

Redrawing the boundaries of difference in the region: Regionalisation as new spaces for educational change

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INTERNATIONALISATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION: ISSUES FACING YOUNG UNIVERSITIES IN KENYA

Elizabeth S. Abenga

Masinde Muliro University, Kenya

Cell: +254-726846769 esabenga@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT

Education and development are closely linked together and influence one another. The role and importance of higher education for sustainable social, political and economic development and renewal in Africa cannot be over emphasised. Global trends in higher education have presented increased cross border provision, new modes and technologies of delivery, new types of providers and qualifications, and new trade imperatives driving education. The impact of integration processes in the continent on the education sector cannot be ignored. Higher education is also experiencing a new breed of learners who are keen on moving with the latest trends in education and development. Higher education needs to respond to these challenges in the face of increasing differences in wealth, social well-being, educational opportunity and resources between rich and poor countries and where it is often asserted that sharing knowledge, international co-operation and new technologies can offer new opportunities to reduce this gap.

Much as internationalisation is high on the agendas of governments, international bodies, institutions of higher education and individual institutions develop their own strategies to internationalise their research and their teaching. Owing to the variations in contexts, perceptions of internationalisation, priorities and other factors, institutions realise differential levels of internationalisation and face special challenges. Consequently, there are differential levels of and modes of internationalisation programmes. Institutions of higher education are faced with challenges of harmonising local and international dimensions of education. The question to be asked is whether internationalisation can be undertaken as something that is more than a way of attaining multiculturalism, peace, mutual understanding and simply keeping up with a trend in education for the sake of it? What does it take to internationalise higher education? What milestones have to be overcome? This paper will explore the internationalisation of higher education in young universities in Kenya in light of the questions raised and prospect for the future.

Key Words: *Internationalisation of education, globalisation, multiculturalism*

Introduction

In the recent past, the demand for higher education has increased tremendously occasioning growth in many ways. This growth is characterised by increase in number of new campuses and colleges, new universities (both public and private), increase in the types and modes of provision, and much more. It is important to note that in Kenya, this growth is realised in an

environment characterised by reduced funding for higher education. This, of necessity, requires institutions to raise funds through activities directly in line with their core business. As a result there has been witnessed a growth in number of programmes and modes of provision. As the programmes expand, so do the needs of students admitted in terms of infrastructural and other developments. Within this context is evidence of increased demand for quality and relevance both locally and internationally. Ongong'a (2001) rightly describes the situation in East African region by stating that more students and different types of students enter universities demanding relevant programmes (Karanja 2004), so the student being the customer has to get value for money. This calls for customer oriented higher education that must be run like any other business. For the business to thrive it must ensure quality education. This scenario has led institutions to come up with strategies to cope with demands placed on them and to increase their competitive edge. In response to the effects of globalisation, and for various other reasons, institutions of higher education have embraced internationalisation of education. Newly established universities have not been left behind in this. In order to discuss issues that young universities face in internationalisation of education the concept of internationalisation is examined.

Internationalisation is perceived differently by different players probably, based on their focus and strategy. Internationalisation is at times used to mean international education, international exchange, globalisation and multiculturalism. These terms though related are not the same. Internationalisation of education is defined in this paper to facilitate and guide discussion. Newly established universities face unique circumstances in their establishment and development which have an impact on their efforts in internationalisation of education. These institutions also have different rationales for internationalisation. These rationales and accompanying issues are discussed with a view of identifying their impact on internationalisation strategies used.

