il faut développer une attitude positive envers l’écouté, sans jugement ni préjugé ; l’attitude concrète doit être celle de l’empathie, attention et compréhension envers l’écouté, et enfin, la discrétion est nécessaire.

5. UN VRAI DIALOGUE ET SES ÉTAPES
Dans la non-violence active et dans le chemin de la réconciliation qui ne fait pas l’économie de la justice et de la vérité, le dialogue est la pièce maîtresse. La base du dialogue est cette conviction que chaque être humain détient une part de vérité et une part d’erreur. Personne n’est propriétaire de la vérité (Dr Reinhard J. Voss : 2013, p.74). L’allemand Jean Goss, syndicaliste et prophète de la non-violence active évangélique, dans Oser la non-violence—une force au service de la paix de Alfred Bour, écrit ce qui suit : « il y a cinq étapes d’un vrai dialogue en vue d’une négociation. Il s’agit de :

1°) Découvrir la vérité de l’adversaire. Cela est très surprenant, car nous avons l’habitude de noircir l’adversaire, de l’affubler de tous les défauts. Notre pire adversaire a des qualités et d’ailleurs le bien et le mal sont partagés.

2°) Découvrir ma (notre) propre vérité et responsabilité. Ce que nous avons en commun avec tous les hommes, c’est que nous aussi nous trahissons la vérité, l’amour, la justice et il faut le dire à l’autre. Nous trahissons la vérité ne serait-ce que par notre silence complice et notre passivité.

3°) Présenter l’injustice : dire le mal que l’autre fait consciemment ou non. Il faut présenter l’injustice objectivement, avec calme et vérité en présentant ses effets destructeurs qui font souffrir tant de victimes. Le non-violent doit soigner la manière dont il dit la vérité à l’autre, car la manière agressive de la dire nous donnera tort, même si nous disons la vérité.

4°) Savoir écouter l’autre. Puisque le dialogue est le fait de l’accueil et du don, de la parole et du silence, il convient que celui qui a exposé une injustice s’attende à ce que l’autre réplique. Ce temps de parole et d’écoute réciproque fait que le dialogue évolue.

5°) Apporter des propositions concrètes. Il ne faut jamais dialoguer en venant les mains vides. Il faut soigneusement préparer une solution, une alternative à l’injustice que nous voulons supprimer. Il ne faut pas laisser ceux qui font partie du système qui commet l’injustice faire leurs propositions. Il faut venir avec les propositions de ceux qui souffrent de l’injustice.

Le but d’une action non-violente n’est pas de vaincre l’adversaire, mais une injustice. Pour cela, il faut arriver à une négociation. Plusieurs moyens favorisent la négociation : le dialogue, l’écoute active, la médiation, [le jeûne et la prière].

6. Les caractéristiques générales d’une action non-violente
L’action non-violente vise à transformer la forme négative d’agressivité en forme positive. La combativité pour une cause juste en utilisant des moyens bons. Le non-violent cherche à maîtriser en lui ses instincts, ses forces, pour les canaliser au service du bien, de la justice et de la vérité. Les méthodes non-violentes sont employées pour conséquence d’une attitude éthique fondamentale basée sur le respect absolu de la personne humaine. Gandhi (1969), épousant les idées de Martin Luther King (1965), insiste : « Je n’admetts pas les raccourcis de la violence pour parvenir au succès (…). L’expérience prouve à suffisance qu’un bien durable ne peut jamais venir du mensonge ou de la violence » (Reinhard Voss : 2013, 74). Ainsi, nous pouvons retenir que :

- Toute action non-violente demande une solide base éthique pour que les actions engagées ne dégénèrent en simples moyens de pression au risque de ne transformer ni le groupe ni l’adversaire.
- Une action non-violente ne peut pas être engagée pour garder des privilèges ou pour une cause qui serait douteuse. Il faut rassurer que la fin poursuivie est une cause juste pour laquelle on lutte avec des moyens bons, vrais, justes, respectueux de la personne humaine, et notamment des autorités.
- Aucune action non-violente n’est identique à une autre. À chaque situation particulière correspond une action appropriée.
- Ce sont les victimes d’une injustice qui disent mieux la vérité de la situation et qui trouvent ou occasionnent les actions les plus pertinentes. En effet, la non-violence active (NVA) est l’arme des pauvres, des faibles, des minorités, etc.
- L’action non-violente est essentiellement démocratique, communautaire et fraternelle. Les règles ne sont pas fixées par un seul individu. Chaque participant, ici, est un acteur et non un spectateur.
- L’action de la non-violence est une tâche, une éducation, une responsabilité, un travail sur soi tout au long de sa vie. Elle appelle une cohérence de vie entre ce qu’on croit, ce qu’on dit et ce qu’on fait. Toute action non-violente commence par étape de sensibilisation de l’opinion au problème soulevé.


CONCLUSION
Cette réflexion confirme l’hypothèse selon laquelle la violence persiste et se pérennise en RD Congo, au vu des résultats obtenus, mais la politique de l’éducation de la non-violence paraît une nécessité en Afrique centrale, particulièrement en Rép. Dém. du Congo. Le tableau et les

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ABSTRACT
The concept of diversity expresses a situation, in which different components constitute a whole in a uniquely different manner. It could also be described as a condition of affairs in which entities such as peoples, races, or cultures manifest varying degrees of differences and identities. Two broad ways of understanding diversity are easily distinguishable. Diversity could be understood in terms of exclusivity or better still, it could be understood in terms of inclusivity. When understood in exclusivist terms, diversity becomes a problem because vital aspects of reality are decreed out of recognition and attention, only because they fail the test of familiarity. But when understood in inclusivist terms, diversity becomes a blessing as it then allows unfettered access of all persons and groups to discourse, participation, care, and attention. Most crisis bedeviling modern societies in the social and political realms has its root in the exclusivist dimension to diversity. Accordingly, the aim of this essay is to interrogate the concept of diversity with the objective of demonstrating that it is only when understood through inclusivist terms that it can become a tool for peace building. The method most suitable for this kind of analysis is phenomenology, which teaches that reality should be allowed to manifest itself as it truly is.

Keywords: Diversity, Exclusivity, Inclusivity, Participation, & Phenomenology

INTRODUCTION
It is rather paradoxical, though instructive, to hold the view that the world we live in is so close to us, yet we seem so much apart from it. This is to the extent that we often neglect the very things that lie below and dwell more on the elusiveness of the things that are far beyond. Most often, it happens as a manifestation of ignorance of the phenomenological knowledge that the notion of ‘beyondness’ is meaningless except in relation to nearness. From the nature of the configuration of entities such as peoples, races, cultures, life ways or practices; there are manifest pointers to the reality of diversity in these entities. This perhaps, necessitates the assumption that entities with varieties of differences and peculiarities would consequently yield more robust output with greater complementary engagements and interrelationship among the varying components.

It is in the light of the foregoing assumptions that the popular sayings, ‘strength in diversity’ often derive its fiber. But again, to what extent are these assumptions true without compliance to the doctrine of inclusivity within a diverse system? Closer observation in a quite number of
systems and institutions whether social, ideological or religious, abounds expressions of
dissatisfactions which signal a collapse of confidence in the “whole’ by its various “parts”? Otherwise captured by Jones and Fogel(1997, p.2), there is a “growing feeling of the radical ambiguity of the human mode of being in the world” which compels us into reasoning that perhaps, there could be something fundamentally wrong with the way we understand diversity which is the reason there is a high level of unrest in the various facets of the society.

There lies two ways by which we can understand diversity. These two distinguishable ways are in inclusive terms and in exclusive terms. When understood in exclusivist terms, diversity becomes a problem because vital aspects of reality are decreed out of recognition, support and attention, only because they fail the test of familiarity. The exclusivist understanding of diversity throws up crisis and conflicts in human relations. The crisis bedeviling modern societies in the social and political realms down to professional practices is a function of the exclusivist understanding of diversity. But when understood in inclusivist terms, diversity becomes a veritable tool for social bonding as it then allows unfettered access of all persons and groups to discourse, to participation, to care and attention. This understanding brings everybody on board and creates room for participation and for the disclosure of what people truly think and feel towards a system.

In the views of Martin Heidegger, there are two radical modes of thinking which influence the human ways of thinking and behaviour. The first, he calls Calculative rationality. The second, he calls Meditative thinking (Heidegger, 1968). These two modes of thinking are analogous to exclusivist and inclusivist approaches to diversity respectively. The exclusivist notion of diversity issues from the calculative mode of thinking, while inclusivist notion of diversity manifest the meditative mode of being.

The synthesis which we seek to strike in this article is that human beings must approach the issue of diversity in such a way that while trying to create rooms for all and sundry to co-inhabit, we must at the same time not lose the courage to exclude as many elements or radicals as are incongruent to the dictates of collective social existence. It is this new social order that can usher in authentic peaceful world; a world order where both calculative and meditative mindsets are given equal access in the creation of values and meanings. A type of new order whereby while partaking in calculative rationality or other forms of thinking, man will not only be creating happiness for the world, but also will be preserving human civilization from total disintegration.

Diversity and the Nature of the World

The concept of diversity talks of a state of affairs, characterized by varying degrees of differences constituting a body of a whole. It could also be said to express a condition of affairs in which entities such as peoples, races, cultures, life ways or practices manifest unique identities. According to Anna Holmes (2015, p. 144), diversity is “the quality or state of having many different forms, types, ideas”. It is a general characteristic of the world and pervades the nature of all things including the hitherto assumed smallest form of matter (atom) which was later discovered to further comprise other sub-atomic particles. Diversity is said to be so important to the extent that, without it, systems die. It is not created but native in all natural things. Virtually in all human activities, emphasis is always placed on the need to replicate such natural state of affairs. It is such that in human biology, we talk about genetic diversity, embedded in genetic codes. Even among identical twins, there are still some degrees of variations in their features. In concrete reality, diversity permeates gender, age, sexual
orientation, physiological ability, intelligence quotient, mental configuration, ethnicity, culture, belief systems, language and nationality. Diversity is not limited to anyone of these but cuts across all of them. As an attribute inherent in all things, diversity we can say; is value-neutral. In other words, it is neither positive nor negative, it is neither a blessing nor a curse but depending on the way it is conceived and understood.

Naturally, diversity ought not need human managers because all the aforementioned degree of variations have a way of falling into shape on their own accord but for the human tendencies of wanting not to allow reality manifest itself the way it is, diversity therefore calls for phenomenological intervention (Heidegger, 1962, pp. 50-53). In essence, diversity is all about difference, and it permeates all things, be it systems, people or life ways. However, diversity is at the same time, value neutral. In other words, it is what we do with or how we understand diversity that gives it a certain definition. There are two broad ways of understanding diversity both of which confers value on it. The first is diversity in its exclusivist terms. The second is diversity in the inclusivist terms.

**The Exclusivist Terms of Diversity**

As observed earlier, diversity is not a problem in itself. It only becomes a big problem when understood in the exclusivist sense because, in doing so, competing or lesser alternatives are consigned into irrelevance. This manner of understanding diversity is inimical to the attainment of a harmonious social order because it breeds injustice, rancor and revolt. The exclusivist conception of diversity, for instance, groups people along ethnic and religious lines. However, such groupings are done not in an equal and participatory basis, but in a superior/inferior, civilized/uncivilized and master/subordinate arrangement. “Ethnic group identity has a strong psychological or emotional component that divides the people of the world into the categories of ‘us’ and ‘them” (Peoples and Bailey, 2006, p. 355). This kind of mindset produces a form of mental representation and complexity syndrome which in turn affect the way people view and interact with others. And according to Tan Cheng Im (2012, p.61), it stretches further in determining the way the people view and treat the environment. In its socioeconomic dimension, it groups people along class lines (class stratification) and their only basis of unity becomes a function of which class one belongs. Of course, the end result of this is alienation, domination and exploitation. The underlying mindset in this practice is the calculative assumption to reality. The calculative mindset is any form of reasoning or thinking which evaluates experience with the parameter of “the meaningful” and “the meaningless”. The meaningful in this understanding is anything that falls and can be explained within a given conceptual framework and measuring apparatus. In this, competing alternatives are treated as pseudo reality which amounts to Nothing. It is a matter of following a laid down and accepted procedure of reasoning or system or meaning, outside of which there is no more meaning.

In essence, the real point at issue about diversity is not that people out-rightly dismiss its existence and values. On the contrary, it is the fact that human beings often make reference to it when it is convenient for them to do so. Such reference is rarely borne out of phenomenological inclination of live-and-let-live attitudes, but with superior/subordinate mindset which in the long run, deprive humanity, the beauties of complementarities. This manner of progression, Unah (1997, p. 319) says, is propelled by viewing things in competitive terms. It is along this line that today, the various disciplines in human endeavour seem to engage in a sort of rivalry of meanings. For instance, the medical discipline wants to outshine the discipline of the humanities. In the same vein, the sciences on the other hand are ready to defend till death that there is no other reliable knowledge and method apart from the scientific and the empirical. In the same vein, the religious man would dismiss with a wave of the hand
any claim that is not revealed by God or the angels. This, we call the exclusivist or calculative view of faith. In fact, this has become one of the most destabilizing elements in the human quest for a peaceful world order. This practice identifies a particular faith or body of religious views and upholds it to be the essence and substance of divine truth, beside which there is no other religious possibilities. However, it does not just stop at that, it deploys all its arsenals in compelling the entire human race to accept this perspective as the only truth. This is carried out in form of evangelizing the non-believers. Aptly captured by Diana Eck (1993):

The exclusivist affirms identity in a complex world of plurality by a return to the firm foundations of his or her own tradition and an emphasis on the distinctive identity provided by that tradition….Exclusivism is more than simply a conviction about the transformative power of the particular vision one has; it is a conviction about its finality and its absolute priority over competing views (p.174).

Against this backdrop also, the Christian faith would insist that outside the church and Christ, there is no salvation. Jesus is the only way, the truth and the life (Hick, 1977, p. 121: John 14:6, The New King James Version). Then, for their Islamic counterpart;

Those who reject Allah follow vanities, while those who believe follow the truth from their lord. Thus does Allah set forth form men their lessons by similitude. Therefore when you meet in battle those who disbelieve, then smite the necks until when you have overcome them, then make (them) prisoners (Quran 47:3-4, discove-the-truth.com).

To continue in this temperament simply means that mutual tolerance in the society may never be attainable. Also, training the children with this nature of confrontational orientation would imply preparing them for violence and hatred against the other person with a contrary religious view. This partly explains why religious related extremism is daily gaining ascendancy in the world. For instance, how could one explain how two brothers born of the same father (Ishmael and Isaac), would be the same people that have so polarized the world into two religious divide, with each religion laying claim to divine copyright. This arrogation of exclusive and absolute ownership of divine patent falls within the calculative mode of existence. And further demonstrates that the kernels upon which they are founded are skewed towards conquest mentality. It gives the impression that somehow, not being a Christian or not being a Muslim, makes one inferior specie.

Again, this exclusivist view of diversity has also affected the medical practice as earlier observed. From the perspective of the Western trained medical practitioner, it is assumed that only he or she has the skills and equipment to diagnose and treat all ailments. As such, the traditional alternative to health and healing either in China or in Africa is derided and dismissed as pseudo-medication. But the truth of the matter is, both the western medical practitioner and the traditional medicine-man receive different types of professional training and they apply different tools in the course of their investigation and diagnoses. In view of this, the kind of tools or equipment needed to diagnose a newly developing uterus cancer would definitely be different from the kind of tools required to capture the spirit of an “Abiku” or “Ogbanje”. As a consequence,

For the person who uses an instrument to detect microbes to claim that he cannot apprehend ghost with the same
instrument and therefore that ghost does not exist, is to surrender to the nihilistic metaphysical thinking that outside what we know and can understand, there is 'total nothing’ (Unah, 1997, p. 345).

Another trend of exclusivist understanding of diversity is that promoted by the western imperialists, multinational-companies and the agents of liberal democracy. In this type of understanding, the basis for discussing diversity is not with the intention of allowing each society to express its degree of variation in the way it deems fit but rather, with an attempt to superimpose the western system of value over the contact states. Expressing this view in another way, Holmes (2015, p.144), states that “it has become both euphemism and cliché, convenient shorthand that gestures at inclusivity and representation without actually taking them seriously”. What Holmes meant to say is that two problems of diversity are easily distinguishable. First, is the inability of man to fully come to terms with its reality which in turn presupposes the second; that man is unwilling to allow what is naturally different to be so in truth. In fact, to be blunt, western agents of liberalism have contributed in no small measure in further destabilizing hitherto peaceful societies just in the name of entrenching the western notion of liberalism without adequately taking into cognizance the varying degrees of the cherished values in the receiving states. What this easily calls to mind are the states of Libya, Syria, Iraq and some others. Diversity nurtured in this manner would only mean accepting everything that is western and refusal to accept is viewed as a diplomatic offence. The consequence of this usually comes with threats to withdraw foreign aids from such state. An instantiation of this occurred when Nigeria and some other African countries refused to sign gay right laws into operation in their respective states. It is for this reason that Thomas (2005) concludes that diversity is relative and “dynamic given that diversity is not the same everywhere, nor is the issues classified as diversity-related the same over time. That is, diversity itself is fluid"

This explains what Holmes (2015, p.144), means when she says that the notion of diversity is today being understood in relative terms despite the fact that its dictionary meaning remains constant. But when it begins to apply to something in concrete reality, she says, its meaning begins to change depending on whose interest it serves. That is, when it concerns the question of who gets what, diversity would mean positioning one group or persons at certain places in the guise of diversity. Similarly, in a research work carried out to determine what constitutes diversity to different people, Holmes, corroborates this argument thus:

Reynolds Farley, a demographer at the University of Michigan, researched the attitudes of people in Detroit about the racial composition of residential neighborhoods in 1976, 1992 and 2004, most African-Americans considered “integrated” to be a 50/50 mix of white and black, while a majority of whites considered such a ratio much too high for their comfort each time the study was conducted (ibid, p.144).

Now, the point to be made from the excerpt above is that when the question of diversity does not factor the varying degree of differences and allow these differences to manifest themselves in a well guided manner, it ends up destroying the very value that diversity is naturally meant to promote. That was why Jeff Chang, according to Holmes, expresses the view that diversity for him is an empty signifier because the concept has today become radicalized from its original multidimensional outlook to serve the whims and caprices of self-interested agents. He further
decres the fact that people, who talk about the need for diversity most, are today the very people who do less or nothing concerning it in practical terms. Thus, he concludes that he is neither surprised nor dismayed because; after all, ‘talk is cheap’ (ibid, p.144).

Consequently, these account for “the growing visibility of ethnic minorities with increased demands, varying from cultural or political autonomy to outright independence” (Rothschild and Wingfield, 2000, p.302). On the basis of this, Unah (1997), further warns that “any insistence by historical man that a particular perspective is the only perspective of which the various other perspectives and other possible perspectives are but appendages or distortions is an event in the obliviousness of Being and a voyage of nihilism” (Unah, 1997, p.299). However, the good news is that, irrespective of the dire implications of understating diversity in the exclusivist form, all hope is not lost; there is still another way we can approach diversity and it will become a catalyst for social bonding, promote national progress and usher humanity into that authentic peaceful world order which we all crave for.

The Inclusivist Terms of Diversity

Earlier, we defined diversity to mean a condition whereby different components constitute a whole, or that it is a situation in which entities, whether human, material or system, manifest varying degree of differences. When diversity is understood in this manner, more often than not, it is assumed hook-line-and-sinker to be an end in itself. But as the preceding discussion above revealed, diversity taken from its exclusivist perspective, becomes a recipe for conflict, crisis and war in human relation. Again, while in contemporary times, a lot of companies, organizations and nations devote much effort to diversify their operations, resources and means of attaining certain set goals, little attention seems to be paid on how to make such organizations inclusive. This means that having a plural system is one thing but making such a system inclusive is a different thing all together. Diversity, when understood in inclusivist terms, yields blessing as it paves the way for untrammeled access of all to discourse, to participation, to care and at the end, engenders reciprocal solidarity. Du Vernay, according to Holmes (2015), admitted this fact in one of her speeches when she was asked what she understood by diversity and she responded by saying that she hates the word. According to Homes, she said:

It feels like medicine, she said in her speech.

‘‘Diversity’ is like, ‘Ugh, I have to do diversity.’ I recognize and celebrate what it is, but that word, to me, is a disconnect. There’s an emotional disconnect. ‘Inclusion’ feels closer; ‘belonging’ is even closer (Holmes, 2015, p. 144).

This is another way of saying that the ultimate objective of diversity is inclusivity and integration, in such a manner that the different components constituting a whole are not counter-reactive or become repellant to the audacity of cohesion in that system. Inclusion creates greater altruism and increases teamwork and bonding. It is a product of meditative understanding of the workings of nature which allows reality to negotiate for meaning based on the attitude of openness, respect and recognition in a non-compelling manner.

From the views of Du Vernay above, a much more crucial feeling derivable from inclusivist approach to diversity is ‘belonging’. This is a kind of consciousness that one has towards a body of a whole which has accepted one’s own reality as an integral and indispensable part of that whole. This type of psychological attainment does not just happen. As a matter of fact, it is a reciprocal gesture of an act of responsibility that a part stretches towards a whole. It is
not a forced loyalty but earned. In statesmanship, it results in patriotism and spirit of nationalism. This is the kind of scenario that multicultural societies and diverse institutions like the Nigerian system ought to strive hard to attain. This is a basic human yearning. Consequently, for human flourishing to be at its peak, the conditions for the attainment of this yearning must be made utmost priority by state actors, institution managers and cohesive world agents like the United Nation Organization (UNO).

Indeed, having a sense of belonging by different component parts that constitute a whole engenders a greater sense of value, recognition and sense of security. In other words, a feeling of the sense of belonging guarantees security and stability for the system as every part would work for the sustenance of the whole because its disintegration or misfortune would gravely affect the well-being of the parts. But on the contrary, a feeling of exclusion kills creativity and solidarity, jeopardizes common objective and brings down institutional cum national performances to their lowest ebbs. It decreases the sense of commitment and honesty as every part would decide to be complacent and watch things degenerate to the ridiculous. Could it be right to say that this is the current state of affairs in most African societies? Well, we shall leave that for political scientist to answer.

However, the view that this paper holds strongly remains that a peaceful world order cannot be attained by calculative (exclusivist) approach to thinking because it forces truth to show up by deliberately excluding other unfamiliar components and when this happens, the revealing capacity that is derived in openness and in the feeling of belongingness withdraws. It is in the inclusivist sense that we understand diversity to mean a state of recognition, valuing and accepting the reality of people's or entities' differences, backgrounds, orientations, abilities, needs, opinions, idiosyncrasies and nuisance values. This manner of understanding promotes eclecticism, cross-fertility of ideas and creates a cohesive system, society and mutually benefitting human relation. It is the inclusivist application of diversity that confers on systems or institutions legitimacy, moral credibility and stability. It means creating allowance for contraries to exhibit their possibilities. It is an attitude of not always wanting to appropriate an encyclopedia of wisdom, knowledge and methodology to any singular authority. Instead, it is a manner of existence in which we acknowledge that "what does not appeal to us may appeal to someone else; that what we do not feel can be felt by another person; that what we cannot see can be seen by someone else" (Unah, 1997, p.342).

When we understand diversity in this way is when we can be said to understand the value of diversity. Inclusivist understanding of diversity does not discard any view as absolute nothing. Instead, it recognizes and encourages all specters of ideas, method, solutions to come on board in such a way that in the end, it would be clear that there is a form of sense and meaning in all the aggregated angles. In this way, it eliminates the dichotomy between calculative rationality and meditative thinking, between the western/scientific method and the traditional/supra-scientific perspective. The emphasis instead, would be on achieving effective result and adding value to human life. This kind of feeling reinforces our humanity and sustains the earth. The approach to diversity in this form ushers in tremendous organizational benefits which include; greater customer satisfaction with better market position, robust decision-making outcome and an enhanced ability to reach strategic goals (Riordan, 2014).

In contemporary times, the virtue of inclusivity appears to have taken the back stage because of what we earlier described as human tendencies not to let be of what is. Thus, is the calculative nature of man which main aim is to have a controlled outcome of experience. Simply put, it is an instrumental form of rationality. It is the fallout of the drive to institute human will as the arbiter of experience. With rationality understood in this way, man is left
with the impression that there is always a quick-fix to every problem. It is akin to what Riordan (2014), calls the influence of strong social norms and disapproval from dominant partners. By dominant partners here, I suppose he is referring to what Karl Marx describes as the tendency for the ruling ideology being determined by the ruling class in a capitalist setting (Marx, 1867, 1848; Ogundowole, 1989). Little wonder that Kofi Annan (2013), in a speech at the “Global Center for Pluralism”, stated emphatically that “if diversity is seen as a source of strength, societies can become healthier, more stable and prosperous. But there is another side of the coin if we fail to manage the conflicting pressures that pluralism inevitably brings”. The dangers of failing to heed the call for inclusivity he says increase the feeling of marginalization, oppression, conflict and violence.

**Sustaining the Culture of Participation and Disclosure through the Inclusivist Terms of Diversity**

The mood and feeling which our discussion of inclusivist approach to diversity above evokes into consciousness is that of identity, tolerance and recognition. This is in line with the meditative mode of being. The conviction being that when entities and people which manifest varying degrees of differences are given recognition and accorded respects for their varying identities, frictions and fragmentations in human society would drastically reduce to the barest minimum, if not totally eradicated. The way to achieve this is not to clamour for a unified world outlook (in the sense which the proponents of globalization often intend) or to have a one true story about the world. It is not by championing a stronger center as often the case in most heterogeneous societies like Nigeria. In fact, it is an indirect invitation to anarchy to try to subjugate a diverse society by whipping everybody into line. In the same vein, the exclusivist view that truth and salvation must be universal values is by itself antithetical to the threshold upon which the term diversity stands.

On the contrary, the most embalming way to heal the wound inflicted on humanity by exclusivist drive to diversity is to begin to encourage varying cultures, beliefs, ideologies and peculiarities towards achieving a global civilization where people, races, life-ways are brought on board to express themselves the very way they truly feel in a properly guided manner. In other words, we can have a world order in which “certain views are shared, but within the borders of subcultures” (Viljoen-Terblanche, 2008: 100). It is within this culture of global consciousness derived as a synthesis of sectional consciousness that diversity would mean a blessing. It is to be noted that the emphasis placed on the term “guided” above is to show that, while we clamour for diversity of views, positions, life-ways, et cetera, such must be “guided” to take shape in a non-compelling manner so that the objective of diversity is not eroded by rancorous and supremacy tussle often thrown up under a multiplicity of experience. To sustain a culture of participation within a multiplicity of experience, the adoption of the attitude of live and let live is the required ethical code.

This kind of culture, if entrenched in human relation and organizational operation, would build and restore trust and enhance the feeling of security in the system. There is no doubt that people would go to any length to protect and defend the interest of any system which guarantees their wellbeing, and which gives them advantage over others. In fact, when this kind of situation is the order, the people will by themselves, form fortresses around the organization, knowing that its failure will lead to collective downfall. But when a part begins to feel detached from the whole, the motivation for commitment to its course begins to water down. For people to truly express themselves the way they feel, under a well guided manner, there ought to be a continuous and unhindered access to inclusive dialogue, negotiation and compromise. The culture of dialogue of language, ideas and meanings reinforces the resilience of the society,
while arbitrariness and will to power becomes its albatross. Inability for institutions and societies to guarantee the former increases the risk of conflict and all forms of agitations.

Consequently, in some situations, weaker component units are bullied into the state of conformity and pretentious silence. In other words, a given situation in a rigid society or institution where individuals or constituent units may, out of the fear of being seen and treated as renegade and as a conquered party, decide to pretentiously play along in a conspiratorial silence and watch the system collapse. In such state of affairs therefore, individuals may, out of pretence, behave as though they share common objective and destiny with the system, but in actual fact, they care-less because there is no feeling of a sense of belonging towards the system or institution. This again, is the most dangerous way to run a system because it only serves as the fastest way to hasten a system’s disintegration. An inclusive system must learn how to leverage the unique perspectives of all varying component units effectively. Thus, “the unique contribution of this study orbits around the phenomenon of Inclusivity. The phenomenon is uniquely positioned as a radical methodology contributing to sustainable transformational results” (Viljoen-Terblanche, 2008, p.17). In the light of the stated, our notion of inclusive diversity in this study is geared towards attaining a state of affairs in a plural system whereby every part sees itself as being recognized, and valued as a stakeholder, and in turn, strives towards optimal performance and stability of the system. We are fully convinced that in getting everybody involved in the quest to attain either a national or group objective, the room for sabotage and resentment are drastically minimized. On the contrary, we state that a divisive and alienating culture of exclusive sense of diversity heightens individuals’ feeling of dissatisfaction, decrease commitment and cohesiveness, and in the end leave every part working towards disintegration of the whole (ibid, p.51). The most damaging outcome of this state of affairs is that motivation and productivity levels dwindle to the abysmal point. This appears to be exactly the case in most multicultural, multiethnic and multi-religious societies of our world with African societies as case studies. For instance, a crucial aspect of diversity in terms of human concrete social terms is ethnic diversity. Ethnic diversity is a social reality and big problem in most third world nations, particularly in African society. According to Elijah and Usoro (2016, p.140), “a society is plural if it is culturally diverse and if its cultural sections are organized into cohesive political sections”. The inability of leadership to effectively manage ethnic diversity in African societies has engendered a situation where at first; people pay more allegiance to their immediate ethnic descent before considering national patriotism. Thus, this inept management of diversity in this perspective has become the bane of progress, development and happiness in the African social order. As a consequence, among African states, all that abounds according to the poem of William Yeasts The Second Coming, is:

Turning and turning in the widening gyre
The falcon cannot hear the falconer;
Things fall apart; the center cannot hold;
Mere anarchy is loosed upon the world
(cf.Jones and Fogelin, 1997, p.2)

This phenomenon again reinforces our belief that except diversity is approached in the inclusivist terms, diversity becomes a fertile ground for conflicts to breed and societies to disintegrate. Against the danger that exclusivist approach to diversity brings, we insist that there must be a sustained culture of free participation and unhindered access to open discourse.
for all sheds of perspectives to make their contribution towards the greatness of the overall system. As it stands at the moment, among African states, there is palpable disconnect between component units and the center. This widening gap must have to be bridged for the benefits of inclusivity, equality and diversity to be fully reaped. One of the ways in ensuring a bridge of this widening gap, we posit, is the initiation of processes for a genuine national discourse (not dubious reconciliatory conferences) to enable component units discuss their differences, how they truly feel, and then renegotiate the bases for their integration into a whole. This will increase the sense of inclusion and belongingness.

SUMMARY

In this article, an attempt has been made at exposing the various ways of understanding the concept of diversity and their corresponding implications to actions in line with calculative and meditative modes of being. The concept of diversity, the paper explains, expresses a situation in which different components constitute a whole in a uniquely different manner. It was also described as a condition of affairs in which entities such as peoples, races, cultures, life ways or practices manifest varying degrees of differences and identities. Accordingly, two broad ways of understanding diversity were further distinguished. It is said that diversity could be understood in terms of exclusivity or better still, it could be understood in terms of inclusivity. When understood in exclusivist terms, diversity becomes a problem because vital aspects of reality are decreed out of recognition, support and attention, only because they fail the test of familiarity. But when understood in inclusivist terms, diversity becomes a blessing as it then allows unfettered access of all persons and groups to discourse, to participation, to care and attention.

Attempts were made to show how these two modes of understanding diversity correspond to the two modes of thinking about the world. In this way, while calculative rationality better captures the exclusivist mode of diversity, the meditative procedure corresponds with the inclusivist sense of diversity. The point that was made in the final analysis was that each of these temperaments has a corresponding consequence on human relation and the search for authentic peaceful world order. To show how these temperaments manifest in our daily experience, we looked into different areas of human engagement. From the human concrete social experience, it was said that exclusivist approach to diversity kills human solidarity and probably accounts for the many troubles facing human relation today.

On the other hand, the research eulogized the virtues of inclusive diversity as one which engender integration, restores the feeling of belonging, trust and security in any system. However, in other not to defeat the very principle that inclusivity aims to promote, the essay insisted that not everything that must be included. In other words, whatever that does not enhance and promote human solidarity, unity and tranquility, such thing must be excluded from the scheme of things. When this situation obtains, exclusion becomes a legitimate action. In as much as waiting for the other enthrones human solidarity and care for the other, care must be taken in order not to kill the ingenuity in an individual with high flying spirit. In other words, while human essence is better actualized when existence becomes shared, such necessity for the otherness must not be allowed to dwarf individual authenticity. In the final analysis, while we cherish the principle of letting-be as the right phenomenological attitude for authentic peace, we insist that human beings must always summon the will to despise what is despicable when the need arises.

In view of this, we conclude that for the principles of diversity in multicultural system to be actualized, the recognition of contraries must be made an actionable policy. It is only through
the recognition of contraries and unique individualities that human brings can enthrone authentic peaceful world order.

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PEACE EDUCATION AND COUNSELLING: A TOOL FOR CONFLICT RESOLUTION IN AFRICA

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ABSTRACT
This paper is a discourse on as a tool for conflict resolution in Africa. The importance of peace education and counselling cannot be over emphasized. Lives and properties worth millions of naira have been lost whenever conflicts occurs. The concept of peace education was defined as an inter-disciplinary area peace education and counselling of education whose goal is both institutionalized and non-teaching about peace and for peace. Also discussed were counselling and conflict resolutions as well as an overview of conflicts in Nigeria and Africa. It looked at how to achieve a violence free society through peace education and counselling. Peace education and counselling can be a bridge builder over the dividing lines of conflicts. There are strategies to be employed in conflicts resolution which included avoidance, competing, accommodating etc. Finally, some recommendations were suggested among which are, establishment of peace education and counselling units in all ministries of education in Nigeria and other African countries as well as introducing peace education in teacher training programs.

INTRODUCTION
The modern-day society has been characterised with conflicts and violence. These have adverse effects on the physical and psychological well-being of society. Hence conflict resolution is a topic of concern to the society as a whole. Perceptions and opinions regarding the increase of conflicts at all levels and in all spheres of the country and in Africa at large result in an increased attention to this issue. It is becoming more alarming as conflicts are occurring in almost all the countries of the world. There has been so much conflicts in the society either as inter-communal, inter-religious, inter-ethnic among others. This has led to loss of lives and properties together worth millions of naira. This calls for the need for peace education and counselling which to the opinion of the authors will go a long way in making the society safer and better to live in.

Peace education is a type of education providing knowledge, skills, attitudes and values that enable the establishment of harmonious relations and resolution of conflicts in a constructive manner (Johnson and Johnson 2006). According to Sommers (2003), peace education helps to develop communication skills of active listening and assertive speech, problem solving skills of brain-storming or consensus building and orientation skills of cultural awareness and empathy. Counselling on the other hand is a professional assistance in a one-to-one relationship
between an individual troubled by problems with which he cannot cope alone with, and a professional worker whose training and experiences has qualified him to help others reach solutions to various types of personal difficulties (Umezulike in Mmaluekonam 2008). Counselling is also seen as a personalised dialogue or interaction between the client experiencing a problem and the counsellor who tries to render help. Experiences and researches have shown that conflicts stem from an individual’s inability to exert some control over himself-emotionally, psychologically, physically and otherwise. This inability most often then is conceived by disagreement among individuals, communities, religious groups, tribes/ethnic groups etc. This paper therefore tends to discuss how peace education and counselling will help to resolve many conflicts in Africa and Nigeria in particular.

The Concepts of Peace, Peace Education and Counselling

Peace in general terms refers to conflict and violence-free state. Peace describes a situation full of harmony and tranquillity. It is also a situation devoid of terror, intimidation, and war. Peace has been described as a state of tranquility, quiet and harmony; absence of violence. It is a state free of oppression and unpleasant thoughts and emotions- a state free from war, in particular war between different countries. For a comprehensive understanding of peace, let us look at various definitions of the concept by scholars. Peace is not merely the absence of war, of law, of order in a government but the presence of justice (Sandy and Perkins 2002). Peace is the absence of violence in all its forms-physical, social, psychological and structural (Reardon 2002).

The World Book Encyclopaedia (1971), defines peace as a state of being calm, quiet and being free from disturbances. According to Hornby (1998), Peace is defined as quietness, serenity, mental calm, tranquillity, freedom or cessation from war as well as freedom from civil disorder. Peace is the concept of harmonious well-being and freedom from hostile aggression. In a social sense, peace is commonly used to mean a lack of conflict (such as war) and freedom from fear of violence, between individuals or heterogeneous groups.

From the foregoing, the concept has some underlying values: non-violence, absence of war, absence of conflict/hostility and presence of justice, law, order, trust, freedom etc. The common synonyms for peace include; tranquility, concord, harmony repose, pacification and neutrality. Peace can be positive and negative. Positive peace involves the search for positive conditions which can resolve the underlying causes of conflict that produce violence while negative peace is a state requiring a set of social structures that provide security and protection from acts of direct physical violence committed by individuals (Sandy and Perkins 2002).

Peace education could be defined as an interdisciplinary area of education whose goal is institutionalised and non-institutionalised teaching about peace and for peace. Peace education aims to help students acquire skills for non-violence conflict. Its aim is to prevent a conflict in advance or rather to educate individuals and a society for a peaceful co-existence on the basis of non-violence, tolerance, equality and respect for differences and social justice.

Peace education is education promoted to enhance rewarding human relationship. Ololubou (2000), referred to peace education as training through controlled, planned and unplanned activities that instil in individual’s peace knowledge skills, values, attitudes which help them to relate appropriately with their environment for the benefit of the society. Thus, one can say that, peace education entails the inculcation of culture of justice and equity as basis for harmony within the various facets of society paving way for advancement.
Generally speaking, peace education should be taught at all levels of education and all functional educational systems. Peace education should be able to contribute towards changing the world. It should reduce the willingness of individuals to resort to violence and uncover and eliminate structure of violence in human relations across the globe. According to Lin and Stichwort (1999), the objectives of peace education can be summarised thus:

i. Use teaching and learning methods that stress participation, problem solving and respect for differences.

ii. Enable children to put peace-making into practice in the educational setting as well as in the wider society.

iii. Generate opportunities for continuous reflection and professional development of all educators in relation to issues of peace injustice and rights.

The challenge facing peace education is to make education programmes and indeed, education system as a whole ‘conflict sensitive’. After many years of discussion, the Inter-agency Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE) has systemised the experience gathered to date and published various documents including guidelines for the development and delivery of conflict sensitive education programmes. In this context, conflict sensitive education is defined with three core elements (INEE 2013:12); understanding the context in which education takes place, analysing the interaction between the context and educational programmes and policies and acting to minimise negative impacts and maximise positive impacts of education policies and programmes on conflict within an organisation’s given priorities (Fulya Turk 2017).

Counselling as a concept is an educational programme designed to help individuals live not only productive lives but also contribute their quota in the overall development of the community where they find themselves. Counselling is a learning process by which the client is helped by the counsellor to behave in a rewarding and satisfying manner. Individuals whose behaviour are rewarding and satisfying cannot engender conflicts in their environment. Umezulike in Mmaduakonam (2005) stressed that counselling is a process by which a troubled person is assisted to full and behave in a more personally satisfying manner through interaction with an involved person. The counsellor provides information and reactions which stimulate the client to develop behaviours which enable him to deal effectively with himself and his environment.

The above definition implies that counselling is concerned with creating opportunities and suitable environments for the individual, adjustment in the society. Counselling according to Dustin and George in Mmaduakom (2008), is a learning process aimed at increasing adaptive behaviours. Conflicts sometimes occur as a result of an individual’s lack of adaptive skills. In this context, counselling can be summarised as a process of helping individuals in decision making, understanding themselves and adjusting to their environment.

OVERVIEW OF CONFLICT IN Nigeria AND AFRICA
Conflict is inevitable in any group relationship in Nigeria and Africa as a whole, it may manifest in teamwork or when nations interact with each. In fact, conflict is viewed as unavoidable and natural. It is, therefore, obvious that conflict is a permanent feature of any human organisation and can assume any dimension.

Conflict cannot be discussed in Nigeria without reference to Boko haram insurgency and Fulani Herdsmen. In Nigeria conflict between farmers and Fulani herdsman over agricultural land and crops has become an issue for urgent attention. Many communities in the country have either had or are currently having disputes with herdsman. Farmers lay blame on cattle rearers for
destroying their farm land while the cattle rearers accuse the farmers and their host communities of killing/stealing their livestock leading to clashes between both parties. Aggressions are also stirred up whenever cattle, on their feeding quest, eat up cultivated farmlands destroying the soil with their hoofs thereby rendering the soil unproductive for planting.

Boko Haram which is another source of conflict in Nigeria reared its ugly head in 2002 in Maiduguri. Space would not allow us to relate one after the other the nefarious activities of this deadly group called “Boko Haram” in the North East Nigeria and other surrounding areas. The most acclaimed onslaught of this group that attracted international outcry was the abduction of over 219 students of government secondary school in chibok in Borno State, Nigeria on the night of April 14, 2014. The deadly disaster of bombing St Theresa’s Catholic Church Madalla Niger State on December 25, 2011 cannot be hurriedly forgotten. Many Christians died in the attack. Other incidences include, the attack of Christians in Kaduna on June 17, 2012, the attack of Christians in Potiskum Yobe State on November 4, 2011, the killing of 70 persons in Michika L.G. Area of Adamawa on October 4, 2014, Jos bombing on Sunday 25th July, 2015 killing about 48 persons. These are but few activities of the Boko Haram which has thrown the country into conflicts.

In Africa, some scholars consider the numerous conflicts as a natural consequence of Africa’s colonial past. Cohen (1995), asserted that the sources of Africa’s internal conflicts have their roots in colonialism, the subsequent process of de-colonisation and state formation. For Cohen, the colonial state was fraught with contradictions. The modern African state was created by colonial powers out of ethnic and religious diversities and rendered conflictual by gross inequalities in power and even distribution of national wealth and development opportunities (Cohen 1995). In other words, the basis had been created for the many of the conflicts in post-independence Africa. He argued that “conflicts recurring instability, and bad government in Zaire, Rwanda and Burundi can be traced back to the hasty and unprepared granting of independence by Belgium in 1960. He also considered the major wars in Angola and Mozambique as arising out of “panic de-colonisation” from a revolutionary and chaotic Portugal in 1974. Conflict situation is veritable in many African countries from Uganda and Sudan, through Chad and Cameroon, to Angola, Zimbabwe and others. Power and bad governance, tradition inherited from colonial rule and the nature of de-colonisation, have been a major source of conflicts in Africa.

CONFLICT RESOLUTION
Conflict is a normal part of any healthy relationship. Two people, nations cannot be expected to agree on everything all the time. The key is not to avoid conflict but to learn to resolve it in a healthy manner. When conflict is mismanaged, it can cause great harm to an existing relationship but when handle in a respectful, positive way can produce an opportunity to strengthen the bond between two people/nations. Conflicts arise from differences, both large and small. It occurs whenever people/nations disagree over their values, motivation, perception, ideas or desire. Sometime these differences appear trivial but when a conflict triggers strong feeling, a deep personal need is often at the core of the problem. These unmet needs can range from feeling safe and secure, respected and valued, or lacking greater closeness and intimacy. Conflict resolution is conceptualised as the method and process involved in facilitating the peaceful ending of conflict and retribution (Wikipedia 2017). Conflict resolution is a process through which two or more parties find a peaceful solution to a disagreement among them. The disagreement may be personal, financial, political, or emotional. When a dispute arises, often the best course of action is negotiation to solve the
disagreement. The term conflict resolution may be used interchangeable with dispute resolution where arbitration and litigation process are critically involved. Committed group members attempt to resolve group conflict by actively communicating motives or ideologies to the rest of the group and by engaging in collective negotiation. Dimensions of resolution typically parallel the dimensions of conflict in the way the conflict is processed. Behavioural resolution is reflective of how the disputants act, that is there behaviour. Ultimately, a wide range of methods and procedure for addressing conflict exist, including negotiation, mediation-arbitration, diplomacy and creative peace building and counselling education. The concept of conflict resolution can be thought to encompass the use of non-violent resistance measure by conflicted parties in an attempt to promote effective resolution.

People deal with conflict in a variety of ways. Therefore, there is the need for different conflict resolution strategies. Thomas Kilmann (2016), developed five conflict resolution strategies that people use to handle conflict, including: avoiding defeating, compromising accommodating and collaborating. It suggested that everyone has preferred ways of responding to conflict, but mostly people use all methods under various circumstances. It is helpful to understand the five methods particularly when one intends to move a group forward.

- **Conflict resolution strategy I Avoiding:** Avoiding is when people just ignore or withdraw from the conflict. People choose this method when the discomfort of confrontation exceeds the potential award of resolution of the conflict while this might see easy to accommodate for the facilitator, people are not really contributing anything of value to the conversation and conflict is avoided worthwhile ideas. When conflict is avoided, nothing is resolved.
- **Conflict Resolution Strategy II Competing:** Competing is used by people who go into a conflict planning to win. They’re assertive and not cooperative. This method is characterised by the assumption that one side wins and everyone else loses. It doesn’t allow room for diverse perspective into a well-informed total picture. Competing might be good in sports or war but it is rarely a good strategy for group problem solving.
- **Conflict Resolution Strategy III: Accommodating:** Accommodating is a strategy where one party gives in to the wishes or demands of another. They are being cooperative but not assertive. This may appear to be a gracious way to give in when one figures out, he/she has been wrong about an agreement. It is less helpful when one party accommodates another merely to preserve harmony or to avoid disruption like avoidance it can result in unresolved issues. Too much accommodation can result in groups where the most assertive parties commandeer the process and take control of most conversation.
- **Conflict Resolution Strategy IV: Collaborating:** Collaborating is the method used when people are both assertive and cooperative. A group may learn to allow each participant to make a contribution with the possibility of co-creating a shared solution that everyone supports. A great way to collaborate and overcome conflict is to reach out and touch them.
- **Conflict Resolution Strategy V: Compromising:** Another strategy is compromising where participants are partially assertive and cooperative. The concept is that everyone gives up a little bit of what they want. The perception of the best outcome when working by compromise is that which “splits the differences”. Compromise is perceived as being fair, even if no one is particularly happy with the final outcome.