Internationalisation of education

In most writings internationalisation of higher education is narrowed down to one or a few activities such as academic mobility, global or multicultural education, academic exchange programmes, area studies, study abroad, and many more. Others view internationalisation as a new educational vision that can provide a global oriented society with an education that meets current needs and that can respond efficiently to contemporary demands and challenges, which are characterized by globalisation, interdependence, and multiculturalism (de Wit 2010, Teichler 1998). Suffice to mention here that newly established institutions of higher learning find themselves caught up in the mix of quest for independence from fostering institutions in running programmes and interdependence occasioned by internationalisation. Without a clear understanding of internationalisation and without a clear rationale, a strategy may be mistaken for internationalisation (de Wit 2010). For instance, the activity of exchanging staff and students between institutions in different continents is a strategy or dimension within the internationalisation process, and not internationalisation per se. This paper adopts de Wit's (1997) definition of internationalisation of higher education as the process of integrating an international/intercultural dimension into the teaching, research and service functions of the institution.

This definition, when examined closely brings out several important elements of internationalisation. First, it is a process not an event. Second, it is a response to the international, to globalisation and is not to be confused with the globalisation process itself. It is important to note here that international and global issues are dynamic hence, the responses to them are continual. Third, internationalisation includes both international and local elements (intercultural). This implies the accommodation and blending of the international in to the local context in a manner that institutions of higher learning maintain relevance to their mission both at the local and global arena.

According to Knight (2008) the international dimension of higher education increases steadily in importance, scope and complexity therefore there is need for constant updating its meaning. This, she states, is occasioned by realities and challenges of the current environment that includes globalisation and the emergence of the knowledge economy, regionalisation, information and communication technologies, new providers, alternate funding sources, borderless issues, lifelong learning, and the growth in the numbers and diversity of actors.

Globalization refers to the increasing unification of the world's economies, through globalisation regional economies, societies, and cultures have become integrated through communication, transportation, and trade. Globalisation involves the transnational circulation of ideas, languages, or popular culture through acculturation. In this case the major driver of globalisation is education facilitated by advancement in information communication technology. This implies that universities whether young or old need to have policies that will guide the internationalisation process. This brings to relevance Altbach, Reisberg and Rumbley's (2009) definition that internationalisation is the variety of policies and programs that universities and governments implement to respond to globalization.

Multiculturalism is the appreciation, acceptance and promotion of multiple cultures, applied to the demographic make-up of a specific institution. Multiculturalism therefore becomes one of the strategies in internationalisation. In educational set ups, multiculturalism is achieved through programmes, activities and materials that provide opportunities to deal with issues of changing demographics of students. In Kenya it is common to find students from all over the world registered to pursue long or short term programmes. It is expected that specific managerial, infrastructural and service modalities aimed at attending to the unique needs of internationalisation programmes are in place. At the same time, programmes to ensure mutual benefit to the international and local community are realised. Universities that are within a particular cultural set up establish programmes to facilitate appreciation and acceptance of other cultures.

Rationales for internationalisation

In order to discuss the challenges faced by young universities in their quest to internationalise, it is worthwhile to have an overview of common rationales for internationalisation. This is because the rationales direct the strategies applied and the activities engaged into by individual institutions. Different rationales imply different means and ends to internationalisation (Knight 2008). Rationales vary over time and by institution, country and region. Herein lies sources of complexities that pose challenges in internationalization. De Wit (2002), Knight (1995), identify four groups of rationales: academic, social/cultural, political and economic rationales. Rationales can be described as motivations for integrating an international dimension into higher education. They address the "why" of internationalisation. Knight (2008) introduces emerging rationales at different levels. At institutional level she identifies them as international branding and profiling, quality enhancement, international standards, income generation, student and staff development, strategic alliance and knowledge production. Generally, institutions internationalise in order to add an International & intercultural dimension in curriculum, research, teaching, and to extend the academic horizon of its staff and students.

When analysing rationales, it is important to take into account the diversity of stakeholders' groups in higher education: the government sector, the private sector and the educational sector. Within the last group we have to distinguish between three subgroups: the institutional level, the academics and their departments, and the students.