Africa as a continent is not left without conflict. There are conflicts in the political, economic and religious sectors. Africa is not left also without ethnical/tribal conflicts. The above
discussed strategies if applied in African countries will not only end conflicts and violence but will also ensure enhanced economic and religious activities among the nations of Africa.

THE ROLE OF PEACE EDUCATION AND COUNSELLING IN CONFLICT RESOLUTION IN AFRICA

It is often said that, it is very difficult to bring an end to conflict once it has started. It is very difficult to prevent conflict in Nigeria talk more of Africa. There is therefore need for peace education and counselling to curb the incessant conflicts among different countries, ethnic groups, religious groups etc. Most people believed that conflict is a negative force that should be resolved in order to achieve more positive states such as harmony, understanding and peace in our lives. Nevertheless, from personal inner conflict to global wars and international violence (Nwawube 2017). Conflict is unavoidable. It is however the position of this paper that peace education and counselling will go a long way towards reducing the impact of conflicts on our nation and Africa globally. Peace education and counselling is a possible panacea to the present conflict situations among ethnic, religious and countries of Africa.

Peace education and counselling should not only be included in the curriculum but also should be taught at all levels of education across the globe. This will go a long way to inculcating the culture of peaceful co-existence and tolerance among the countries of Africa. It will invariably reduce the incidence of clashes between ethnic and religious groups in Africa. Peace education and counselling when channelled through the course content of school curriculum will help the citizenry internalise what peace education has to offer and the essence of peaceful co-existence.

According to Nwawube (2017), the content of peace education curriculum should include accommodation, endurance, love, equity, dignity, rights, responsibilities, mortality, custom and traditions among others. The content of counselling education should include among others; self-development, self-awareness, respect for the worth and dignity of others, respect for the rule of law etc. If these course contents are taught and internalised, they will provide a higher pedestal of understanding why people belong to different religions and ethnic groups. It will also instil in the citizenry the true spirit of accommodation and tolerance for one another and above all, it will expose the dangers and consequences of conflict/war.

CONCLUSION

From the foregoing, it can be deduced that peace education and counselling is an invaluable tool for sustainable peace and conflict resolution in Africa. Peace education and counselling as have been observed earlier will help to bring about peace and reduce conflicts among the countries of Africa. It makes for peaceful co-existence among different ethnic and religious groups in Africa. The concepts of peace, peace education and counselling were discussed to buttress the need for peaceful co-existence. The role of peace education and counselling in actualization of peace and resolution of conflicts in African were also discussed.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations were put forward to achieve conflict resolution through peace and education and counselling:

1. Peace education and counselling unit should be established in all ministries of education across African countries.
2. Peace education should be included in teacher training programmes.
3. Moral instruction should be emphasised in all religions. This will help to foster greater peaceful co-existence.

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THE POWER OF LISTENING IN COMMUNICATION: PANACEA TO CONFLICT MANAGEMENT IN PEACE EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT
Few people realize that listening is such a difficult process. Every day we are faced with misunderstandings leading to serious conflicts because of our poor listening habits. The skill of listening has a crucial role in the areas of business, education and conflict management. This paper is about listening efficiently and effectively enough to resolve conflicts. The paper discusses basic concepts in the topic, namely, Conflict resolution, Conflict management, Education and Management, Communication, Power of listening, causes of conflicts, barriers in conflict management, how to minimize the possibilities of conflicts, techniques to resolve students riot, consequences of conflict on school children in conflict areas in Nigeria, Conclusion and Recommendations on the way forward.

Keywords: Communication, Conflict, Education, Management, Panacea, & Peace.
INTRODUCTION
There are challenges for Education managers on conflict management and crisis resolution in the learning environment. Heads of schools must be aware that there is need for them as chief executives to know how to manage crisis among students, and personnel, both senior and junior staff. Conflicts could be among groups or between individuals in which actions and interactions are mutually incompatible and opposed to particular issues of interest at a point in time, thereby leading to violence and breakdown of law and order. The purpose of education is to change people. Efficient listening helps in bringing change in all of us. For the good of the people and the society, we want people to turn out differently from how they would if left to themselves. Education will change the way they think, act and feel, inshort, to change their behaviour. They are to behave more knowledgeably; more skillfully, more confidently, more sympathetically, more rationally, more independently and so on. And a good listener is better at all these (Ahuja and Ahuja 2006).

In actual practice most of us are relatively poor listeners. Our listening behavior could be made more effective and more efficient. Given the amount of time we engage in listening, the improvement of that skill would seem worth the required effort. And it really does take effort. Listening is not an easy matter, it takes time and energy to listen effectively.

This field of communication is exciting, fast moving, and rapidly growing. It leads to a good intellectual exercise. The listening part of it promises practical applications in ones daily life. It has implications for one as a listener and as a human being as far as resolving conflicts through listening is concerned. Resolving conflicts constructively requires that you listen to the other person's thoughts, feelings and requirements from that angle. There is nothing more important in resolving conflicts than understanding how the other person views the conflict. It is certainly much easier to resolve a conflict when the other person feels understood. The more skilled one is in listening from others point of view, the more skilled one will be in resolving conflicts constructively. Usually, conflicts, when skillfully managed, can be of great value. The way one listen and respond to another person is crucial for building or breaking a relationship (Ahuja and Ahuja, 2006).

Conflict is an integral part of human existence, hence, there is need for conflict resolution. It is regarded as a struggle between people who are at variance in respect of needs, ideas, beliefs, values, or goals. Conflict can be functional or dysfunctional (Obinaju and Etudor-Eyo, 2014). Conflicts are functional when they are constructive, supportive of organizational goals, problem solving and improving performance. The dysfunctional type of conflicts consists of disputes and disagreements that hinder organizational performance. People here are unwilling to work together to solve problems, and always personal or interpersonal in nature. Conflict has to do with essential human needs (Burton, 1990 and Azar, 1990) and it is the denial which causes violent conflicts that degenerate into armed conflict. Therefore, to prevent conflict from getting to the dysfunctional type, there is need for conflict resolution. This paper maintain that the conceptualization of conflict resolution emerged as an alternative means of resolving rather than merely settling of disputes. In the light of these facts, it is necessary to expose the learners to basic skills that could help them resolve conflict among peers and others through the power of listening as an aspect of communication in teaching and learning process.
Concept of Conflict Resolution
It is any process or collection of processes established to resolve disputes without trial or violence (Association for conflict resolution, 2010 and 2013). These processes encourage non-violent dispute resolution outside of the traditional court system. The traditional conflict resolution strategies outside the court system include negotiation (dialogue with parties concerned), conciliation (involving neutral person), meditation (help parties reach their own agreement), settlement conferences (dispute in court settled without trial), Arbitration (a quasi-judicial process reviewed by neutral people and binding decisions made), consensus building (like mediation where disputants take their own agreement for settlement by opening line of communication), community conferencing (bringing affected members of the community to agree and repair the harm).
However, some conflicts, as earlier noted, may result in the destruction of lives and properties, constant displacement and insecurity. This type of conflict is violent in nature and could result to the use of force and arms to ameliorate casualties envisaged among incompatible interest. Adetula (2006) is of the opinion that this could disrupt the processes of individual or group production to creates condition for diverting attention from resource production to servicing war, hence the urgent need to resolving such conflicts.
To this end holistic education becomes expedient for all round training towards the development of both conflict resolution and self-protection skills. In effect, education starts at birth for children and formal education comes a few years later at very impressionable ages. Any information passed to people in childhood years are not easily forgotten because children value and absorb every information passed to them. The subject matter for peace education is avoidance of conflicts and the application of self-protection. It would therefore be profitable to teach certain rudiments of peaceful co-existence from tender ages and progress along as children move from one class and level of education to another. Such teaching should not be confined to one subject area. Peace education should be component of every subject in the curriculum. It should be taught historically using Bloom's taxonomy of educational objectives as expanded by Krathwohl and Anderson (2001). Therefore, the ability of protecting oneself is termed self-protection, it simply means an art of protecting oneself from ills or any form of danger. It also means avoiding risks. It is the responsibility of everyone including the learner. For instance, in China when bandits came through villages robbing and killing, the village hired a martial arts instructor to teach them to defend themselves. It can be emulated in times like this. (Wordpressblog, 2012).
Conflict Management
This refers to the long-term management of irresolvable conflicts. It is the label for the variety of ways by which people handle grievances - standing up for what they consider to be right and against what they consider to be wrong. It should be noted that conflict management is often considered to be distinct from conflict resolution. While conflict management is concerned with an ongoing process that may never have a resolution, conflict resolution refers to the settlement of the dispute to the approval of one or both parties. Conflict transformation seeks to reframe the positions of the conflicting parties. When personal conflict leads to frustration and loss of efficiency, counseling may prove to be a helpful antidote. Given some training, managers may be able to perform this function called nondirective. Counseling which is based on client-centered therapy developed by Carl Roger (Henry and Borje, 1971). Sometimes the simple process of being
able to vent one's feelings, that is, to express them to a concerned and understanding listener, is enough to relieve frustration and make it possible for the frustrated individual to advance to a problem-solving frame of mind, better able to cope with a personal difficulty that is affecting his or her work adversely. This is allowed provided it will resolve the conflict otherwise a trained psychological specialist may be required. After all no one has ever been harmed by being listened to sympathetically and understandingly. On the contrary this approach has helped many people to cope with problems that were interfering with their effectiveness on the job (Richard, 1979).

**Education and management**

Education cannot be acquired without teaching and learning. Oranushi (1980) defined education as both product and process of transmission of cultural heritage from one generation to another. As a product, education is what we receive through training, learning, ideals, knowledge, techniques etc, as a process it involves the act of learning itself. In its technical sense education is the process of deliberately handling down of knowledge from one generation to another through the school and other agents of socialization like the organized mass media, facebook, radio, television, film show, newspapers etc. In this sense education is a continuous process which goes throughout one's lifetime.

**Management**

Management in education involves strategy, innovation, initiating and bringing about change, creativity, problem solving and decision making, it is actively seeking for alternatives and opportunities reformulating goals and priorities, redeploying resources, negotiating, resolving conflicts, dynamic or active leadership, diplomacy, statesmanship and a high degree of risk-taking and entrepreneurship. (Nwankwo, 2014).

Causes of bad management in an organization: where ever management principles and practices are pursued negatively without keeping to the laid down rules and regulations, management will be defective, and its effectiveness and efficiency will be greatly lowered and management will therefore be said to be bad and conflict sets in.

Major causes of bad management are:

- Bad management arises when the manager is unable to direct or influence the achievement of their subordinates towards a positive end.
- Poor leadership qualities also contribute to bad management.
- In accessibility of superior by their subordinates, that is communication gap between both is wide
- Arrogance on the part of the manager (stubbornness)
- Unnecessary assumption: that is, assuming to have known everything when actual fact is, he or she does not know everything.

Communication on the other hand means, to pass or transfer news, information, or feelings from one person to another. Therefore, such information must not only be received by the receiver but must be understood. Communication therefore is not effective until the news, information and feelings have been received, decoded, understood and acted upon (feedback) in the way intended by the sender. Simply put, communication means the exchange of ideas between persons. It is a type of give and take process. It should be noted that noise is the greatest enemy to communication at the same time part of communication (Opara, 2009).
Power of Listening in Communication as a Technique in Conflict resolution

Listening techniques are used even more for mental than for physical health. A great part of psychiatric treatment consists of having the patient talk while the psychiatrist listens. Many religious leaders also make extensive use of listening as a counseling device with members of their congregation. Listening can be an effective and inexpensive therapy for a host of human problems and needs. Members of the legal profession are also heavily involved in listening while counseling with clients (Ahuja and Ahuja, 2006). Listening is the lifeblood of relationships. Nothing flatters a person more or makes him feel more important than to have an attentive listener, emphatically agreeing with whatever favourable comments he makes about himself.

Benefits of Listening in Communication and Conflict Resolution

According to Ahuja (2006) some benefits of listening include:

❖ Listening helps in Business by increasing the sales of products
❖ Failure in listening is a key cause of mistake, misunderstanding and conflicts
❖ Poor listening irritates people when the listener fears that disagreement will be penalized, he stops paying attention.
❖ Listening is a magnetic force that pulls people towards you. There is no surer way to make people like you than to pay them the compliment of interest and sympathy. Naturally, they prefer to deal with someone who is interested in them.
❖ Be an honest and interested listener. Let the other fellow talk. Find out about his children and welfare. As he talks to you and you listen, he will hand you the key to his personality. You learn something from everyone to whom you listen.
❖ To be successful in your life, talk less, listen more and listen as if you were going to be required to repeat verbatim whatever is being said.

Causes of Conflicts

Ahuja (2006) states that conflict exists as part of the human condition. It is an inescapable phenomenon in all social organizations from intercultural conflicts to organizational conflicts, the concept is ubiquitous in all patterned social relationships. Because of language barriers, non-verbal encoding and decoding differences, and value divergences, misunderstandings can easily lead to conflict. A conflict episode can be caused by external or internal pressure. It can also be overtly expressed or intra-personally repressed.

Persons may disagree about the criteria by which a proposal is to be judged. In such situations either people show their anger or stop listening altogether. Usually conflicts begin when competition becomes unfriendly. Competition is very good in itself as it brings out the best in people, as they strive to be top in their field, whether in sport, community affairs, politics or work. In fact, fair and friendly competition often leads to new sporting achievements, scientific inventions or outstanding effort in solving a community problem.

The most common causes of organizational conflicts include:

❖ Scarcity of resources (finance, equipment, facilities, etc.)
❖ Different attitudes, values or perceptions
❖ Disagreements about needs, goals, priorities and interests.
❖ Poor or inadequate organizational structure
❖ Lack of team work
❖ Lack of clarity in roles and responsibilities

People have differing styles of communication ambitions, political or religious views and different cultural backgrounds. In our diverse society, the possibility of these differences leading to conflict between individuals is always there, and we must be alert to preventing and resolving situations when conflict arises.

**Barriers in resolving conflicts**

When free exchange of ideas exists, there is also bound to be some conflict. Conflict should be managed not discouraged. To manage confrontations, remain issue - oriented. The use of appropriate listening skills will be helpful in this regard particularly not to allow the destruction of peaceful coexistence.

The emotional context in which conflict takes place often has a long history. Conflicts are more likely to be destructive when people come into them harbouring past resentments rather than mindful of each other's previous pleasing behaviours. Below are some of the important barriers in resolving conflicts effectively once they occur.

❖ Combative attitude
❖ Poor confrontation skills
❖ Bad timing
❖ Poor orientation to conflicts
❖ Threatening bodily communication and threatening vocal communication
❖ Poor use of language.

**Techniques to resolving conflicts**

Teamwork and cooperation are essential in an organization which aims to be effective and efficient, and not likely to be divided by conflicting factions. The best teamwork usually comes from having a shared vision or goal, so that leaders and members are all committed to the same objectives and understand their roles in achieving those objectives. Important behaviours in achieving teamwork and minimizing potential conflict include a commitment by team members to:

❖ Share information by keeping people in the group up-to-date with current issues
❖ Express positive expectations about each other
❖ Empower each other - publicly crediting colleagues who have performed well and encouraging each other to achieve results.
❖ Team-building-by promoting good morale and protecting the groups reputation with outsiders
❖ Resolve potential conflict-by bringing differences of opinion into the open and facilitating resolution of conflicts.
❖ We should recognize that conflict is not necessarily bad
❖ We should equally realize that conflict resolution is not synonymous with the elimination of difference
❖ There will always be differences, even disagreement among people. These are as natural as they are inevitable
❖ In conflict resolution, we wish to lessen the destructive and unproductive fighting, not to eliminate difference and diversity
In conflict resolution, it is very important to reestablish communication flow and mutual trust which were broken down.

A special attempt should be made in conflict situations to focus on the issues rather than on the personalities involved. Again, efforts should be made not to apportion so much blame on someone for being responsible for the conflict at this resolution stage, it is not very necessary. Conflicts, when skillfully managed can be of great value to relationship either personal or professional. It is also very important that we try to alleviate conflict-related problems. Conflict in relationships can effectively destroy the relationship. On the other hand, trying to manage conflict can be a learning and growing experience as both struggles to overcome the problem. Whether verbal or non-verbal, communication reduce tempers, settle misunderstandings, sort out problems and get the organization or people back to normal settings.

How to resolve students’ riot

Some riots are peaceful while others are violent. When the police arrive the riot ground and observe that demonstrators are marching and chanting songs but with violence, they should form a queue beside the procession and behind it without starting to arrest or beat them up. Throwing canisters of tear gas is not even helpful as each of these actions are capable of erupting violence from the demonstrators. During that police-guarded procession, one or two plain clothes policemen can enquire from the demonstrators and find out items they are carrying. An advanced information can be sent to guard the areas before the demonstrators arrive. A few canisters of tear gas can send them away especially when they are school children.

Furthermore, Nigeria is striving towards technological advancement. Live bullets should never be used on rioters whether adults or children. They should use rubber bullets to quell such minor civil disorder like students riots. If guns are to be carried at all, they should be used only to scare crowds. At worst, they should be fired into the air.

The police should educate the people on the fact that people can still hold a peaceful demonstration after being duly cleared by the police and their intentions for demonstration made public. This will help reduce the incidence of people breaking the law on feeling that their rights are being denied them.

Government is advised that future policies affecting students for instance, increase in school fees should be properly explained to them through the various school heads, the P.T.A and agencies involved in the education system.

Government should also adequately brief the press who are in a better position to reach the wider public through the newspaper, radio and television.

The misunderstanding between students and the policy formulators and executors is uncalled for. Students should know that no matter how legitimate their grievances are, they must seek redress constitutionally. If anybody is to raise an eye brow over any increase in the fees or levies they pay, it is their parents/guardians and not they are better disposed to do that because they provide the money. Destruction of government properties is not the right action because it is from public fund that those properties destroyed must be replaced and not the private money of any public functionary (Opara, 2009).

Consequences of conflict on school children in conflict areas in Nigeria

Several scholars often call for the provision of a "proper climate for the child's learning (Nwabochi, 2014) Invariably, this means that the learning environment should be carefully planned for an
effective teaching and learning. It is a general understanding and connotation that conflict is bad, antagonistic, hostile and unpleasant. Conflict in Africa and Nigeria in particular has caused a lot of untold hardship on our primary school pupils in so many areas. This hardship ranges from loss of parents or guardian, inadequate infrastructures, inadequate finance, loss of life, difficulty to recruit qualified teachers, increase in the rate of drop out, unwarranted displacement of children of primary school age etc.

**CONCLUSION**

Conflict is inevitable and that no relationship can expect to be totally free of it. To completely eliminate conflict is impossible. Therefore, if we want to maintain relationships, we must learn to manage it successfully. Conflict, it has been said, is necessary for learning to take place. Moreover, conflict is not necessarily destructive as long as we treat people with respect and honestly try to control the conflict. This technique does not offer specific solutions to specific conflicts, but it does suggest some general approaches to problems of conflict. The technique will really work wonders if we treat people as they should be treated. Conflict should be resolved and self-protection attained by adopting holistic education by educating the basic domains of the learner. There is no one best way to deal with conflict. It depends on the current situation. The most important way of dealing with it is to avoid it, pretend it is not there or ignore it. Only use it when you have a very strong convictions about your position and apply the attitude of compromising that is, mutual give-and-take approach in resolving it.

**RECOMMENDATIONS**

For the problems associated with this topic and for necessity attached to it, the following suggestions are made:

- Restructuring of the curriculum for primary and other levels of education in conflict areas.
- Introduction of boarding and classroom facilities for pupils in primary schools.
- Establishment of police and military posts near schools.
- Use of local languages.
- Establishment of effective counseling units.
- Recruitment and training of special teachers for conflict management.
- Health education: pupils should be properly grounded in primary health education to avoid outbreak of epidemic; else the gesture would turn out to be a failure. Teachers should emphasize on this at all times. The planning and management of the insurgence and restoring normalcy into the conflict areas is not a very easy-going matter. Recommendations will also include avoidance approach, global partnership, careful compromise, confrontation, incentive and encouragement, as well as inculcation of conflict-sensitive education.

In addition, the ministry of education, schools and instructors are enjoined to deploy this holistic approach in guiding the learners to develop intellectual skill for conflict resolution and self-protection.

The following tips on self-protection are recommended for learners.

- Always be alert and aware of the people around you.
- Educate yourself concerning prevention tactics.
- Be aware of locations and situations which would make you vulnerable to crime.
- Be alert to your surroundings and the people around you, especially if you are alone or it is dark.
❖ Whenever possible, travel with a friend
❖ Stay in well-lighted areas as much as possible.
❖ Walk close to people. Avoid doorways, bushes where someone could hide
❖ Walk confidently and at a steady pace.
❖ Make eye contact with people when walking
❖ Don't respond to conversation from stranger on the street, continue walking
❖ If you carry a purse, hold it securely between your arm and your body.
❖ Always lock car doors after entering or leaving your car
❖ Park in well-lighted areas
❖ Have your car keys in your hand, so that you don't have to linger before entering your car
❖ Check the back seat before entering your car
❖ If you think you are being followed, drive to a public place
❖ If your car breaks down, open the hood and attach a white cloth to the car antenna. If someone stops to help, stay in the locked car, roll down the window a little and ask them to call a tow service.
❖ Don't stop to aid motorists stopped on the side of the road. Go to a phone and request help for them.
❖ Avoid isolated bus stops
❖ Stand away from the curb until the bus arrives
❖ Don't open your purse or wallet while boarding the bus. Have your money already in your hand
❖ Don’t invite trouble - keep gold chains out of sight, don’t flash your jewelry and turn your rings around so that the stones don't show.
❖ During off-hours, sit as close to the bus driver as possible
❖ If someone bothers you, change seats or tell the driver.
❖ Check your purse or wallet if someone is pushing you or crowds around you.
❖ If you see any suspicious activity, tell the driver
❖ Don’t leave cash or valuables at the office
❖ If you work alone before or after normal business hours, keep the office door locked
❖ If you work late, try to find another worker or a security guard to walk out with you.
❖ Be aware of escape routes for emergencies and post the phone numbers of the police and fire department if the situation is life threatening (Abbatoy, 2013)

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THE COMPELLING POSITION OF PEACE EDUCATION IN TODAY’S SCHOOL SYSTEM

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ABSTRACT
The paper focused on the compelling position of peace education in today’s school system. The paper examined the emerging issues in schooling, modern school environment and prevalent challenges, the societal vices and need for peace education. The paper proposed the strategies for incorporating peace education in schools: Peace education class should be action oriented, little emphasis should be laid on theoretical aspect. This will give room for teachers to cover affective and psychomotor domains of Bloom taxonomy of educational objectives. Peace educators should be employed in the school at all levels, (The peace educator may be a counsellor or a retired teacher who has good record of service).

Emerging Trends in Schooling
Education is the foundation of development in any nation and as such it is expected to play a pivotal role in the advancement of technology, sustainability of its citizens and achievement of set goals and plans. Today, education in Nigeria is plagued by different problems ranging from poor funding which berths poor infrastructures; few lecture rooms/classrooms, lack of instructional materials which befit modern teaching such as projectors, computers and standard laboratories (Odia & Omofonmwan, 2007). The aforementioned problems facing the education sector in Nigeria are accompanied by social vices such as cultism, examination malpractice, bullying and corruption. No doubt, education is seen as a reliable and veritable tool in bringing development and growth in a nation and this encompasses the socio-cultural, economic and political spheres of a country.

Emerging and contemporary are synonymous as they both tend to share a common similarity. They are referred to issues or topics people are talking about or issues making the rounds at the moment. It is imperative to mention that schooling in Nigeria today has some pressing topics which have been in the literature and as such emerging trends in schools include: lack of funding, lack of safe
A vibrant educational system is mainly built on and determined by the substance of its curriculum content and how it is being implemented (Offorma, 2005). This implies that the curriculum should be in line with best practices. A valid and significant curriculum implies that graduates must have the needed competencies and dexterities in today’s society. In Nigeria, studies have shown the contrary as Kolawole, (2013) opined that tertiary institutions are not producing the expected high-quality graduates from different fields to reduce the population explosion experienced in the job market. With this assertion, it is imperative to call for an upward review of the curricula being run in these institutions as a way of addressing the problem of poor curriculum. The 26% budget allocation to education as recommended by the United Nations Educational and Scientific Cultural Organization (UNESCO, 2001) should serve as a blueprint for the Government if it desires to solve the teeming problem of unemployment as less than 8% of the budget is currently allocated to education.

Ojo (2002) remarked that there is a rapid fall in staff training and development in the education sector in Nigeria. Training and development in terms of workshops and seminars expose staff to the latest trends and best practices in educational advancement and where such training is lacking the educational sphere lacks the competencies it ought to dispense. This problem should be adequately addressed by the Government to enhance the teachers’ participation in trainings which bring the best in them to deliver in classrooms. The overall effect of lack of training leads to a sharp decline in quality of the teaching-learning process.

There exists an imbalance in theory and practical in most tertiary institutions in Nigeria (Emmanuel et al, 2012). A good school curriculum should cater for cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains in education sector. There must be a balance among the three aspects. If a teacher focuses on cognitive aspect alone at the detriment of affective and psychomotor activities, then the learning or intended outcomes become deficient as it will fail to address other domains of learning.

There is abundant evidence in the literature on the negative attitude of employers towards employees who are graduates from Nigerian tertiary institutions (Ezendu& Mohammed, 2013). The researchers also implored all concerned stakeholders to adequately address the gap in the curriculum currently being used in tertiary institutions as this would improve the quality of graduates churned out from tertiary institutions.

Safety is paramount in any formal setting. As pointed out by Akpomedaye (2013), an environment that is free from vices such as kidnappings, abductions, armed robberies and dangerous objects harmful to students is where learning can thrive. On this premise, schools should place emphasis on safety as this drives the education sector.
The concept of Peace Education and its Emergence

Peace education is a process of imparting knowledge and competencies about the negative effects of violence in any human settlement. This practice is as old as humanity and individuals who teach peace education are in agreement to the best strategies necessary for peace promotion (Harris, 2008). There are numerous cultures in terms of religion and philosophies that have positively contributed to peace learning and this has been passed down overtime to generations that have upheld these traditions.

Peace education is the process of equipping learners with tools for developing knowledge, skills, values and attitudes needed for resolving differences and conflicts in non-violent ways and in living peacefully with oneself, others and the environment. It is concerned with resolving conflicts at intrapersonal, interpersonal and intergroup levels without violence. It also has to do with conflict resolution at local, national and international levels. Peace education refers to the process of promoting the knowledge, skills, attitudes and values needed to bring about behaviour changes that will enable children, youths and adults prevent conflict and violence, both overt and structural to resolve conflict peacefully; and to create conditions conducive for peaceful atmosphere, whether at an intrapersonal, interpersonal, intergroup, national or international level (UNICEF 1999).

Going by UNICEF position, peace education has a place in all societies not only in countries undergoing conflicts or emergencies. This is so because lasting behavior change in children and adults only occurs overtime, effective peace education is necessarily a long-term process, not a short-term intervention. While it is often based on schools and other learning environment, peace education should ideally involve the entire community. Education is also concerned with the acquisition of knowledge, skills, values and attitudes for creating atmosphere of peace within the individual or for achieving inner peace (Akudole, 2010).

The nature of Peace Education enables it embrace the physical, emotional, intellectual and social growth of children within the framework deeply rooted in traditional human values. A culture of peace will be achieved when the citizens of the world understand global problems; have the skills to resolve conflict constructively; know and live by international standards of human rights gender and racial equality; appreciate cultural diversity and respect the integrity of the earth. Such learning cannot be achieved without international, sustained and systematic education for peace (Global Campaign for Peace Education, 1999). Turray (2005) opined that Peace Education enables participants to equip themselves with knowledge, skills, attitudes, values, and beliefs which build cultures of peace, non-violence and sustainability. He added that effective Peace Education enables learners to critically analyze the root causes of violence, wars, conflicts and social justice, and develop alternatives to violence.

The existence of peace indicates the absence of both overt and structural violence. According to Akudole (2010), most conflict situations result from structural violence emanating from poverty, discrimination, lack of access to opportunities and the inability to understand the other person’s point of view. Whenever two or more people are doing something as a group, conflicts are bound to arise due to individual differences. Peaceful co-existence of the group members depends on their conflict management abilities. Peace Education is both a philosophy and a process that is concerned with the acquisition of knowledge about different manifestations of peace and violence as well as peacemaking skills. It is a process of inculcating elements of Peace Education...
in the learners to enable them develop the ability to manifest tolerance, the skills for non-violent conflict resolution and the sense of dedication to the establishment of a culture of peace (Akunole 2010).

Renowned world religious leaders have given a pointer on the teachings of peaceful co-existence which have been recorded; religions like Christianity, Islam and Buddhism have scriptural backings on peace education. Although, religions tend to portray peace in a positive light, some religious practices have countered this move leading to violence and anarchy (Harris, 2008).

The first person who recorded evidence on peace education in Europe according to Ian Harris was Cormenius who in the seventeenth century posited that enlightenment of people globally can help pave way for peace. On this foundation, intellectuals built on the existing knowledge to expand the frontiers of peace education before the advent of the First World War. The Napoleonic wars served as a pointer and eye opener as studies intensified on the harmful effects of war in and outside Europe. As time passed, different political thoughts on dissemination of peace education emerged. The 20th century witnessed the coalition of the Americans and Europeans on peace movements and canvassing the need for their Governments to resolve conflicts via no violence and more diplomatic stands (Harris, 2008).

The first academic peace studies program at the college level was established in 1948 at Manchester College, in North Manchester, Indiana, in the United States. Soon thereafter, the field of peace research developed as a “science of peace” in the 1950s to counteract the science of war that had produced so much mass killing. A Manifesto issued in 1955 by Bertrand Russell and Albert Einstein and signed by other distinguished academics called upon scientists of all political persuasions to discuss the threat posed to civilization by the advent of thermonuclear weapons. A rich diversity of peace education is promoted by the myriad of contexts in which it is practiced. In the early 1900s, women became an especially active part of this modern peace education movement. At this time, peace educators began campaigning for social justice, arguing that poverty and inequality were causes of war. These campaigns were often led by women.

Each different form of violence requires a unique form of peace education to address strategies that could resolve it. Peace education in intense conflicts attempts to demystify enemy images and urges combatants to withdraw from warlike behaviour. Peace education in regions of interethnic tension relies upon multiculturalism and awareness about the sufferings of various groups involved in the conflict to promote empathy for the suffering of others and to reduce hostilities. Peace educators in areas free from collective physical violence teach about the causes of domestic and civil violence and try to develop an interest in global issues, the problems of poverty, environmental sustainability, and the power of nonviolence.

Adesina (2010) opined that, the insufficient knowledge and weakness of people to value peaceful living and harmonious co-existence give birth to the occurrence and re-occurrence of rancours, political violence, financial related offences, acrimonies, frustration, depression and other social vices which are the retarding nation’s total development and stability. Peace Education, therefore, is education for peaceful and non-violent co-existence (Ezeoba, 2012).

Peace Education program are highly needed in primary, secondary and tertiary schools as a means of inculcating the spirit of tolerance in the children, teenagers, adolescents and young adults all over the world (Ogunyemi & Adetoro 2013). This will equally equip the children with required
knowledge of peace and the skills to address the issues without resorting to conflict or violence. The teaching of Peace Education will enable the youths to become a responsible citizen and contribute their quota to the development and growth of the nation (Adeniji, 2008).

It is a process of inculcating elements of Peace Education in the learners to enable them develop the ability to manifest tolerance, the skills for non-violent conflict resolution and the sense of dedication to the establishment of a culture of peace (Akunole 2010).

According to Ibeanu (2006), formal or informal strategies can be used to consolidate the teaching of peace education design to create maximum impact among people of different ethnicities.

Duckworth, Allen & Williams, (2012) observed the need for schools to ensure the total development of students by allotting time for education on social issues and peace education and working in collaboration with community members and parents.

The optimise goal of peace educators is to expose learners to the issues surrounding peace and non-violence, foster peaceful sustainable future (Kruger, 2012.).

Peace educators are concerned with the problems of underdevelopment, starvation, poverty, illiteracy, and lack of human rights that exist in poorer countries and solutions to the problems of underdevelopment. They use development studies to provide insights into the various aspects of structural violence.

Peace educators in many countries continue to focus on human rights. Interest in human rights comes from attempts during the twentieth century to establish international organizations like the International Criminal Court that addresses civil, domestic, cultural, and ethnic forms of violence, to bring to justice tyrants who have aggressed against innocent people. Peace educators falling within this tradition are guided by the December 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights that provides a statement of values to be pursued in order to achieve economic, social, and political justice.

Peace education becomes Imperative at this time of the nation's democratic restructuring, especially against the backdrop of the damages and Insecurity occasioned by the activities of Boko Haram sect and ansaru groups In the Northern States. Osobase and Islaoh (2009) observed that without peace, no meaningful development can take place in a society like Nigeria grappling with the challenges of development.

Modern School Environment and Prevalent Challenges
According to the World Bank (1999), “successful development entails more than investing in physical capital or closing the gap in capital. It also entails acquiring and using knowledge as well as closing the gaps in knowledge”. Thus, to successfully confront the challenges of development, a developing country must undertake three major tasks: acquiring and adapting global knowledge, creating knowledge locally, investing in human capital to increase the ability to assimilate and use knowledge, investing in technology to aid learning. Based on what education is, in relation to the state of education and its process in the country today as well as the attitude of its providers. Government at all levels and private investors; one will be compelled to ask such questions as what has actually gone wrong considering the enormity of its effect on the output from the system in the area of productivity and the degree of acceptance in the labour market and educational
institutions, Response, however, will be its mitigating factors stemming from the incidence of examination malpractice – poor facilities – indiscriminate mass promotion syndrome in schools. The causes of these could be traced to the Government’s poor attitude towards educational needs, laziness towards work on the part of the learners/students, less attention given towards innovation in the educational sector (Odia & Omofonmwan, 2007).

There are some issues that are affecting effective teaching, learning and total wellbeing of students in schools in the recent time. Increase in the classroom size is one of the major issues in the school nowadays. This has to do with poor facilities in schools in a situation where there are many dilapidated classrooms that are not renovated and there are no new constructions for many decades, the school may not have any choice than to reduce students’ enrolment.

Family factors are also playing a significant role in what is going on in the school, the emergent of different family issues has a way of reflecting in the behaviour and attitude of students in school. Nowadays many are the product of divorced marriage, single parents, low economic family background, and violence prone family abused parents. These and many other social vices are the challenges students bring to school and this is having negative impact on the school system.

Advancement in technology has positive and negative impact on educational system. The use of internet and social media has become a source of distraction to some students in the school. Some has seen it as an instrument for bullying activities. This is called cyberbullying and it has become pronounced among the students in the school.

Students attitudes and behaviour have taken a new dimension in the recent time as that students disrespect teachers and at times beat them up. The issues were prominent in the secondary school and tertiary institution of learning.

Parental involvement in their ward’s education has also become an issue the school needs to contend with. Most parents are busy chasing money around but have little or no time to see is the moral or academic development of their wards, they transferred the burdens of training the children to the school and most of them always look for illegal means to acquire certificate for their wards., Odia & Omofonmwan, 2007, posited that as a result of these challenges there has been a decline in reading culture among students. The researchers also opined that poor parenting is a problem as “Parenting, entails caring, protection, guidance, provision of basic needs for a child up keep in order for him or her to be properly equipped to meet with the challenges of life, in accordance with the laws of the land.” In desperation, many parents have decided to bring in additional innovation by engaging in society activities in and around examination venues with a view to brighten the chances of their children or wards in qualifying examination to higher institutions and some even progress on this act through the tertiary level of education.

Interview with two sets of university students from various departments engaged in clustered group discussion revealed that their parents influence over their choice of course of study has negative effect on their level of performance.

In addition, most schools are poorly funded. This has created problem of inadequate staff, excess workload for teachers, inadequate teaching facilities and a lower number of services to students. Lack of funding is a major challenge facing the school system as under funding is what characterizes the education sector in Nigeria. Since 1986 when the federal military government
introduced the structural adjustment programme (SAP), allocation of financial resource started to fall coupled with the consistent decline in the value of local currency till date, which has also consistently affected the procurement of imported technical and scientific equipment, books, journals and other instructional needs in the educational system. It has been emphasized that the educational system in Nigeria today, needs a total overhauling and restructuring. This reform is required to improve the performance of higher education in the country. The nation entered the 21st century insufficiently prepared to cope or compete in the global economy, where growth will be based even more heavily on technical and scientific knowledge (World Bank 1994). It is also a well-known fact that the inadequacies always observed among many undergraduates and graduates alike are as a result of the inadequacies associated with the primary and the secondary educational system in Nigeria.

It is however pertinent for the government of the day to design a suitable guideline for funding education. For instance, UNESCO has recommended that 26% of the total budget of a nation should be allocated to education. But Longe Commission of 1991 observed that the percentage of recurrent budgetary allocation to education in Nigeria has never exceeded 10%. Though the system is expensive to keep afloat, quality however in any form is partly a function of the total fund made available to the system.

**Societal Vices and Need for Peace Education**

As violence behaviour increased in the society, the school is not left out of these social vices There is increase in the incidence of school violence; In some cases, students beat up teachers, students come to school armed with dangerous objects like knifes, broken bottles, cutlasses, and local charms with the intention to harm fellow students or teachers.

For any little disagreement or instruction that does not go well with the students, they turn the school to a war zone. This has made school environment to become unsafe for the peace-loving students and teachers.

In the school, the issue of gangsterism has become a major social problem that is making the school unsafe as many violent outbursts are perpetrated by gangs that feel they are in position to terrorise the entire school.

Most severely violent students belong to a violent peer group (Funchs and Luedtke,2008). This group of people shared common goals that are destructive to teaching and learning activities and inflame violence in the school.

In the recent time, substance abuse, drug abuse, smoking marijuana, and consumption of alcohol and other dangerous drug such as tramadol clonidine among adolescents in school have become a common occurrence. This has become rampant among this group of people because of the strong peer influence activities. This has to do with the hours the students spent together with one another and the ideas they share together always have great influence on their behaviour. This is why the issue of drug addictions, substance abuse has become a major one to be contended with in the school; because students under the influence of drug can cause chaos, disrupt peace in the classroom and in the school at large. Substance abuse has relationship with antisocial and violent behaviour, like taking guns and knives to school and involvement in other risky behaviours (Francis 2003, Stanton, Cottnell, kaljee2001), Ryan, (2007). Submit that substance abuse and risky-behaviour are the major qualities of members of the gang.
Bullying is another form of aggressive behaviour all over the schools it is borne out of power imbalance with the intention to cause harm. The victim of bullying feels unsecured in the school. The bullying can take different forms, It can be a direct bullying that is combination of verbal and physical bullying which involves use of spoken words or written information that can cause emotional disturbance for the victim. The victim may also be physically injured or being called rude names. With the invention of new technology, bullying has been taken to the next level, to the internet, this is called cyberbullying. In which students use different social platforms like youtube, twitter, face book, emails to write damaging information on fellow students with the intention to hurt or destroy the victim reputation. Bullying behaviours have adverse effect on both the victims and the perpetrators. The findings of earlier researchers revealed that being victim of bullying has short and long-term psychological and emotional influence on both the victims and bullies (Kowalski& Zimbler ,2012; Pozzoli,2013; Swearer &Hymel ,2015)

Cultism is another major emerging issue in the school in the recent times, It has become rampant in the school system. It has become a smear that is having a negative impact on the school and general wellbeing of the students. The activities of this group involved torture of their members and non-members, sexual assault, intimidation of both students and teachers, murder and many other harmful activities. In most cases the members of this group spearhead riot and unrest in the school and this always results in loss of lives and destruction of properties.

Youths who joined cultism usually do not value human life and they always resolve for conflicts in a violent way (Gimba 2000) referred to cult activities in the higher institution as studying B.Sc in violence and ‘MA’ in cultism.

In spite of its tremendous growth in the twentieth century, peace education has not really taken hold in school systems around the world. Some countries have used United Nations mandates as a guideline for formal school-based peace education activities while most countries have ignored them.

Some countries like the Philippines and Uganda have mandated peace education in the public schools but lack resources for training teachers in the various complexities of this new subject. In most countries, peace education is carried out informally in community settings and through national peace organizations, such as the large rallies held by Peace. Now, in Israel there is an attempt to garner citizen support for a less violent solution to the Palestinian-Israeli crisis than that being employed by the Israeli government. Local groups throughout the world, horrified by violence in their communities, attempt to convince their fellow citizens to oppose the violent policies of militaristic governments. This is by far the most widespread use of peace education at the beginning of the new millennium.

Formal school systems have largely ignored the educational insights provided by peace activist educators, mostly because of cultural and economic pressures to ramp up their curricula to include more mathematics and science so that school graduates can compete in a high-tech global economy. Peace education in most countries is seen as “soft” and not embraced by frightened citizens who fear imaginary or real enemies.

The threat of terrorism that grew from the end of the twenty centuries has made it hard for peace educators to convince school authorities to support efforts that contradict government peace through strength policies promoted to provide security for the citizens of that country.
Furthermore, it is only recently that peace educators are embracing a common curriculum for peace education that would include its historic roots in international education as well as modern conventions for human rights, the feminist orientation on violence in interpersonal relations, a concern for the problems of structural violence, an emphasis upon building a culture of peace, and an urgency to address environmental issues—insights that were provided during the previous “bloodiest century” (Harris & Morrison, 2003).

Peace educators are no longer concerned with interstate rivalry but study ways to resolve intra-state violence and the chaos that comes from identity and religious based conflicts. They have added to their tool boxes conflict resolution, forgiveness, and violence prevention skills—practical teachings that counterbalance the geopolitical approaches taken by political scientists concerned with wars between nations. The foundation for a new discipline has been built, leaving future peace educators to figure out how to erect a mighty peace palace. Therefore, there is an urgent need for our educational system to provide the skills to help our children and youth to become successful and effective leaders in the future. We must learn to live together as brothers, or we will perish together as fools (King, 1964)

**Strategies for incorporating Peace Education in Schools**

School as a social agent has a prominent role to play in shaping the life of an individual for him/her to become a responsible person that can control his/her emotion and live peacefully with others. Since behaviour can be learnt and unlearnt, through peace education students will learn how to manage aggressive behaviour that can lead to violence and unpeaceful condition in the society. “If violence is not genetically coded into human beings, but rather is based on modeled behavior, it follows that through providing a model of peaceful interaction in the classroom, learners can be made aware that a society based on peace, both in terms of the local and the global, is a viable option.” (Kruger, 2012, p. 4).

Giving the present situation all over the world with one violent situation or the other ranging from boundary disputes, power tussle, ethnicity problems, religious intolerance, to political thuggery, the violence in the family and at school is also increasing daily. The students that live in a violent ridden family and society, that is watching violent videos and films, listening or reading hate speech on social media have tendency to develop violent behaviour and may not have value for peaceful existences. For these reasons, it is important for school administrations to incorporate the teaching of peace education in schools at different levels. The following strategies can be adopted for the incorporation of peace education in schools:

- Peace education class should be action oriented, little emphasis should be laid on theorical aspect. This will give room for teachers to cover affective and psychomotor domains of Bloom taxonomy of educational objectives.
- Peace educators should be employed in the school at all levels, (The peace educator may be a counsellor or a retired teacher who has good record of service).
- Periods should be set aside to give talk show to students on how to build and maintain positive relationship with one another.
- Since, every child, teenager and adolescent has developed interest in the use of computer, the school administrator should develop a computer game on peace that student can play during
their leisure time

- The school counsellors should be organizing training programme for students on love for self and how to place value on themselves or build self-worth.
- The school counsellors should be organizing talks for students on how to empathise with one another.
- Peace educators should train some students to be peer peace educators to other students.
- The peace educator with the support of school administrators should form peace ambassadors’ group that will be saddled with the responsibility of conflict resolution in the school.
- Peace ambassadors should be exposed to extensive training on conflict resolution.
- All the strategies will be used to internalize peace education among the children, teenagers, adolescents, young adults in school and this will have a positive far reaching effect on the society.

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PART 12
CULTURE OF READING
RÉSUMÉ

On ne sait pas parler de la culture de la lecture sans parler du livre qui est, du reste, un outil de conservation, de communication et de formation. Mais cet important outil est le plus souvent rare dans les pays à revenu faible, et ce, à cause de son prix, de l’absence des maisons d’édition, d’auteurs, voire de lecteurs. D’où la nécessité de rendre le livre accessible à tous (surtout les jeunes et les adultes non alphabétisés). La culture de la lecture dépend de l’habitude de lire en famille et de la volonté d’une politique éducationnelle de l’État. Car, si la famille est le premier cadre où peut s’apprendre la lecture, l’école ou les institutions supérieures ou universitaires formalisent cette activité intellectuelle. Ainsi, la famille et l’État sont les deux principaux vecteurs de la lecture à travers les réseaux tels que la bibliothèque familiale, la boîte à livres, la bibliothèque publique ou privée, la bibliothèque valise, l’école et institutions supérieures, les centres d’études et culturels, les colloques et festivals etc. La culture de la lecture est en effet d’une importance capitale non seulement dans le processus de développement humain, mais aussi du pays.

Mots clés : Culture, Lire, Littérature & Livre.

0. INTRODUCTION

Parmi les thèmes nous proposés, celui de la « Culture de la lecture » est sans doute une apologie à l’usage du livre. Usage qui sous-entend, par ailleurs, l’habitus selon Pierre Bourdieu, c’est-à-dire une pratique soutenue de se servir d’un livre, de le lire. Une apologie qui se justifie pour la simple raison que la vie d’un livre dépend de l’usage que la société fait de lui. Et, c’est par la lecture qu’un livre acquiert son statut social. En effet, si le livre ou un texte imprimé n’est pas lu, il meurt avec tous ses secrets, et pourtant ceux-ci sous d’autres cieux ont été un des facteurs majeurs dans la naissance des nations, la transmission des connaissances d’une génération à une autre. Depuis toujours en fait sous la forme de textes gravés, textes en rouleaux, ou textes imprimés, le livre a par son pouvoir de conservation, accompagné les grandes civilisations que notre Humanité connaît. Et de ce fait, son importance ne cesse de croître, d’autant plus qu’il est resté un instrument nécessaire pour atteindre un public plus large et un instrument de culture d’une élite, mais aussi d’une frange importante d’une population alphabétisée. Tout compte fait, le livre règne en maître depuis l’invention de l’imprimerie. Il est donc de bon aloi que l’on perpétue son usage, encourage sa lecture pour le bien-être de la société.
Toutefois, à l’entame de cette étude, il est impérieux de cerner les termes qui composent le thème lui-même, « Culture de la lecture ». A ce sujet, une question majeure s’impose de prime abord : faut-il cultiver, entretenir l’habitude de la lecture sans en premier lieu évoquer le sens du verbe « lire » lui-même qui suppose l’existence d’un livre, ou d’un texte imprimé, voire d’un lecteur ?

1. DÉFINITIONS DES MOTS CLÉS : LIRE (LECTURE), LIVRE, ET CULTURE

1.1. Lire
Le verbe vient du latin « legere » et signifie reconnaître, déchiffrer les signes graphiques d’une langue, former mentalement, ou à voix haute les sons que ces signes ou leurs combinaisons représentent et leur associer un sens (Aron Paul et alii, 2010). Cette activité exige, par conséquent, une compréhension immédiate du texte. Ou encore elle peut impliquer une compréhension particulière, élaborée ou créatrice. Dans un tel cas, elle est appelée une interpellation ou une lecture littéraire qui s’est répandue depuis 1970 avec la « Nouvelle critique », faisant ainsi une place au soleil des professionnels de lecture ou des critiques littéraires.

Notons ici que le fait de lire donne évidemment naissance au mot « lecteur », dès le XIVème siècle. Il veut dire celui qui lit pour son compte, pour s’informer, s’instruire ou pour le plaisir, ou encore pour le progrès de la science littéraire, de toute autre science. Évidemment, lire postule non seulement l’existence d’un livre, ou de tout autre texte imprimé, d’un lecteur, mais surtout l’histoire de l’écriture elle-même. Et comme, c’est le livre qui contient les signes graphiques que l’on déchiffre dans une lecture, il est mieux indiqué d’en dire quelques mots.

1.2. Le livre
Comme toutes les nations qui ont chacune son histoire, le livre imprimé a aussi son histoire. Celle-ci est encore plus belle car le livre a aidé la plupart des grandes nations à quitter le statut de la culture orale à celui de la culture écrite. Son avantage sur les nations s’élargit davantage lorsqu’on lui reconnaît le pouvoir de conserver, de renseigner à la fois sur leur grandeur et leur déchéance. Voilà qui assure au livre une valeur incontestable dans la mesure où il reste une source d’informations facilement malléable, un outil nécessaire de travail et de progrès pour les nations qui ont su l’utiliser à bon escient. En effet, si la fonction première d’un livre est généralement de communiquer un contenu linguistique, il peut être également utilisé à des fins des significations ou artistiques comme la mise en page, l’illustration, la reliure qui le rend plus attrayant pour la lecture.

Du point de vue historique, son histoire est aussi tumultueuse que celle des nations qu’il a tant servies et accompagnées. C’est vers la moitié du XVème siècle que la technique d’impression des textes au moyen des caractères mobiles voit le jour en Allemagne, précisément à Mayenne, grâce à Gutenberg, inventeur de l’imprimerie en 1450. La Hollande et Avignon emboîtent le pas, et surtout grâce au papier en provenance de la Chine, de l’Espagne et de l’Italie, qui va rapidement permettre au livre à se repandre dans sa forme actuelle, à travers toute l’Europe. Celle-ci compte en son sein quelques centaines des millions d’âmes. Et à la fin du siècle déjà, quinze à vingt millions des livres leur seront imprimés (H. J. Martin, 1980), marquant ainsi son importance, mais aussi l’engouement des populations découvrant cet outil d’information, de formation et de divertissement.
Avec le livre, une nouvelle psychologie naît : celle de l’homme des Temps modernes. Des hommes qui s’habituent au type d’écriture romane, celle des humanistes triomphant au XVème siècle. En effet, la grande découverte sera suivie par une autre d’une grande importance intellectuelle, l’Humanisme. Il faut noter ici que dans son évolution sociale, le livre est d’abord réservé à une élite éduquée avant d’être ensuite accessible à toutes les franges des populations alphabétisées, avec l’enseignement obligatoire en général, mais aussi grâce surtout à la multiplication des maisons d’éditions.

Le livre est également au service des jeunes nations et des nouvelles esthétiques de la Renaissance. Celle-ci, comme on le sait, se ressource elle-même dans l’Antiquité païenne avant de servir la Bible. Aussi va-t-elle aider à fixer les langues nationales. Tout compte fait, les différentes évolution, techniques, artistiques et politiques, les grands courants de pensée et littéraires, que l’Europe connaîtra par la suite, seront consignées dans des livres et divulguées par ceux-ci.

Du point de vue strictement technique, à l’origine, le mot livre (du latin, liber) désigne la pellicule végétale située entre le bois et l’écorce qui servait du support à l’écriture. Et Michel Butor, dans Essais sur le roman (1964) le définit en ces termes : « Le livre comme tel que nous le connaissons aujourd’hui, c’est donc la disposition du fil du discours dans l’espace à trois dimensions selon un double module : longueur de la ligne, hauteur de la page, disposition qui a l’avantage de donner au lecteur une grande liberté de déplacement par rapport au « déroulement » du texte. Aussi, l’Unesco uniformise la définition du mot, pour faire simple, en proposant des critères techniques simples en ces termes : « publication non périodique imprimée comptant au moins 49 pages (page de couverture non comprise) [...] et offerte au public » - en dessus de 49 pages, on parle de « brochure » (Jacques Michon, 1980).


Ce sont les caractères mobiles et la presse à imprimer avec Gutenberg, qui révolutionnent le monde d’éditions avec du papier plus maniable et moins coûteux que le parchemin. Avec l’imprimerie, les capacités de production vont dépasser la demande. Ainsi, le livre acquiert véritablement sa valeur marchande. Et de ce fait, l’Europe fait du livre un outil de propagande. De nouvelles idées, en l’occurrence, celles des Réformateurs se diffusent rapidement. Des auteurs anciens sont aussi publiés et la vie intellectuelle et littéraire en est bouleversée. En revanche, les pouvoirs s’en inquiètent et créent des appareils de surveillance : la censure est donc au rendez-vous. Non seulement le dépôt légal est instauré en France par François 1er en 1537, mais le concile de Trente promulgue (1545-1563) l’Index librorum prohibitorum, un mode de censure encore actif.
Toutefois, les contrefaçons et les éditions clandestines font triompher leurs droits au XVIIIème siècle, grâce à trois facteurs sociaux : 1° l’essor de la production, 2° le développement de la presse et 3° le nombre des lecteurs toujours croissant. De la sorte, ces trois facteurs vont favorablement contribuer à la constitution d’une opinion publique. Du coup, le livre offre le vecteur de réception et le germe d’une critique efficace et diversifiée.

Enfin, au XIXème siècle les nouvelles techniques de production fait baisser le prix du livre devenu ainsi un objet banal et non plus réservé aux hommes riches. La grande production du livre fait que celui-ci se diversifie à la fois par 1° sa présentation (livre d’art, livres de poche, atlas, livre de classe, bandes dessinées etc.); 2° son sujet (littérature, sciences, techniques etc.), et 3° son but (divertir, informer, émouvoir etc.). Par ailleurs, le livre en tant qu’un objet social spécifique par rapport à d’autres supports de communication comme les médias, a ses avantages car :
- il est maniable, car facilement abordable grâce à son organisation interne (chapitres, index, tables des matières etc.,
- on peut revenir facilement en arrière dans une lecture, et ce, sans aucune manipulation compliquée,
- le livre n’est pas éphémère comme les journaux ou les émissions de radio ou de télévisions ;
- il permet d’aborder des sujets divers (domaines et thèmes).

Quant à l’intérêt de la lecture, il n’est plus à démonter depuis plus de cinq mille ans qu’il est entré dans la vie de l’homme. En effet, la lecture d’un livre:

a) Est un plaisir dans la mesure où le livre a un pouvoir de distraction;
b) Aide à la formation intellectuelle et morale, comme en témoigne Jean-Paul Sartre dans Les Mots (1964), mais surtout la lecture exige une conceptualisation que ne requièrent pas les moyens audio-visuels, et développe la capacité de réflexion ;
c) Développe librement l’imagination. Surtout dans le domaine de l’évasion avec la littérature exotique, ou les effets de l’espace et du temps de l’intrigue, et toutefois elle

Alors que le livre est devenu une denrée rare, le plus souvent hors de portée des revenus des lecteurs et/ou des parents, la notion de la culture, quant à elle, a perdu tout son sens et toutes ses valeurs en République démocratique du Congo, voire en Afrique à en considérer le peu de crédit que les États leur réservent. Il suffit de voir l’état de délabrement des bâtiments abritant les
ministères de la Culture et des Arts. Ou encore les modiques budgets leur alloués et la misère affichée par leur fonctionnaires pour s’en rendre compte. Mieux, les habitués des séraîls politiques sachent qu’être nommé ministre de la Culture et Arts est synonyme de gérer la misère du monde. Il est donc connu que peu d’importance est accordée à la culture dans nos pays. Puisqu’il en est ainsi, il est également impérieux de cerner le mot « culture » en vue de vulgariser sa valeur.

1.3. La culture.
Ce mot est sujet de différentes définitions parmi lesquelles trois cadrent, à notre avis, avec les questions éducatives qui nous préoccupent ici. D’abord la culture est, dans un sens classique, les connaissances que l’on acquiert par ses études, ses lectures. Ce sens est naturellement très proche de l’instruction. Ensuite, dans un sens qui est proche de civilisation, elle désigne un ensemble des formes acquis de comportement qu’un groupe d’individus unis par une tradition commune transmettent à la génération suivante. On compte parmi ces formes constituant un sous-basement culturel, autant les traditions artistiques, scientifiques, religieuses, politiques et philosophiques d’une société, que les techniques, les coutumes et usages de celle-ci. Et enfin, dans sa conceptions active héritée de son origine latine, le mot culture, cultura vient étymologiquement du verbe colère qui signifie prendre soin de, entourer d’égards, ou honorer. En d’autres termes, la culture, c’est l’action de développer par l’exercice ses capacités physiques (culture physique), intellectuelles, et sa personnalité.

De ces trois définitions prises ensemble, il se dégage une pensée constante : la culture procède par l’apprentissage par l’homme des connaissances susceptibles de l’accompagner tout au long de sa vie. D’autant plus que la vie est un précieux bien à conserver jalousement, par la pratique des bonnes actions. La culture met au centre de tout l’homme qui acquiert des connaissances nécessaires et utiles pour son bien-être quotidiennement. Des connaissances qui couvrent également trois dimensions de l’homme à savoir, physiques, intellectuelles et morales. La lecture demeure une des actions à pratiquer, à cultiver, à honorer à tout instant, puisqu’elle œuvre à la formation de l’homme, surtout des jeunes. Dans le cadre de notre réflexion, autour de l’éducation des jeunes, futur cadre de demain, la lecture à laquelle l’on accorder une attention particulière doit être un des moyens efficaces dans la construction aujourd’hui déjà, du l’homme de demain.

2. QUELQUES PISTES POUR UNE CULTURE ACTIVE DE LA LECTURE
La culture à lecture ou le fait d’amener tant les jeunes que les adultes à aimer lire est le résultat d’une activité de longue haleine. Elle se prépare, se cultive dès le bas âge en famille, à l’école et dans les espaces sociaux afin que l’enfant découvre le secret du livre, en profite pour lui-même et sa société entière. Pour ce faire l’État a sa grande part de responsabilité, car c’est lui qui gère les institutions scolaires et définit sa politique éducationnelle nationale. Celle qui doit mettre en premier lieu la formation de l’enfant au centre de ses préoccupations.

Il est possible de susciter chez les jeunes, voire les adultes analphabètes l’amour de la culture. A condition que les deux principaux vecteurs, la famille et l’État (gouvernements) soient mis à profit.

2.1. La famille
Celle-ci est le lieu propice pour la formation de la personnalité de l’enfant, ou l’apprenant. Mais la famille doit être véritablement un lieu de son épanouissement, si l’enfant y développe ses

Il va de soi que si les parents sont friands des livres, il y a plus de chance qu’ils servent des véritables modèles de l’éducation de leurs enfants, mais aussi de tout développement humain. Pour l’importance de la famille, il est à noter, avec Madame Irina Bokova, ancienne directrice générale de l’Organisation des Nations Unies pour l’éducation, la science et la culture (UNESCO), parlant des marginalisés (enfants ou adultes analphabètes), que « il y a toujours au moins de 72 millions qui ne peuvent exercer leur droit à l’éducation en raison simplement du lieu où ils sont nés ou de la famille à laquelle ils appartiennent. Des millions des jeunes quittent l’école sans les compétences dont ils ont besoin pour trouver leur place sur le marché du travail et un adulte sur six millions est privé du droit à l’alphabétisme » (Irène Bokova : 2010). C’est dire qu’un milieu pauvre, ou une famille pauvre hypothèquent sérieusement la chance de progrès éducationnel de l’enfant, de son pays.

Ainsi, trois activités peuvent être organisées en famille ou pour la famille en vue de créer l’amour du livre et la culture de la lecture.

2.1.1. La bibliothèque familiale

2.1.2. La boîte à livres
Un double objectif est porté par cette pratique : 1°) atteindre les espaces vitaux des jeunes, et 2°) faire aimer le livre par les jeunes scolarisés ou non scolarisés, voire des adultes n’ayant pas assez de moyens de s’acheter des livres. Elle consiste à le faire de porte à porte dans des quartiers défavorisés, et à proposer gratuitement des livres de lecture pour un délai de trois ou quatre jours. Signalons qu’elle rencontre des succès en Côte d’Ivoire, comme en a témoigné un jour la Radio France Internationale (RFI). Un choix des livres pouvant les intéresser doit être opéré en amont. C’est dire, d’une part, des livres qui leur sont proches, par exemple, par le milieu, le contexte et l’histoire. Et, d’autre part, des livres illustrés en vue d’attirer également les plus jeunes par les images. Cette action peut être menée aussi bien par des privées ou des organisations non gouvernementales que des structures éducatives, comme les quartiers ou communes. Elle doit
privilégier, au-delà de la simple lecture, suivie d’un petit résumé du livre lu, l’apprentissage du vocabulaire, la possession d’un petit carnet d’expression.

2.1.3. La bibliothèque valise
Au préalable, il s’agit ici d’un partenariat entre les grandes bibliothèques de l’État ou privées avec des structures culturelles existant dans les quartiers ou communes, en l’occurrence les cercles culturels, les salons littéraires, les écoles auxquels des valises des livres sont prêtées pour lecture. La durée de prêt variera d’une semaine à trois au maximum. Pour ce faire, des calendriers de dépôt et reprise, doivent être strictement élaborés en vue d’une discipline à imposer aux lecteurs qui n’ont jamais fait une telle expérience, ou ceux qui ont décroché tout simplement. Sans doute, si le livre rencontre de l’intérêt chez les marginalisés, les résultats sont au bout du chemin. Et l’État en bénéficiera car le pays aura besoin pour son développement d’une main-d’œuvre qualifiée en augmentation. D’autant plus que la lecture est toujours un acte social, à quelque niveau qu’on l’apprécie puisqu’elle met en jeu une compétence apprise, des savoir-faire et des savoirs-être qui varient dans l’histoire, selon les milieux sociaux. (Max Roy: 2011).

2.2. L’État (ou les gouvernements)
Les États ou les gouvernements sont le garant de tout le système éducatif dans leur gestion des institutions ayant en charge l’enseignement. Assumant une telle prérogative, ils doivent ainsi définir une politique éducative qui mette en valeur le livre, et donc la lecture, et ce, de manière inclusive. Celle qui n’exclut pas ceux qui sont déjà marginalisés. Ces derniers se comptent parmi les jeunes n’ayant pas une culture de la lecture, ceux qui ont décroché, ou tous ceux qui n’ont pas les moyens de se procurer des livres, y compris des adultes analphabètes.

Puisqu’il s’agit ici de la volonté à créer, à pousser à la lecture par l’État, et non d’évoquer la problématique des programmes nationaux en général, notre réflexion s’oriente naturellement vers quelques actions concrètes que peut exploiter un gouvernement dans l’objectif de créer l’habitude de lire.

2.2.1. Une équipe homogène des spécialistes
Cette équipe des spécialistes doit être créée, sur base des programmes de recherche et à partir des monographies, pour réfléchir, établir une liste des livres selon le niveau d’études envisagées dans le pays. Ces programmes doivent être orientés principalement, comme le souligne Pius Ngandu Nkashama, en parlant de l’enseignement des littératures africaines, « vers les premiers destinataires de ces littératures, c’est-à-dire le public africain » (Pius Ngandu Nkashama, 1997), et dans le cas présent vers ceux qui ont plus besoin de la lecture : les jeunes, les apprenants. En clair, il faut que les gouvernements définissent une politique qui vise à instituer une culture de la lecture. Mais de mémoire, la lecture n’est pas, le plus souvent, une préoccupation des États. Et en qui nous concerne ici, l’État congolais ne fait pas l’exception, à en croire les propos de l’écrivain Charles Djungu Simba qui note avec amertume, en 1997, ceci : « au niveau des pouvoirs publics, aucune politique visant à instituer une culture du livre n’a jamais été initiée en République démocratique du Congo, en dehors de quelques initiatives ponctuelles et intempestives, notamment l’organisation de concours littéraires sous Mobutu, participant davantage de la liturgie d’autolégitation du pouvoir en place que d’une véritable volonté de promouvoir l’activité littéraire proprement dite » (Charles Djungu S, 2011).
Il est vrai, que depuis la fin de l’époque du parti unique en République démocratique du Congo – nous pensons que cette situation n’est pas loin d’être identique dans beaucoup des pays en Afrique –, où toute la politique se faisait au nom et autour du seul timonier alors que les livres étaient parfois écrits et édités pour l’encenser, sans oublier aussi des livres publiés avec l’appui substantiel de la coopération française à l’époque, le livre peine aujourd’hui à se donner une vie au soleil, eu égard à la modicité des budgets nationaux alloués chaque année au secteur de l’éducation, à la culture. Au manque d’une politique de culture du livre s’ajoutent ainsi d’autres problèmes qui se posent en amont de la lecture elle-même. Des problèmes que l’écrivain congolais déplore également. Citons la quasiment inexistence des maisons d’éditions, les conditions de travail déplorables des écrivains eux-mêmes qui publient parfois à leur compte, avec tous les risques liés à la qualité, et surtout l’absence des lecteurs (Charles Djungu S,2011). Des réels problèmes qui impactent sérieusement sur la littérature du pays, et sur la lecture à tous les niveaux.

En effet, une littérature sans appareils de régulation, sans personnel adéquat, sans lieux de consécration et de reconnaissance et de sa consommation structurée, est une littérature dont le futur est fortement hypothéqué. D’où la nécessité d’avoir au niveau national une politique d’une littérature autonome et spécifique. Car, non seulement considérée comme un produit d’une pratique sociale, mais surtout appelée à remplir son rôle d’offrir une vision du monde (histoire du passé, celle immédiate et du futur), à forger la conscience de l’homme. Mieux, elle aide à la formation intellectuelle et morale, voire à un engagement quelle que soit sa nature d’autant plus que l’acte littéraire constitue en lui-même une instance d’une conscience historique (Justin Mwamba Isimbi T, 2019).

Puisque la littérature dans sa spécificité fixe ses règles et ses valeurs, organise son personnel (écrivains, éditeurs, critiques littéraires, lecteurs ordinaires) et ses lieux (écoles, cercles académies etc.), les gouvernements ont intérêt à soutenir ces différentes structures dans le but d’instaurer la culture de la lecture, d’appuyer la promotion du livre.

2.2.2. Des activités culturelles
Des moments denses pouvant aider à la promotion du livre et de la lecture, sont également à observer autour des festivals, des colloques, des numéros spécifiques des revues et des magazines spécialisés, ainsi que des prix littéraires, des concours de lecture et d’écriture. Toutes ces activités organisées au sein de différentes institutions de l’enseignement, comme dans les centres ou cercles culturels de quartiers de la ville, sont une véritable source d’émulation chez les jeunes. De la sorte, la lecture se pratiquera dans les espaces sociaux des jeunes, des populations adultes qui en ont besoin.

Il faut rappeler ici que ce sont des colloques et des festivals, des maisons d’éditions qui ont, dans les années 70 et 80, aidé nombreux auteurs africains dont beaucoup sont connus aujourd’hui, à publier leurs manuscrits. En effet, des dates et des lieux (Dakar 1966, Alger 1969, Lagos 1977), ainsi que des grandes rencontres africaines ont constitué des occasions solennelles pour une politique du livre, mais aussi de reconnaissance de certains écrivains. Même si l’exhibition politique a parfois pris le dessus, il n’empêche que les gouvernements ont appuyé financièrement
ces rencontres historiques. Sans doute, celles-ci ont aidé à cette époque à booster les lettres africaines, à créer des îlots des lecteurs parmi des jeunes écoliers, élèves et universitaires.

2.2.3. Les maisons d’éditions
Puisque la rareté ainsi que le prix du livre trop élevé n’épargne personne, l’État (les gouvernements) doit définir également sa politique d’édition ou de réédition des livres classiques, ou des livres acceptés par l’équipe homogène des spécialistes. Car, plus le nombre des livres est en augmentation, et leur prix trop abordable, plus le nombre des lecteurs augmente, en conséquence. L’Europe en a fait une belle expérience au XVème siècle, et pendant les siècles qui ont suivi. Aussi devons-nous noter que, lorsqu’un livre est illustré, il suscite plus d’attention chez les jeunes lecteurs. Ou encore si l’édition ou la réédition des livres sont suivies par une pratique consistant en exécution publique du texte, par des récitals, des déclamations, des joutes oratoires des auteurs ou des spécialistes en la matière. De la sorte, cette appropriation collective du livre opérée par des spécialistes de la lecture permettra au texte de circuler à l’intérieur d’une collectivité sans que l’ouvrage qui le porte ne soit encore disponible matériellement pour tout le monde. Il s’agit ici de remettre sur la scelle la fonction primordiale de l’oralité au service de la lecture.

Il est notoirement connu que la qualité du livre dépend en grande partie des préoccupations commerciales et financières, idéologiques des éditeurs, ainsi que les projets mis en œuvre pour en assumer la diffusion. Qu’il s’agisse de la publication faite par l’État pour par les privés. Mais il faut dire que, dans le cadre de cette réflexion, l’État a plus de responsabilité de la publication : il est appelé à alléger les taxes et redevances en respectant par exemple l’Accord de Florence, à mettre à la disposition des structures reconnue du livre des budgets conséquents, à accorder des subventions nécessaires aux particuliers du monde du livre ayant des compétences requises, et qui sont eux-mêmes entourés d’un personnel qualifié. C’est donc à l’État de réglementer le secteur du livre pour une meilleure consommation de celui-ci.

Cependant, il ne suffit pas seulement d’éditer ou de rééditer un livre, il faut avoir des stratégies de sa distribution.

2.2.4. Des bibliothèques et centres d’études
Le mot bibliothèque vient du grec biblion signifiant livre et théké désignant armoire. Lieu, pièce ou établissement public ou privé, où une collection de livres, d’imprimés, de manuscrits etc., est conservée, consultée ou prêtée (Dictionnaire Petit Larousse : 2014). Ainsi, la bibliothèque est le lieu privilégié où se crée toute une culture de la lecture. Un lieu que l’on doit nécessairement et régulièrement fréquenter. En effet, ceux qui l’ont fréquentée dès le bas âge, devenus rats des bibliothèques ou bibliophiles, ont souvent la difficulté de rompre l’arôme avec ces années essentielles de leur vie, bref ils ne perdent jamais leur trésor. Raison pour laquelle, on ne cesserà de dire que la culture de la lecture procède par la dissémination des bibliothèques publiques ou privées dans tout le pays, ou espaces sociaux intéressants. A l’exemple des bibliothèques de la gare, des bibliothèques des grands carrefours, étant donné que les gares sont rares dans nos villes, devraient également être créées en renfort dans nos villages. Dans des villes comme dans les communes, les quartiers populaires, dans les institutions scolaires et universitaires, les bibliothèques doivent être implantées. Et le but en reste le même, celui de faire aimer les livres.
Tout compte fait, parler de la culture de la lecture sans créer des bibliothèques dans les espaces sociaux des jeunes serait simplement prêcher dans le désert. Il faut donc de l’engagement ferme de la part des gouvernements, des mesures allant dans le sens de rendre le livre, la bibliothèque accessibles à tous seront alors une catharsis. C’est dans ce sens que les résultats obtenus depuis l’adoption en 2000 des objectifs de l’éducation pour tous (EPT) et des objectifs du millénaire pour le développement doivent être consolidés. De ce fait, les efforts gouvernementaux doivent être fournis pour éviter que les jeunes ne soient aspirés par la force du vide, et voir ainsi leur avenir hypothéquer. De ce fait, « les budgets nationaux ne doivent pas subir des pressions et le financement de l’éducation devient particulièrement vulnérable », s’il faut emprunter l’expression à Madame Irina Bokova.

Il est vrai que les pays pauvres, ou pays à faible revenu, ont besoin des ressources financières et la communauté internationale est, le plus souvent, appelée à la rescousse à ce propos. Et pourtant, les ressources humaines constituant la première ressource naturelle disponible à compter, sont le plus souvent négligées. Des spécialistes de l’éducation doivent être utilisés à bon escient, alors que les responsables gouvernementaux sont appelés à faire de l’éducation leur priorité, et dont définir en amont une politique des systèmes éducatifs faisant de la lecture (et de sa culture), le fondement même de toute éducation. Des choix politiques à faire doivent donc répondre aux besoins de ceux qui constituent l’avenir. Aussi faut-il souligner que l’impact des budgets conséquents en faveur de l’éducation est toujours visible à travers la construction des classes, le recrutement et la formation des enseignants. Naturellement, la conséquence d’un tel choix, c’est tout simplement un grand nombre d’enfants scolarisés, et donc un grand nombre des lecteurs potentiels.

Quant aux centres d’études, ceux-ci sont souvent animés par des spécialistes qui, par leurs lectures, suscitent non seulement des nombreuses recherches, mais surtout l’amour du livre, ou la culture de la lecture. D’autant plus que les lectures des spécialistes peuvent faire tomber les obstacles pouvant entourer des romans ou livres réputés difficiles à lire, par exemple. Par ce travail de lecture par des spécialistes, d’autres informations peuvent ainsi profiter aux jeunes comme le facteur de la chronologie exacte du livre, de la psychologie de son auteur, des faits historiques, des milieux historiques (éléments paratextuels), susceptibles d’aider à la compréhension d’un livre.

En fait, il est connu de l’expérience des spécialistes que la lecture n’est pas socialement un partage complet, que nombre de textes posent des difficultés pour certaines catégories de lecteurs. C’est dire qu’au-delà de la compétence acquise en famille, à l’école, les motivations et les objectifs sont différents d’un lecteur à l’autre. Il en est de même de la perception du livre et de la littérature, des valeurs symboliques et sociales qui lui sont associées, voire les sentiments de familiarité ou d’étrangeté qu’ils inspirent. Tout ce chapelet des difficultés exigent en effet une vraie motivation, mais aussi le service des spécialistes en matière œuvrant dans des services compétents de l’État ou privés autorisés.

2.2.5. Des écoles et institutions supérieures de l’enseignement
Les écoles et institutions supérieures qui sont créées aussi bien par les gouvernements que par des privés, sont néanmoins gérées selon les directives et les programmes établis du ministère dont elles dépendent, et qui en a les compétences régaliennes. Le mot école du latin, *schola*, désigne un établissement où est dispensé un enseignement collectif général aux enfants d’âge et préscolaire
(Dictionnaire Petit Larousse : 2014). Aussi est-il nécessaire de souligner ici que l’école est le lieu par excellence pour l’apprentissage de la lecture. En effet, l’enfant (ou l’apprenant) découvre les graphiques et les premiers textes au primaire. Au secondaire, il s’habitue davantage avec ceux-ci et apprend à les comprendre. A l’université, cette pratique devient de plus en plus grande, car il y apprend des méthodes pour plus de compréhension des textes, voire pour les interpréter, les expliquer à son tour. A ce niveau, il acquiert déjà une autonomie dans le choix de ses livres de lecture.

Toutefois, cette continuité des faits ne sera pas possible si, dès le cycle primaire, les premiers textes ont rebuté l’apprenant, ou l’enseignant ne l’a pas aidé à les aimer, ni suscité en lui le goût de la lecture. Ainsi, pour éviter un début chaotique de ce genre aux jeunes, il est donc impératif que les programmes nationaux visent, dès le départ, à imprimer chez l’enfant ce besoin primordial qu’est la lecture. Il en est de même pour des enfants ayant décroché tôt et des adultes non alphabétisés, appelés des marginalisés. D’autant plus que la lecture est la clé d’accès à tout. Ici encore, non seulement les gouvernements ont le devoir de bien définir les programmes scolaires et universitaires, mais surtout de les faire appliquer par des enseignants bien formés et compétents, voire spécialisés. Ainsi, l’amour du livre et sa pratique déjà nés dans la famille ou pas encore, vont méthodiquement être suscités à l’école, et y être petit à petit consolidé et orienté au besoin du jeune.

Tout ce long processus d’apprentissage est représenté par ce que nous appelons la Pyramide de la lecture ci-dessous.
Force est de constater que la pratique du livre qui devient à la longue une habitude, une culture de la lecture chez l’enfant (ou l’apprenant), requiert une disponibilité tous azimuts des adultes au niveau de la famille, des structures étatiques et des décisions y afférentes prises par celles-ci. Aussi exige-t-elle une mobilisation des ressources tant humaines que financières. Bref, la culture de la lecture ne se crée pas selon un principe d’une génération spontanée. Elle est plutôt comme un arbre aux embranchements nombreux, à rhizome plus qu’à la racine unique. Le livre suscite des activités diverses qui concourent toutes à la lecture.

CONCLUSION
La culture de la lecture est possible à instaurer et à entretenir. Mais à condition qu’elle soit une préoccupation aussi bien de la famille, premier univers dans lequel l’enfant est appelé à découvrir le livre et entretenir ses premiers contacts presqu’innocents, que de l’État, vrai gestionnaire et organisateur des programmes scolaires et universitaires nationaux. La volonté des gouvernements pouvant à la fois utiliser à bon escient les ressources humaines du secteur de l’éducation et y allouer des budgets adéquats, doit être affichée sans faille, ni équivoque. Car, des expériences antérieures montrent à suffisance que tout État ayant pris la mesure de l’importance du livre, a pu en tirer bénéfice étant donné que l’utilité de celui-ci est de conserver les connaissances, de les exploiter et les communiquer pour le bien-être de sa société. Tout développement d’un pays en dépend, et il est donc important de préparer les citoyens à la lecture.

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PART 13
TVET
STRENGTHENING TECHNICAL VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING (TVET) IN AFRICA FOR QUALITY AND RELEVANCE THROUGH WORKPLACE RETRAINING OF TEACHERS FOR THE ACHIEVEMENT OF GLOBAL EDUCATION AGENDA (2030) AND AFRICAN UNION AGENDA 2063

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ABSTRACT
This paper discussed the need for strengthening Technical Vocational Education and Training programmes in Africa for quality and relevance through workplace retraining of teachers for the achievement of Global education agenda (2030) and African Union Agenda 2063. It examined the concept and relevance of Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET), Types of TVET Programmes, the potentials of TVET in achieving the Global education agenda (2030) and African Union Agenda 2063 as well as the present status and quality of TVET in Africa. Also, the roles of teachers in ensuring quality TVET in Africa and the need for workplace retraining of TVET teachers are also highlighted. The paper advocated workplace retraining of TVET teachers which is quite different from the normal, regular retraining programmes organized in the formal teacher education institutions which only enable them to update their theoretical knowledge at the expense of practical skills. It identified four major advantages of workplace retraining of teachers. The author recommended, among others, that the government of every African country should develop a TVET policy that make it mandatory for TVET teachers to undergo workplace re-training in enterprises relevant to their occupations for a period of between 3 to 6 months.

Keywords: Agenda 2063, Global Education Agenda (2030), Teachers, Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET), & Workplace Retraining.

INTRODUCTION
Education is globally recognised as the most important instrument for fostering national development. It is the aggregate of all processes, social in nature, available under specialised settings, selected and controlled, by which an individual develops knowledge, skills, culture, attitude and insights in the cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains of learning that are vital for his survival as a person and as a member of a community as well as the enhancement of his life and that of the society (Akujag, 2013). Education is the process through which individuals acquire the skills, attitudes, values and competencies that enable them to live effectively and make positive contributions to the development of their society.
Education is a social process and an instrument of socio-political and cultural transformation as well as an investment against ignorance and poverty. The ultimate aim of education is to bring out the best in each individual for his own benefit and that of the society. Indeed, education is expected to play various roles in any society such as increasing the productive capacity of the recipient thus empowering them to survive in the continuously changing world. In addition, education informs the recipient of his privileges and basic human rights; develops the intellect and character of the learners and get him informed about what is worthwhile, socially acceptable and desirable in the society. This explains why there are obvious differences between an educated person and the uneducated one. Indeed, an individual’s perception is largely a function of his level of educational attainment.

For this reason, if our continent must grow, we must increase the number of individuals that have access to good quality education at all levels. We must transform a greater proportion of the population from illiteracy to literacy, from ignorance to knowledge and from unskilled to skilled manpower. It is obvious that if the citizens are not well educated, they are not likely to contribute maximally to the development of their individual countries and the continent at large. It could even impede the exercise of their political rights and inhibit social transformation. In truth, the present security challenges experienced in different parts of the continent is partly attributed to the fact that a high proportion of the youth population in the continent are uneducated, unskilled, unproductive and unemployed. This paper is mostly concerned with Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) which is the type of education that lay more emphasis on skills development.

There has been a growing awareness among educational stakeholders at the national, regional and international levels of the significant role that Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) can play in the socio-economic and technological development of many nations. One of the most prominent features of TVET is its orientation towards the world of work and the emphasis of its curriculum on the acquisition of employable or workplace skills which are universally recognized as a major driver of economic and technological development (African Union, 2007).

Obviously, the increasing importance that is presently being attached to acquisition of vocational skills for entrepreneurship and self reliance is reflected in the various poverty reduction strategies and interventions that many national governments have developed in recent years in collaboration with regional and international agencies such as the African Union Commission, the World Bank, United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), International Labour Organisation (ILO) and the Department For International Development (DFID) as well as the European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training (CEDEFOP). This paper examined Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) and how it could be strengthened through effective workplace retraining of teachers in order to facilitate the achievement of Global education agenda (2030) and African Union Agenda 2063.

THE CONCEPT OF TECHNICAL VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING (TVET) AND ITS RELEVANCE

Various contemporary definitions of the term “Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET)” have evolved to reflect the fundamental changes in the scope of TVET programmes worldwide. Previously, terms such as Vocational Education, Technical and Vocational Education
or Vocational and Technical Education were used by scholars to designate this form of education but presently Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) is generally used. Technical and Vocational Education and Training refers to all forms and aspects of education that are technical and vocational in nature, provided either in educational institutions or under their authority, by public authorities, the private sector or through other forms of organized education, formal or non-formal, aiming to ensure that all members of the community have access to the pathways of lifelong learning (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, UNESCO, 2009). TVET can also be seen as a planned programme of courses and learning experiences that begin with exploration of career options, support basic academic and life skills, and enable achievement of high academic standards, leadership and preparation for industry-defined work (Kukoyi, 2009). TVET prepares learners for careers that are based on manual or practical activities, traditionally non-academic and totally related to a specific trade, occupation or vocation.

Moreover, the Federal Republic of Nigeria (FRN, 2013) defined Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) as a comprehensive term referring to those aspects of the educational process involving, in addition to general education, the study of technologies and related sciences and the acquisition of practical skills, attitudes, understanding and knowledge relating to occupations in various sectors of economic and social life. This source maintained that Technical, Vocational Education and Training is also understood to be:

(a). An integral part of general education,
(b) A means of preparing for occupational fields and for effective participation in the world of work.
(c). An aspect of lifelong learning and preparation for responsible citizenship.
(d). An instrument for promoting environmentally sound, sustainable development and
(e) A method of alleviating poverty.

The three major goals of Technical, Vocational Education and Training are as follows:

(a) To Provide trained manpower in the applied sciences, technology and business particularly at craft, advanced craft and technical levels
(b) To provide the technical knowledge and vocational skills necessary for agricultural, commercial and economic development;
(c) To give training and impart the necessary skills to individuals who shall be self-reliant economically (FRN, 2013).

The importance of Technical, Vocational Education and Training is underscored by the fact that the TVET sector is of critical importance to both teachers and students because it provides critical access to the knowledge and ideas that students require to become productive members of their communities, and also to live fuller lives (Wheelahan and Moodie, 2016). In addition, Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) is often seen as the silver bullet to the problem of youth joblessness. Moreover, its focus on the Sustainable Development Goals of providing access
for the vulnerable makes the sector especially important in terms of inclusion as well as participation.

Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) affects four types of personal capital: human, social, cultural and identity capital (European Centre for the development of Vocational Training, CEDEFOP, 2013). The centre noted that human capital is the most widely known and it is the stock of knowledge, skills and competences a person has, which affect readiness to perform productive labour all of which can be developed by education and training. Human capital can depreciate when knowledge, skills and competences become obsolete, for example, due to technological development. In addition, CEDEFOP (2013) outlined the benefits of TVET to people, organizations and countries as follows: Higher wages; better employment prospects and increased ability to retain the current job; reductions in crime and development of civic competences, better functioning democracies and better health.

As a channel for entrepreneurial skill acquisition, TVET play the role of improving the economic situation of many countries through the production of skilled personnel in different areas of specialization, which, in the long run, will help the students to establish their own enterprises as seen in other countries such as China, Turkey, India and Japan that have succeeded economically through Vocational Education (Okolocha and Baba, 2016). Thus, TVET enable individuals to be creative and productive thus making them to become job creators rather than job seekers”. TVET programmes should therefore be strengthened to equip students with the practical skills, knowledge, and entrepreneurial tools that match labour market needs. If effective, TVET can create better pathways from school to work thus producing the technical and entrepreneurial workforce that Africa need to create wealth and emerge out of poverty.

Technical, Vocational Education and Training and General Education
Technical, Vocational Education and Training is a specialized form of education and can be differentiated from general education which is the form of education designed to inculcate in the students the general competencies needed for everyday living. These competencies include literacy (ability to read and write), numeracy, civics, morals and communication. General education is not geared toward any specific occupation but is given to individuals for their general development irrespective of their future occupation. Unlike general education, TVET goes beyond mere literacy by emphasizing ability to “do” and “apply”. In contrast to general education, learning in TVET is centred on ‘applied’ as opposed to ‘academic’; practical as opposed to theory, and on skills acquisition as opposed to knowledge acquisition (Kombe, 2010).

Vaughan (2008) distinguished between general education and Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) as follows: In terms of the type of knowledge acquired, general education is centred mainly on abstract, objective knowledge which is focused on brain work. In contrast, TVET is centred on applied, subjective knowledge which is context-specific and focused on manual work. In a nutshell, Vocational Education is aimed at equipping individuals to use their heads and hands in order to survive in a world that is essentially work-oriented. Moreover, skills development is the primary goal of any Technical Vocational Education and Training programme. Thus, the ultimate test of a good Technical Vocational Education and Training programme is not
how much factual information students can remember but how much practical skills they possess and how they could actually perform at the workplace when employed (Okoro, 2006).

**Types of TVET Programmes**

There are three major types of Technical Vocational Education and Training programmes namely formal, non-formal and informal TVET. Formal TVET refers to organised vocational education programmes provided within an approved public or private educational or training institution and it is structured (in terms of curriculum, learning objectives and learning time) in such a way that it constitutes a continuous “ladder” where one level leads to the next and finally leads to certification (UNESCO-UNEVOC, 2006). Formal TVET covers vocational education programmes provided within approved public institutions. It is intentional from the learner’s perspective, is school-based, has a rigid curriculum and the entry qualifications of trainees is fixed. Moreover, teachers in the formal TVET delivery system are required to be certified graduates of technical teachers’ colleges with relevant vocational teachers’ qualifications (Ogwo and Oranu, 2006).

Non-formal TVET is the type of vocational education and training which takes place outside the formal school system either on a regular or intermittent basis (Ogwo and Oranu, 2006). It has the advantage of shorter duration, is occupation-specific and its main emphasis is on the acquisition of practical skills for direct employment. For this reason, skilled craftsmen with some pedagogical training may be engaged as instructors (African Union, 2007).

On the other hand, informal TVET is the type of vocational education that is provided by craftsmen of different trades in the informal sector of the economy. It is more appropriately often referred to as vocational training or experience-based learning and is usually carried out in form of apprenticeship system (Ogwo and Oranu, 2006). Thus, the informal TVET is characterised by the non-existence of any curriculum or structure as there is no well-designed scheme and the method of training is not always sequential. The master craftsman decides out of his experience what the apprentice should learn and when.

The European Centre for the development of Vocational Training, (CEDEFOP, 2011) offered another classification of TVET programmes as follows:

1. Pre-employment TVET: This type prepares individuals for initial entry into employment. In most countries, this is provided in schools operated by national and state ministries of education.
2. Upgrade training: This type provides additional training for individuals who are already employed or those whose jobs have changed, or the technology and work environment have become more complex.
3. Retraining: This type provides training for individuals who seek new careers to develop the necessary competences for employment or for individuals who have lost their jobs so that they can find new ones.
4. Remedial TVET: This type provides education and training for individuals who are in some way marginal or out of the mainstream labour force. It is typically for those who have not been employed for a long period of time or who do not have any labour-market experience.
Formal and non-formal TVET can be of two types: initial and continuous vocational educational and training. Initial Vocational Educational and Training (IVET) refers to general or vocational education and training carried out in the initial education system, usually before entering working life (CEDEFOP, 2011). Some training undertaken after entry into working life may be considered as initial training or retraining. Initial education and training can be carried out at any level in general or vocational education (full-time school-based or alternate training) pathways or apprenticeship; Continuous Vocational Educational and Training (CVET) is defined by the area of education or training that comes in after entry into working life and aims to help people to (a) improve or update their knowledge and/or skills; (b) acquire new skills for a career move or retraining; (c) continue their personal or professional development. Continuing education and training is part of lifelong learning and may encompass any kind of education: general, specialised or vocational, formal or non-formal (CEDEFOP, 2011).

**Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) and UNESCO’s Global Education Agenda (2030) and African Union Agenda 2063**

UNESCO’s global education agenda (2030) which was developed to support the United Nations’ 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development sets out a new vision for education for the next 15 years. The United Nations' 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development comprises 17 global goals set by the United Nations general assembly in 2015 for the year 2030. The goals are summarized as follows: Goal 1: No poverty (2) Zero hunger (3) Good health and well-being (4): Quality education (5) Gender equality (6) Clean water and sanitation (7) Affordable and clean energy (8) Decent work and economic growth (9) Industry, innovation and infrastructure (10) Reduced inequalities (11) Sustainable cities and communities (12) Responsible consumption and production (13) Climate action (14) Life below water (15) Life on land (16) Peace, justice and strong institutions and (17) Partnerships for the Goals.

Each of the 17 goals have a number of targets that are measured by indicators (United Nations, 2017). However, sustainable development goal 4 specifically recognised the importance of TVET in ensuring inclusive and equitable quality education and providing lifelong learning opportunities for all (Wheelahan and Moodie, 2016). The global education agenda 2030 comprises two main components. The first is the 2015 Incheon Declaration, which is the agreement of the worldwide education community for this new vision; and, the second is the Education 2030 Framework for Action, which outlines how to translate the commitments in the Incheon Declaration into action at global, regional and national levels, and provides guidance on how this can take place.

There are two targets specified in the Framework for Action that explicitly concern vocational education. These are “Target 4.3 which stipulates that “By 2030, ensure equal access for all women and men to affordable and quality technical, vocational and tertiary education, including university” and “Target 4.4: which specified that By 2030, substantially increase the number of youths and adults who have relevant skills, including technical and vocational skills, for employment, decent work and entrepreneurship”(Wheelahan and Moodie, 2016).

The African Union’s “Agenda 2063” is a strategic framework for the socio-economic transformation of the continent over the next 50 years. It builds on and seeks to accelerate the implementation of past and existing continental initiatives for growth and sustainable
development. It contains seven major aspiration that Africa want by 2063. The 17 aspirations for “The Africa We Want” as listed by African Union Commission (2015) are:

1. A prosperous Africa based on inclusive growth and sustainable development
2. An integrated continent, politically united and based on the ideals of Pan-Africanism and the vision of Africa’s Renaissance
3. An Africa of good governance, democracy, respect for human rights, justice and the rule of law
4. A peaceful and secure Africa
5. An Africa with a strong cultural identity, common heritage, shared values and ethics
6. An Africa whose development is people-driven, relying on the potential of African people, especially its women and youth, and caring for children
7. Africa as a strong, united and influential global player and partner

Vocational education is intrinsic to achieving both the goals of UNESCO’s global education agenda (2030) and Agenda 2063. Vocational education is central in addressing rising youth unemployment which reflect the aspirations of building a prosperous Africa based on inclusive growth and sustainable development. It is pertinent to note that the implementation of the Plan of Action for the Second Decade of Education for Africa (2006-2015) which is part of the continental strategy to revitalize TVET in Africa developed by the African Union Commission (AUC, 2007), was still geared towards the realization of UNESCO’s global education agenda (2030) and African Union Agenda 2063. Obviously, the achievement of these laudable goals depends to a very large extent on the existence of a high quality TVET programme which is relevant to the needs and aspirations of African people.

QUANTITY VERSUS QUALITY IN TVET PROGRAMMES
Quantity is concerned with numbers, that is, getting as many citizens as possible to be educated within the shortest time allowed and it answers the question: How many? Conversely, quality has to do with whether something (a product or service) is good or bad and it answers the question: How good? In other words, quality is concerned about the standard of something when compared with other things. It therefore pre-supposes that there is a set standard. Quality can also refer to the degree with which a product, service or phenomenon conforms to an established standard and which make it to be relatively superior to others (Morris, 2013). In manufacturing industries, for instance, standard or quality of products can be assessed against an original product or against customers’ specifications. With respect to education, quality is a multidimensional concept that embrace all facets and activities of the education system such as staffing, students, buildings, facilities, equipment, teaching and academic programmes, research and scholarship, services to the community and academic environment (Ayonmike, Okwelle and Okeke, 2013).

Quality is something everyone considers good and wants to have. Of the two, quantity is easier to deliver than quality. It is in the aspect of quantitative growth that most public educational service providers in Nigeria and Africa can lay claim to some degree of success while quality seems to have suffered with all the attendant consequences. Yet without quality, education becomes a wastage and even poses danger to the individual beneficiary and the society. How to ensure quality education, particularly in Technical Vocational Education and Training programmes is one of the aspects that presents public and private educational providers with the most challenging task.
The Present Status and Quality of Technical Vocational Education and Training in Africa

TVET systems in African countries differ from country to country and are delivered at different levels in different types of institutions, including technical and vocational schools (both public and private), polytechnics, enterprises, and apprenticeship training centres (African Union, 2007). It is delivered by both government and private providers, which include for-profit institutions and non-profit, NGO and Church-based institutions. In almost all countries, non-government provision of TVET is on the increase both in terms of number of institutions and student numbers. However, numerous literature evidences indicate that the quality of education, particularly Technical Vocational Education and Training in Africa is low and lack effectiveness and efficiency. For instance, the African Union Commission (2007) posited that the current situation of TVET in most African countries is characterized by the following lapses: under-resourced, obsolete or damaged infrastructure; inadequate inter-sectoral linkages; lack of labour management information systems; limited curricula and inadequate human resources. Other features of TVET in African countries are fragmented structuring of TVET; unregulated traditional apprenticeship; growing importance of private TVET centres; TVET systems are still supply driven and mismatch between supply and demand for skills. Others include low prestige and attractiveness of TVET; gender-based inequality of opportunity; geographic and economic disparities; low quality and ineffective training; insufficient funding and weak policy implementation structures.

The consequence of all these lapses is the poor quality of TVET resulting in the high rate of youths unemployment due largely to non-acquisition of employable skills. Literature evidences indicate that unemployment rates among youths have soared and is continuing to rise in many developed and developing countries around the world. Eichhorst, Rodríguez-Planas, Schmidl and Zimmermann (2012) reported that the proportion of youths (aged 18 to 24) that are neither in employment nor education (NEET) in 2011 ranged from four percent in the Netherlands to up to 20 percent in Italy and Greece, 12 percent in Australia and New Zealand, and 15 percent in the United States of America. The authors added that existing evidence from developing countries suggested that the rates are even higher, with an average of 20 percent of youths in NEET in Latin America and 25 percent in African countries.

Similarly, the African Economic Outlook and International Labour Organisation reports cited in WAVE Hospitality (2013) indicated that Liberia had the highest rate of youths unemployment of 85 percent, followed closely by Guinea with 66 percent; Sierra Leone (60%), Senegal (49%); Nigeria (42%); Gambia (40%), Cote d’Ivore (35%) and Ghana (25%). In apparent response to this high rate of youths’ unemployment which is continuing to grow annually at a steady rate, many national governments around the world, including those in African countries have made concerted efforts to enhance the status of Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) programmes in their countries, yet unemployment rates among youths still continue to rise. These situations are the consequences of inadequate human resources due to the death or displacement of experienced TVET instructors and other staff who are very often not replaced. This calls for effective retraining of the available teachers through workplace training.

THE CONCEPT OF WORKPLACE TRAINING

Workplace training has been widely recognized as one of the most efficient methods for skills development. Workplace training and learning refer to training or learning undertaken in the
workplace, usually on the job, under normal operational conditions (The Australian National Training Authority, 2003). Workplace training can also be seen as a form of training that takes place in a workplace. It is based on the principle of learning by doing and includes demonstrations by a more experienced employee, performance under supervision, and coaching, job rotation and participation in specific projects (European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training (CEDEFOP, 2011). Workplace training can be associated with formal training programmes as well as informal or incidental learning that may or may not result in some form of credential. In other words, workplace training can take various forms such as formal apprenticeships which typically involve a contract, lasting for a period of two to four years and leading to a formal qualification or other shorter and often less formal training and work experience programmes for youths as well as training for employees. Moreover, workplace training generally involves the use of experts (trainers) who play a leading role in transferring the required knowledge and skills to the learners or workers. One major advantage of workplace training is that it provides opportunity for immediate application of the acquired knowledge and skills to the workplace.

The Roles of Teachers in Ensuring Quality TVET in Africa
Teachers are universally recognized as the most important component and the pivot of any educational system. This conviction is abundantly reflected in educational literature and in various policy documents by national governments, regional and international agencies across the globe. Indeed, new schools may be built, syllabuses revised, new teaching methods and aids recommended, and new textbooks provided, in the end everything depends on the quality and quantity of teachers (Etuk, 2006). Etuk underscored the critical role of the teacher by stating that it is widely believed that education unlocks the door to national development and progress and it is the teacher who holds the key to that door. Moreover, the Federal Government of Nigeria, in recognition of the pivotal role of quality teachers in the provision of quality education at all levels noted in the implementation guidelines of the Universal Basic Education programme that many laudable educational initiatives in the country have failed because proper account of the teacher factor was not taken (F.R.N., 2000). It further stated emphatically in the National policy on Education that since no education system may rise above the quality of its teachers, teacher education shall continue to be given major emphasis in all educational planning and development (F. R. N., 2013). Agreeably, high quality teachers bring about high-quality education while low quality teachers bring about low quality of education. This further justify the need for workplace retraining of TVET teachers.

The Need for Workplace Retraining of TVET Teachers
This paper is advocating for workplace retraining of TVET teachers. This is quite different from the normal, regular retraining programmes organized in the formal teacher education institutions like Colleges of Education and universities which only enable them to enhance their theoretical knowledge at the expense of practical skills. Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2009) identified four major advantages of workplace retraining of teachers rather than in regular TVET institutions. First, workplace retraining would offer a very high-quality learning environment, allowing the teachers to acquire practical skills on up-to-date equipment and under trainers familiar with the most recent working methods and technologies, making it easier to acquire both hard and soft skills. This is because the acquisition of hard skills sometimes requires practical training on expensive equipment. With rapidly changing
technologies, some equipment quickly becomes obsolete, so that TVET institutions are often unable to afford modern equipment. Workplace retraining will therefore be more cost-effective, since it makes use of equipment already available in firms. In addition, firms also employ the people who understand how to use the latest equipment and can explain the associated techniques very well to the trainers.

Secondly, it would facilitate a two-way flow of information between potential employers and employees, making later recruitment much more effective and less costly. Thirdly, employer provision of workplace training provides a signal that a TVET programme is of labour market value. Fourthly, trainees in the workplace normally make a productive contribution. Obviously, trainees undertake useful work generating a productive benefit for the employer and their contribution typically increases with experience and depends also on how their work is organized (OECD, 2009).

The need for effective re-training of Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) teachers through workplace training is also buttressed on the fact that Technical Vocational Education and Training courses by their nature, are more practical oriented than other subjects/courses. They involve the three domains of learning namely cognitive, psychomotor and affective with more emphasis on the psychomotor domain. Thus, for any teacher to teach TVET subjects/courses effectively, the teacher must possess both the theoretical knowledge of the course as well as practical skills of the occupation. If the teacher is deficient in any of these two areas, obviously, the students would equally be deficient, particularly in the skill component. This is in consonance with one of the principles of Vocational Education proposed by Prosser (1949) cited in Okoro (2006) which states that “Vocational education will be effective in proportion as the instructor has had successful experience in the application of skills and knowledge to the operations and processes he undertakes to teach.” This is also in consonance with a common adage that the teacher cannot give to the students what he/she does not have. The recency of such experience is also of utmost importance if students are to be prepared for current expectations of employers. This further underscores the need for retraining of Technical Vocational Education and Training teachers through workplace training because no education system may rise above the quality of its teachers (FRN, 2013).

Moreover, the Federal Government of Nigeria acknowledged the need for effective retraining of teachers when it stipulated that teacher education shall continue to take cognizance of changes in methodology and the curriculum and that teachers shall be regularly exposed to innovations in the profession (FRN, 2013). This is because the initial training teachers receive during their teacher education programmes is inadequate to enable them continue for life to perform the changing complex tasks of the teacher for many reasons. First is the inadequacy of most teacher preparatory programmes vis-a-vis the varying standards in facilities, personnel and course offerings. Secondly, the society is continuously undergoing changes in values, attitudes and knowledge as a result of the ever-increasing rate of technological advancement. Thirdly, newer and more sophisticated technologies are being developed for use in schools and teachers stand the risk of being declared redundant and obsolete if they do not avail themselves of opportunities to improve their knowledge and skills in the use of such technologies (Akpan and Silas, 2013).
Furthermore, as teachers around the world are undertaking wide-ranging reforms to better prepare students for the higher educational demands of life and work in the 21st century, the skills that young people demand in the rapidly changing world, and the competencies teachers need to effectively teach these skills in a 21st century classroom are equally changing (Schleicher, 2012), hence teachers need retraining in order to remain relevant. This implies that absence of retraining of TVET teachers is like “trying to teach twenty-first century skills with twentieth-century teachers in a nineteenth-century learning environments”, hence “teacher preparation programmes should prepare teachers with the values, skills, and knowledge not just to keep abreast with the times but also be ahead of their time” (Asia Society, 2012). Hence, TVET teachers must always undergo retraining or professional development programmes to enable them update their theoretical knowledge and practical skills. This will make them relevant and up-to-date with contemporary developments in education thus empowering them adequately for quality service delivery.

**Prospects of The Proposed Strategy of Workplace Retraining of TVET Teachers**

There are many potential benefits that would accrue to TVET in Africa through the proposed strategy. As pointed out earlier, unemployment rates among youths have continued to rise in many developed and developing countries around the world, including African countries as reported by WAVE Hospitality (2013). Even the African Union Commission (2007) acknowledged that there is a growing problem of youth unemployment and underemployment which is one of the main socio-economic development concerns of most African governments. However, although there are significant positive efforts to strengthen TVET, and entrepreneurship training, TVET systems in many African countries are characterized by poor quality teachers, obsolete or damaged infrastructure; inadequate inter-sectoral linkages and lack of Labour management Information Systems. This situation does not augur well for the future of African youths as it would be difficult for them to acquire the necessary employability skills. Agreeably, without job-related skills, youths and adults cannot benefit from the employment opportunities that offer a decent income. Effective workplace retraining of Technical Vocational Education and Training teachers would obviously address this enormous challenge.

Other potential benefits of the proposed strategy are as listed below:

1. It would make the TVET system to be demand-driven, not supply-driven as it is presently.
2. It will provide ample opportunities for the teachers to have better industrial experience which would translate to higher level of skill acquisition by the students.
3. It will facilitate effective acquisition of practical skills as the industries will provide adequate facilities and competent instructors for the training.
4. It will foster development of positive professional attitudes by the teachers and students.
5. It will ensure that TVET curricula and teaching methodologies are up to date and relevant to the needs of the industry.
6. It would enable teachers and trainees to have access to the latest technology and practices.
7. The intractable problem of poor funding, inadequate facilities and incompetent teachers would be greatly minimized.
8. It would enable TVET institutions to know the level and types of skills currently required in the industry. This will help to decrease the current mismatch between skill supply and skill demand.
9. It will help in setting up a continental Qualification Frameworks.
10. There will be improved collaboration between the schools and industries
11. It will improve the level of mutual information on the job market, making recruitment of school graduates more efficient.

Lastly, and most important, workplace retraining of TVET teachers would facilitate the achievement of UNESCO’s global education agenda (2030) as well as African Union’s Agenda 2063 which would lead to the socio-economic transformation of the continent with the achievement of the 7 aspirations of “The Africa We Want” which include A prosperous Africa based on inclusive growth and sustainable development and an integrated continent, politically united and based on the ideals of Pan-Africanism and the vision of Africa’s Renaissance, among several others.

RECOMMENDATIONS
This paper recommended the following:
1. The government of every African country should develop a TVET policy that make it mandatory for TVET teachers to undergo regular workplace re-training in enterprises relevant to their occupations for a period of between 3-6 months.
2. All TVET teachers should ensure that they undergo workplace re-training in enterprises relevant to their occupations regularly
3. All TVET institutions should ensure that their programmes are modernized and complemented with phases of practical work-based experiences such as through internships or passing the final year with an employer.
4. All TVET institutions should ensure that the period of workplace training for students should be increased to at least 40% of the entire duration of their courses
5. Employers should also always be consulted regarding the design of TVET curricula.

REFERENCES


PART 14
LIFE SKILLS
MANAGEMENT OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION AS A REMEDIAL TOOL TO FIGHT CORRUPTION IN NIGERIA: A CASE STUDY OF OWERRI CAPITAL OF IMO STATE

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ABSTRACT
The study focused on management of entrepreneurship education as a remedial tool to fight corruption in Nigeria: A case study of Owerri capital of Imo State. The study stems from the researcher’s concern about the current high level of corruption among citizens worsened by our educational system that turns out “certified graduates” who do not have skill and competencies to live a decent life free of corruption. The research adopted a survey design with two objectives and two null hypotheses. Purposive proportionate random sampling of 250 employees of public sector and 250 employees of private sector made the 500 population in this study while 250 respondents is the sample size. The instrument for data collection is a four-likert rating scale with options of (SA, A, SD and D) constructed by the researcher. Data was analyzed using frequency tables; higher percentages compared with lower percentages served as decision rule. Findings reveals that our current school curriculum lack entrepreneurship education. The study also revealed that government have not encouraged out of school graduate’s skill development to enhance employment. In the light of the above findings, the study recommends first; the redesigning of our current curriculum to accommodate skill acquisition to reduce corrupt tendencies, secondly, government is to as a matter of urgency, encourage skill development programmes to enhance youth employment.

Keywords: Corruption, Education, Entrepreneurship, Fight, & Management.

INTRODUCTION
In this century, the challenges are visible as thousands of graduates from different levels of schooling roam about the streets without any means of livelihood. Youths restiveness, armed robbery, kidnapping, pipeline vandalism and numerous insurgencies experienced today in Nigeria points to the inadequacy of the school curriculum.

For these challenges to be addressed, the school curriculum needs to be redesigned. Teachers and school heads must be visionary and risk takers by redefining, reinventing, rebuilding the curriculum, instruction and assessment within their schools to reflect the present day competencies and needs. School curricula should stress the current century literacy and offer electives that are fashioned towards future careers and skills.
Instruction, practices and lessons should cultivate 21st century skills and assessments should ensure that current real world applications are evaluated and implemented. In order to triumph over these challenges, leaders must be empowered to become agents of change since the future of education is dependent upon, those willing to embrace these challenges.

Emeyonu and Okoh (2014) stated that we live in a global economy that requires our young adults to be prepared to think both critically and creatively, evaluate massive amounts of information, solve complex problems and communicate well. For one to survive in the world of today and beyond, education and training remains priority for the future of young people.

Offor (2014) is of the opinion that the essence of education is to acquire skills that will enable one relevant in the society in which he or she belongs. The skills one has are meant to guide him or her on what to do after graduation. The rising wave of unemployment among school leavers in Nigeria poses the question on whether these graduates actually acquired skills. It is a fact that when skills are not properly acquired the school graduate is not sure of what to do and in turn lacks confidence and sense of doubt grips him or her. At this point, the available option is to look for paid jobs which are not readily available. While this happens, it may not be proper to keep quiet pretending that all is well with our educational system as its product lacks employable skills which is responsible for unemployment of most graduates, an indictment on our present educational system.

Purpose of the Study
This study has two main objectives to achieve; first, it sought to identify a well designed curriculum to address corruption tendencies among graduates in Nigeria and secondly it is concerned on how government can encourage skill development to enhance youth employment.

Research Questions
i. To what extent has the curriculum been designed to address challenges of corruption in the society?
ii. To what extent has government encouraged out of school graduates skill development to enhance youth employment?

Hypothesis
i. There is no significant difference between public employee and private employee responses on how the curriculum has been designed to address challenges of corruption in the society?
ii. There is no significant difference between public sector employees and private sector employees on the extent government has encouraged out of school graduate skill development to enhance youth employment.

LITERATURE REVIEW
Education is the instrument Par Excellence for change both in the life of individuals and development of a nation’s educational system. Every nation’s educational system is constantly being subjected to changes (reforms) to suit the ever-changing needs of time. In Nigeria, the reform that brought entrepreneurship education into focus was necessitated by the rising wave of unemployment of graduates of higher institutions in Nigeria (Epemgba, Eya and Igbohinwaekwu, 2013).
The faith of the graduates in white collar jobs as the only type of job befitting to them can no longer stand the taste of time. Paid jobs are not readily available today; probably because of the increase in human population without equal increase in job opportunities coupled with the global economic meltdown that caused the closure of many small and medium scale enterprises. To face the challenge of unemployment and its attendant negative consequences including corruption is the reason for this paper.

This paper believes that if eighty percent of Nigerians engage in entrepreneurship skill acquisition where most people are meaningfully engaged in productivity, unemployment and its negative consequences including corruption will be reduced to its bearest minimum. This is so considering the fact that an Entrepreneur is any person who creates or perceives business opportunities and take advantage of available scarce resources and use them profitably, for the production of goods and services.

Through entrepreneurship education, individuals are challenged to become employment generators rather than job seekers. They are meant to become entrepreneurs in their own right. They are prepared to make bold to trust and believe in themselves, trust their capabilities and create a niche through which they make positive impact in the society. All that it takes is for the individual to change the long standing belief for government jobs and learn to cultivate favourable dispositions towards entrepreneurship to start their own business. It is worthy to note that the success of a business venture lies not on the amount of start-up funds but much more on the application of excellent entrepreneurial principles. Failure of most small and medium scale enterprises is traceable more to factors inherent in entrepreneurs than lack of funds. Factors among youth entrepreneur that lead to failure include; lack of confidence, lack of experience, immaturity, lack of consultation, impatience, dishonesty, lack of monitoring and get-rich-quick attitude.

**THE CONCEPT OF CORRUPTION**

Opara (2007) see corruption as a serious problem that has negatively affected the socio-economic and political developments of the country. It has substantially contributed to the problem of mass poverty, criminality, insecurity, political instability, violence, high indebtedness and recycled leadership in Governance. Today, corruption is widespread in the country to the extent that there can be no sustainable economic development and democratic governance until the problem created by corruption is tackled. In the light of above claims, this paper strongly believes that well planned skill acquisition programme through entrepreneurship education will go a long way to keeping majority of Nigerian busy in addition to reducing tendencies of corruption which is the bane of our present predicament.

**FORMS OF CORRUPTION**

Bribery is the most common form of corruption in Nigeria. Nepotism is a form of corruption where one deals with relatives in the award of contracts, promotion, appointment etc. other forms of corruption include fraud which is embezzlement, inflation of cost of services, forgery, impersonation, obtaining by trick (OBT or 419), internet fraud, pool betting (gambling), sorting, sexual abuse which include rape and sexual harassment, examination malpractice, election rigging, elicit dressing and intrigues are forms of corruption in Nigeria (Opara, 2007).
CAUSES OF CORRUPTION

• Excessive state intervention in the life of citizens: it could be social, economic or political intervention.
• The erosion of public ethics through the use of office and position to enrich oneself.
• Weak legal systems and law enforcement capabilities.
• Unrealistic low wages and mass poverty.
• Wide inequalities both income and power sharing among individuals and groups.
• Lack of transparency and accountability with regards to government decisions on revenue and expenditure.
• Intrigues among citizens particularly public servants in their approach to work.

EFFECT OF CORRUPTION

❖ Loss of revenue to government
❖ Loss of public funds though embezzlement and contract inflation
❖ Poor quality services
❖ Inequality in service delivery as services are influenced by the ability to bribe or nepotism
❖ Erosion of the rule of law
❖ Economic and political inequalities
❖ Hindrance to investment and economic growth and development
❖ Widespread disenchantment among citizens
❖ Political instability
❖ Crime and insecurity
❖ Ethno-religious manipulation
❖ Recycled leadership in governance
❖ Destruction of vital records for avoidance of probe

MANAGEMENT OF SKILL ACQUISITION TO FIGHT CORRUPTION IN NIGERIA

Presently, there is public outcry for functional education system since the current educational system turns out “certificated graduates who lack accompanying skills and competences” (Okorodudu, 2011). Hence reforms in education tailored towards acquisition of relevant skills by the learners are mostly desired. If individuals are properly exposed to all that they should know in skill acquisition and adequately challenged through assessment of learning, chances are that the education system will produce more responsible graduates who will be far from corrupt tendencies. Skill, according to Ayinde (2008), is a phenomenon of practical knowledge and power. It is ability to do something exceptionally well. Eze (2010) described skills as an expertise or ability develops in the course of training and experience.

Opara (2018) extended the understanding of skill to include not only trade and craft skills acquired by apprenticeship but also high grade performance in many fields such as professional practice. By this disposition, the emphasis is on possession of skill and not necessarily whether it is acquired from the formal system or through apprenticeship scheme. Uzoagulu (2010) opined that there are basic conditions or factors necessary for skill acquisition. These are interest, conduct, value and time. The implications are that individuals must take the skills to be acquired in addition to possession of the right mind and good conduct required for the skills. Recipients of these skills...
should be convinced about the value/profit that will accrue there in and be ready to devote time required to learn the skill.

This has implication for the teacher to adopt students’ centred approach of teaching which has the potential of raising the interest of the learner in classroom experience. This is imperative because of the psychological functions of skill to those who possess them are:

- The feeling that they have something to offer the society.
- Feeling of elevation and self-fulfillment. On the other hand, one who has no skills has nothing to offer and it affects his/her behaviour and mentality. Depression, frustration and aggression take the centre stage in the life of that individual; in addition, the individual suffers a social stigma as a result of lacking saleable skills.

The economic aspect of the skill which is the thrust of this paper Opara (2018) emphasized the fact that school graduates gives his/her skills in exchange for money. For instance, a graduate who has the skill of producing soap or chemicals of value gives these out in exchange for money and at the same time renders services to the society. A teacher is one who has the skills of imparting knowledge to those who desire it and receives money in exchange of the skills. Affirming this position, Uzoagulu (2010) stressed that the salaries and stipends workers receive are indeed the exchange for skills demonstrated at the workplace. Eze (2010) added that skills in all its ramification translate into inventions, services, products and ideas, and best practices that drive the wheel of progress and development. Nevertheless, skills possessed by the citizens are the wealth of the nation while lack of skills leads to poverty, disease and death.

Since skills acquisition is all this important for economic revival, it is possible to reform the teaching strategies and assessment to get more quality output. Skill is a learned ability to perform an activity or task that may be motor or cognitive (in practical task or theory). Akinade (2008) defined skill acquisition as a learned ability or task that may be motor or cognitive which could be something that is done with expertise or dexterity and that often leads to successful performance. Ozobu, Sofoluwe and Omale (2011) describes skill acquisition as ability to perform a task either mental or manual which involves working out or building up series of processes and actions into a consolidated sequence. It is also the ability to do something well, especially as a result of long practical experiences or the possession of particular techniques. Also, skill acquisition is thought as the quality of performance, which does not depend on solely a person’s fundamental innate capacities but must be developed through training, practice and experience. They maintained that although skill acquisition depends essentially on learning, it also includes the concept of efficiency and economy in performance. However, it must be understood that even though basic human capacities are not sufficient to produce skills which form the necessary basis of their development. Skills acquisition is one of the greatest legacies that the society could bequeath to its youths for a functional living for now and in the future, especially in view of the recent scientific and technological developments around the globe. The emphasis should be on acquiring the right skills to survive in a particular environment. To this effect, individuals should be exposed to all round skill acquisition (Iwuama and Maduka, 2014).
ENTREPRENEURSHIP EDUCATION TO REDUCE YOUTH UNEMPLOYMENT
Entrepreneurship development is one sure way of addressing poverty reduction in Nigeria as there is strong empirical evidence linking small and medium enterprises with economic growth and poverty alleviation (Njoku, 2005). Micro, small and medium enterprises obviously and significantly contribute to poverty reduction when they create employment through the start-up of new enterprises or the expansion of existing ones and by so doing, they increase social wealth through the creation of new markets, new industries, new technology, new jobs and net increases in real productivity which ultimately culminates in increased incomes with higher standards of living among the populace. Education is power for Nigerian youths, besides, education inculcate in the individual the right attitudes, values, interest, philosophies, abilities and discipline. The quality of any nation’s youths is a reflection of that nation’s quality of education system and its providers. This is why no nation would spare anything in providing quality education for its citizens especially the youths. Youths who could not complete their studies for whatever reason and who have no right skill can be assisted through continuous education in entrepreneurship (Mallum, 2014). The government NGOs and private sector should do more to empower the youths through NDE, ITF, NAPEP, SMEDAN and Women in Agriculture and Youth Empowerment (WAYE) which offers courses in various area, such as craft, home economics courses, like Food and Nutrition, Clothing, knitting, Tailoring, Agriculture, Fish farming, Poultry, Livestock, Beautification etc. These youths should also be assisted through Mentorship, Field Trip, Excursion, Seminars, Conferences, Vacation Jobs, Career Exhibitions, etc.

RESEARCH DESIGN AND PROCEDURE
Here, the researcher organized the presentations adopted along the following subheadings; design of the study, population of the study, sample and sampling techniques, instrument for data collection and method of analysis.

Design of the Study
The design of this study is survey, involving the use of modified Four-point Likert scale. Surveys are those studies which aim at collecting data and describing them in a systematic manner, its characteristic features or facts about a given population. Hence, this study tries to examine management of Entrepreneurship Education as a Remedial tool to fight corruption in Nigeria, using Owerri Capital of Imo State as case study.

Population of the Study
This study adopted 250 employees of the public sector of the economy and 250 employees of private sector of the economy. The population for this study is 500 respondents comprising of 250 public and private sector employees in Owerri as sample population size.

Sample and Sampling Technique
The study adopted a purposive proportionate random sampling technique in choosing the sample population size of Public and private sector employees in Owerri capital of Imo State.
Sample fraction = \( \frac{\text{sample}}{\text{Population}} = \frac{n}{N} \)

250 employees of public sector = \( \frac{250}{500} = 0.5 \)

250 x 0.5 = 125

250 employees of private sector \( \frac{250}{500} = 0.5 \)

250 x 0.5 = 125

Total of 250 population of sampled size

Table 1: Population Distribution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Employee of public sector</th>
<th>Employee of private sector</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sample population</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proportionate sample</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>250</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total of population sampled size is 250

Instrument for Data Collection
Instrument for data collection is a four-point likert rating scale questionnaire with response options of Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Strongly Disagree (SD), and Disagree (D).

Method of Data Analysis
Data collected for this study are analyzed using frequency tables and percentages. For decision making, the higher percentage answered the research questions and interpreted the hypothesis.

RESULTS
The researcher here, presented the results of the data analyses. The presentations are organized according to the research questions which serve as subheadings. Also, the summary of the analysis is presented at the end.
Table 2: Research Question 1

To what extent has the curriculum been designed to address challenges of corruption in the society?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research items</th>
<th>Agreed</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Disagreed</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A School curriculum should include entrepreneurship education</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B Participants should be evaluated to ascertain level of skill acquired</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C Certificates acquired should not be discriminated by employer</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Research Question 2

To what extent has government encouraged out of school graduates skill development to enhance youth employment?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research items</th>
<th>Agreed</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Disagreed</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>D Employ specialist in entrepreneurship skill to train participants</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E Provide skill acquisition centers with facilities to enable participants gain practical knowledge</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F When youths acquire these skills corruption will reduce in the society</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Research Findings and Discussions

To what extent has the curriculum been designed to address challenges of corruption in the society?

From the table 2, column A shows that 80% of the respondents accepted that school curriculum should include entrepreneurship education, while 20% rejected the research item.

In column B, 100% of respondents accepted that participants of skill acquisition should be evaluated to ascertain their level of skill acquired. This was supports Epemgba et al., (2013) stated that in Nigeria, the reform that brought entrepreneurship education into focus was necessitated by the rising wave of unemployment of graduates of higher institution in Nigeria.
In column C, 84% of respondents accepted that certificates acquired by graduates should not be discriminated by employers, while 16% rejected the research item.

To what extent has government encouraged out of school graduates skill development to enhance youth employment?

In column D, 80% of respondents accepted that specialist in entrepreneurship education should be employed to train participants in skill development while 20% of the respondents rejected this assertion.

In column E, 80% of the respondents accepted provision of skill acquisition centers with facilities to enable participants gain practical knowledge as a way to enhance youth employment while 20% rejected the research item propounded.

In column F, 100% of the respondents accepted that when these youths acquire entrepreneurial skills, corruption will reduce in the society. This again gives credence to the idea of Okorodudu (2011) which states that reforms in education tailored towards acquisition of relevant skills by the learners are mostly desired. If individuals are properly exposed to all that they should know in skill acquisition and adequately challenged through assessment of learning, chances are that the education system will produce more responsible graduates who will be far from corrupt tendencies.

CONCLUSION
Skills possessed by citizens are the wealth of the nation while lack of skills leads to poverty, disease and death. Skill is developed through practice and experience. Therefore, skill education is the greatest legacies the society could bequeath to its youths for functional living and life free of corruption.

RECOMMENDATIONS ON THE WAY FORWARD
From the result of the findings of this study and in order to overcome the challenges of corruption, bad governance and poverty the following recommendations are made.

• The redesigning of our current curriculum to accommodate skill acquisition to keep youths busy and corrupt tendencies reduced.
• Government is to as a matter of urgency encourage skill development programmes to enhance youth employment.
• Reduction of poverty through entrepreneurship acquisition
• Put in place an effective legal system to control the crime of corruption at all level
• An inclusive political process and structure.
• Introduction of social security benefits and programs for vulnerable and distressed citizens
• Security of employment and reasonable wage
• Rededicated leadership and avoidance of recycled leadership.
• School curriculum should include entrepreneurship education as an integral part of undergraduate courses as participants should be evaluated to ascertain level of skills acquired.
• Specialists in entrepreneurial skill should be employed to train participants and certificates acquired should not be discriminated against by employers.
REFERENCES
PART 15
EARLY CHILD EDUCATION
THE CESA EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT CLUSTER

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ABSTRACT

The early years of life offer an unparalleled window of opportunity for the development of critical skills and abilities that lay the foundation for later learning and development. When young children participate in Early Childhood Education and Development (ECED) programmes where they receive opportunities for early learning, responsive care, good nutrition, health care and security they are more likely to succeed than their peers who miss out. Low access, poor quality, uncoordinated services and inadequate parental engagement continue to rob young children of their chance of living successful lives. More needs to be done to ensure opportunities are available to all - especially the most marginalised - and that these opportunities translate to sustained improvements in child outcomes. Much progress has been made across the continent in advancing the ECED agenda and this paper presents an overview of the current status of ECED programming with a specific focus on early childhood education and expounds on the achievements, challenges and opportunities of this sub-sector. It advocates for a systems approach to delivering quality early childhood education for all. The paper also presents the structure and progress of the CESA ECED Cluster that was launched to support achievement of the CESA 16-25 objectives, AU Agenda 2063 and SDG 4.2 all of which call attention to improving early childhood education and development outcomes.

Keywords: Early Childhood Education, Early Childhood Development, & ECED Cluster.
INTRODUCTION
Early Childhood Education and Development (ECED) generally refers to programs that promote the holistic development of children during the first 8 years of life. Specifically, this means making sure that all children are developmentally on track physically, emotionally, cognitively and socially and that they are supported to learn and develop to their full potential. Over the years, evidence from neuroscience, economics and human development has shown that access to quality ECED programmes positively impacts on children’s development, increases efficiency of the education system, improves economic development, contributes to improved health outcomes and breaks the cycle of intergenerational poverty. Furthermore, evidence has clearly demonstrated that the gains achieved through quality programming are highest among the poor and vulnerable and that the benefits of investing in quality early childhood programming accrue to individuals, families and society at large. In short, an investment in the early years is an evidenced based strategic approach that could increase equity and ensure the achievement of ambitious social and economic developmental goals that many AU Member States have set.

As this diagram shows, a multisectoral approach is needed to deliver on ECED. Young children need good health, adequate nutrition, opportunities for early learning – which starts at birth and not only when they step into school- and safety and security to develop fully. Underpinning all these elements is the presence of caregivers that are responsive to their children’s needs. These five elements are the core components of nurturing care and it is only when a child receives all these elements that they can develop to their full potential. Therefore, ministries and departments responsible for health, nutrition, education, child protection and social protection all have accountability for ECED.

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International legal frameworks - including the Convention on the Rights of Children (CRC) which came into force in September 1990) oblige and commit the international community to do more for young children. The African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child – commits African governments specifically to ensure the survival, protection and development of children. More recently, ECED has received global recognition as being critical to the achievement of SDGs by 2030 and has been embedded in the SDGs on hunger, health, education and justice with clear targets for different aspects of child development including malnutrition, child mortality, early learning and violence. SDG 4.2 commits governments and partners to ensure that by 2030 all girls and boys have access to quality early childhood development, care and pre-primary education so that they are ready for primary education.

In Africa ECED has its roots in the early efforts made by communities, women’s groups and governments to give Africa’s children the best start in life. Promoting positive conditions for healthy development through childcare practices is not a new phenomenon for Africa. Indeed, African societies have been offering positive models of child rearing in many respects including in the care of pregnant women and breastfeeding mothers, safe child birth, breastfeeding and close contact between infant and mother. The role of caregivers, within the extended family system, in socializing children within communities is yet another model of positive child rearing. As the children grew older, their immediate and extended families provided the needed care and support. They acquired knowledge and skills through stories, games and songs mainly through their parents and grandparents. They learnt as they participated in various activities at home and within their communities. Learning was mostly experiential although children also received direct instruction from the adults around them. Group experiences were also organized mostly for those approaching adulthood, during initiation ceremonies, to socialize them on their roles and responsibilities. As a result of urbanisation and the expansion of the cash economy into rural areas, a breakdown of traditional childrearing structures occurred. This resulted in a great need for childcare services, as families needed a safe place to leave their children as they go about various economic activities. In response to this, initiatives to provide childcare surfaced, including government run public day cares/nurseries/pre-primary programmes; privately owned daycare services, NGO run programmes and community-based services. Although these originally began as childcare centres, in many places they have evolved into early learning centres and in several countries governments also provide services. Therefore, there is a solid base from African culture and experience that should be built on to ensure the full development of Africa’s young children.

Notwithstanding the multisectoral aspect of ECED and the interdependent link between all the core components of nurturing care, this paper focuses mostly on early childhood education (ECE), recognizing it as only one element of what is needed to deliver on ECED but an element where Ministries of Education have the most direct accountability and where the CESA 2016-2025 has placed particular emphasis.

**ACHIEVEMENTS AND KEY CHALLENGES**

A common policy position across the region has been the inclusion of at least one year of pre-primary education into the formal primary school system for example through the addition of the zero class in Ethiopia, reception class in South Africa, two years of pre-primary in Ghana and two years of Kindergarten in Egypt. While this strategy has resulted in the rapid increase of enrolment rates across the continent, only a third of pre-primary aged children are currently enrolled in
Africa and nearly 57.5 million pre-primary aged children are not enrolled in any ECE services. In addition, because ECE is not free in many countries, few children are likely to come from low-income households, yet it is this group of children that stand to benefit the most from quality ECE. Across the continent, only seven countries have achieved a pre-primary gross enrolment ratio of 70% or more. Much more needs to be done to ensure widespread access to public fee-free ECE.

To meet the needs of growing numbers of early learners, governments have embarked on the design and implementation of institutionalized training programmes for the early childhood education workforce. As a result, over half i.e. 54% and 88% of the pre-primary classroom teachers are trained in SSA and Northern Africa respectively. While much has been done to improve the capacity of teachers, more needs to be done to ensure teachers are well supported and motivated. Few pre-school teachers in the continent are adequately paid, mentored and supervised. There is also the need to establish appropriate qualifications and a career development plan for pre-primary teachers that will motivate them to engage in a continuous improvement of their skills. The rapid expansion of the pre-primary programme has not been matched with an equal expansion in the capacity required to manage these programmes. This capacity gap is evident at all levels of implementation from the co-ordination units at national level, to the sub-national and facility level. There is a shortage of qualified staff to support the national roll out of ECED programmes. For example, an estimated 3.4 million additional pre-primary teachers will be needed in Africa, if it is to meet the SDG 2030 target for pre-primary and combat its very low qualified teacher: pupil ratio which currently standards at 1:52. In addition, pre-primary programmes across the region continue to suffer poor infrastructural facilities, low availability of play and early learning materials, low teacher to child ratios and weak implementation of national curricula.

The lack of assessment tools to track child development across the different domains continues to be a huge gap. There is an absence of appropriate, valid and reliable methods of obtaining useful information for guiding teaching practices, identification of learning problems, developmental delay and also for determining a child’s readiness and progress. A few countries have developed school readiness assessment tools including Kenya (KSRAT), Zambia (ZamCAT), the Early Learning Assessment Program in Zimbabwe and Malawi that has developed a range of monitoring and evaluation tools for use in ECD programmes. More needs to be done to better support teachers with tools that will help information gathering to guide design of developmentally appropriate experiences.

While domestic financing of pre-primary education has increased, most countries in Africa invest less than 2% of their education budgets in pre-primary education. Implementation of pre-primary education programs across the continent has largely been dependant on funds from parents/caregivers, aid agencies, philanthropists, international organizations, NGOs and FBOs. Government expenditure on pre-primary education has been minimal with available funds mostly

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9 UIS global database, 2018.
10 Computations by UNICEF, based on data from the UIS global database, 2018. The estimation is based on UIS pre-primary-age population and pre-primary education GER in the most recent year (2011–2017). For countries that do not have available administrative data adjusted net attendance rate one year before primary entry age is used. Libya and Somalia do not have available data.
being used to pay salaries. Limited government allocation to pre-primary education continues to be a continental challenge that directly impacts child and family outcomes.

Figure 2: Expenditure on Pre-Primary Education as a Percentage of Total Government Education Expenditure, UNICEF 2018

The enabling environment for ECE – beyond financing and workforce development – continues to be another challenge. Whilst the legal and policy framework for primary, secondary and tertiary education is more established there are gaps when it comes to ECE. Issues that remain unresolved across countries relate to the legal requirements for ECE education (compulsory or not); its funding status (public or private) and its institutional home (Ministries of Education or not). The legal, policy and governance frameworks for ECE remain unclear across the continent. This is particularly challenging within the context of decentralisation where more public services are being devolved to local government levels. A lack of clarity at the national level inhibits public service delivery at devolved levels and it is vulnerable young children and their families that are most likely to lose out.
THE SYSTEMS APPROACH TO SCALING UP EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION\textsuperscript{13}

Given the challenges highlighted above this paper proposes that AU Member States adopt a systems approach to delivering on ECE. It is a systems approach that will ultimately deliver quality at scale that is inclusive and sustainable.

“A system is a group of interacting, interrelated, and interdependent components that form a complex and unified whole.”\textsuperscript{14} Typically the ECE ‘system’ will need to be built as a sub-sector within a broader system e.g. within an education system. This will need collaboration, communication, a shared vision and shared accountability across several key directorates or bureaus responsible for curriculum, planning, personnel and monitoring. It should not be the sole responsibility of one department, directorate or individual to deliver on quality ECE.

The development of an ECE system requires four fundamental elements that are interconnected, interdependent and equally necessary:
1. Political will
2. Contextual Planning
3. Technical capacity
4. Financial resource

Without political will, financial resources will be limited or even non-existent. Contextual planning and technical capacity are essential to ensure that resources are well allocated and spent.

When developing an ECE sub-system, there are three recommended process pathways:

• a political process - In most cases, the development of ECE systems is aborted due to limited interest or involvement of political actors. The process of system development should first be envisioned as a political process requiring political actors responsible for education - in both the executive and legislative branches of government
• a technical process - Technical expertise is needed to support the design or structure of the system based on context knowledge, interaction and experience.
• a participatory process - Stakeholders participation in system development is relevant for engagement, collaboration and ownership.

Systems in themselves have no impact but for their functionality at national and sub-regional levels. To ensure the functionality of ECE systems, several elements are worth considering\textsuperscript{15}:
1. Relevant laws and policies
2. Organized structures
3. Leadership and capacity
4. Public investment
5. Partnership and coordination
6. Awareness and public demand

\textsuperscript{13} The following section is based on UNICEF’s Framework for Building Effective Early Childhood Education Systems, as well as on first-hand experience UNICEF has gained working with countries across the world and with AU Member states in Africa specifically – Angola, Ghana, Ethiopia, Lesotho, Malawi and Mozambique - on ECE systems strengthening.


\textsuperscript{15} Adapted from United Nations Children’s Fund, ‘Building effective early childhood education systems: Framework for the Pre-Primary Subsector’, UNICEF, New York, 2019
Aside from the key enabling environment elements needed for ECE as highlighted above there are five areas where governments will need to prioritise action:

1. Effective planning and budgeting
2. Curriculum, teaching and assessment
3. Workforce development training
4. Family and Community engagement and
5. Monitoring, and quality assurance.

Below is a diagram highlighting all the key elements.

THE CESA ECED CLUSTER AND ITS ROLE IN BUILDING Viable EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION SYSTEMS

It will take political will, resources and vision to build viable Early Childhood Education systems as outlined above. There is no organization better placed than the AU to drive this agenda forward

at continental level. Agenda 2063 sets an ambitious agenda to deliver a safe and prosperous Africa for all and the CESA 2016-2025 is a key strategic document to enable Africa to achieve its economic and social development goals. In September 2018, to support the achievement of CESA 16-25 and in line with the AU’s commitment to laying solid foundations for lifelong learning, the AU launched the Early Childhood Education and Development Cluster (CESA ECED Cluster). The Cluster is chaired by the AU, co-chaired by the Government of Mauritius and Co-ordinated by the Africa Early Childhood Network (AfECN). The Cluster is open to all AU Member States and counts Development Partners, NGOs and academia amongst its members all seeking to support AU Member States in developing, implementing and monitoring policies and programmes to support ECDE across the continent.

The CESA ECED Cluster takes a holistic approach to ECED and defines early childhood as the developmental period between conception until 8 years of age. It understands the importance of delivering on holistic child development and is committed to working with other CESA Clusters, AU institution and AU Member States to provide for children’s health, nutrition, safety, security, early learning and development. A key focus for the Cluster, given its education entry point, is to scale-up access to quality ECE services across the continent, to support children’s physical, social, emotional and cognitive development. The Cluster could play a critical role in providing support and guidance to AU Member States in building and strengthening ECE systems so that more children are developmentally on track and enabled to start primary school on time ready to learn, stay on and progress through to higher levels of education. The Guiding Principles of the Cluster are spelt out below.
The Cluster has identified its six key objectives as follows:

1. Enhance policy, advocacy and communication. The ECDE cluster will collaborate with key stakeholders to:
   a. Increase advocacy to strengthen political will for policy development, resource allocation and sustainable implementation of strategies
   b. Promote and support the development of policies that will ensure all children have access to quality ECED services

2. Intensify action to improve equitable access to quality ECDE programmes and services. The ECDE cluster will collaborate with key stakeholders to:
   a. Enhance advocacy for equitable access to quality services
   b. Support the improvement of early learning infrastructure
   c. Promote the design and implementation of contextually relevant strategies for expanding access

3. Improve Quality of ECDE systems, programmes and services. The ECDE cluster will
collaborate with key stakeholders to:

a. Strengthen the capacity of the ECDE workforce
b. Support the development of relevant and comprehensive regional and national curricula
c. Enhance quality assurance and assessment mechanisms

4. Governance and Accountability. The ECDE cluster will collaborate with key stakeholders to:

a. Develop guidelines and toolkits to strengthen management and accountability
b. Support the implementation of programmes for the improvement of governance and management

5. Enhance Research Generation, Documentation and Dissemination. The ECDE cluster will collaborate with key stakeholders to:

a. Strengthen the capacity of young African scholars to undertake research that supports ECED programming
b. Undertake generation of knowledge to guide improved practices
c. Improve dissemination of ECED knowledge and experiences

6. Strengthen partnership and collaboration across all key stakeholders including state and non-state actors.

Through the operationalisation of the ECED Cluster AU Member States can be supported to strengthen ECE systems. Specifically, the Cluster could enable AU Member States to:

- Build capacity on how practically to develop and maintain durable Early Childhood Education systems.
- Share good practice from across the continent on how to create the right enabling environment for ECE as well as how to develop the core functions of the ECE subsector that will enable the delivery of quality ECE for all, ensuring that:
  ➢ the right legal framework and policies are put in place
  ➢ there are strengthened governance mechanisms at national and sub-national level
  ➢ adequate investments are made – both financial and human resources the capacity to plan, implement and monitor ECE programmes is strengthened, including stronger workforce, appropriate curricula and effective quality assurance mechanisms
  ➢ there is broad public awareness on the importance of investing in the early years and demand for ECE services
  ➢ within Ministries of education there is inter-departmental collaboration to improve teaching, engage better with communities and families and ensure better quality with improved curricula and clear standards and guidelines.
- Strengthen intersectoral collaboration.
- Generate contextually relevant evidence and lessons learned to better inform the scale-up of quality ECE.