There are some hidden/ covert or incidental rationales. This are evidenced by institutions embarking on internationalisation activities 'blindly' or without clear rationale. Such institutions will lack a policy or strategy and will be guided either by external expectations or pressures. Internationalising higher education because it is 'the nice thing to do' provides fertile ground for myriad challenges. One of the problems is not being able to know what goals are to be

achieved. This therefore means that institutions are not able to apply the best strategy, measure success or failure or even stay on any course. Secondly, there are external pressures on institutions of higher education. National, regional and international ranking of universities which factors in international visibility brings in an aspect of competitiveness that motivates institutions to embark on internationalisation as 'life-or-death' matter (Teichler1998). This puts pressure on young institutions to try and measure up and be visible in a playing ground that is crowded and not level. Currently in Kenya, public institutions sign annual performance contracts with the government and internationalisation is one of the targets. This puts pressure to implement programmes regardless of the priorities and capacity. This scenario calls for a discussion on the context in newly established institutions of higher learning in Kenya.

The context of newly established universities

Newly established/young universities in Kenya find themselves in unique circumstances that influence and have an impact on the nature, type and level of internationalisation. Most new universities start off as campuses of a fully fledged university. Once on their own, they are faced with the responsibility to ensure all usual programmes as well as development programmes are sustained. With the diminishing financial support from government there are insufficient resources. The financial, infrastructural and human capacity to establish internationalisation projects is low. This puts such institutions at a disadvantage with different sections and projects competing for the limited resources. Student numbers are increasing by the years while infrastructure, library resources, human resources are not growing at the same rate. Though there could be a felt need for internationalisation programmes, internationalisation may not be high on the priority funding list of such institutions. Traditionally, universities were established in major cities of the country. For many years since independence these were concentrated in the Kenya's capital, Nairobi. Nairobi University was the first, followed by Kenyatta University and Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology in the outskirts.

In recent years, Universities are coming up in rural towns and centres. Geographical location of an institution in developing nations has an impact on the development level which in turn influences institutional development, and preference for international interaction. There are obvious benefits of being newly established such as openness to innovation, novelty and opportunities for growth. However, the level of establishment of an institution contributes largely to the type and extent of internationalisation in any given institution of higher learning. Literature has identified requirements for internationalisation of higher education (Zolfaghari et al 2009). These include national and institutional policy, funding, comparability, quality, infrastructural, service, accreditation, and standards. Issues discussed in this paper emanate from lack of or inadequate presence of these factors.

Policy issues

Young universities either lack policy on internationalisation or there is lack of clarity among members on what the institutional internationalisation policy means. The implication here is that there is no set purpose, objective or agenda that the institution sets to achieve through their internationalisation programmes. There is need for institutional policy that is in line with the institutional strategic plan, vision and mission. It is also necessary that all stakeholders and implementers of the internationalisation policy are sensitised on the policy (Fullan 1985). Assuming that internationalising higher education is generally understood by staff of a university can be detrimental to the success of any program as it will receive minimal support, diverse interpretation and may achieve unintended goals. Secondly, in some internationalisation strategies or activities that are already initiated by universities, policies are in place but they face other challenges on implementation. For instance, mobility policy is reported to be high in priority but the level of mobility from the developing countries to the developed is low (Tellefen 2010). By extension, it can be concluded that since younger institutions are yet to establish high level of stability of their programmes, services and operations, outward mobility of students and

staff is low. There are no scholarship incentives to support and facilitate this mobility. Exchange programmes then become imbalanced. Owing to financial constraints, institutions have policies that require the student or staff going out on an exchange or mobility programme to contribute up to 80% of the cost or full cost of travel. This is prohibitive to a majority and makes the programme a preserve of the well to do in society.

International comparability issues

Universities, regions and nations have different systems of education. Programmes vary in their content, weighting, duration, entry requirements, accreditation and grading systems. Europe recently started the Bologna process as an attempt to harmonise education in the region. This provided ease of student mobility within the region. There is still a challenge when the exchange or mobility is expected to occur between two different regions. Other than the dissimilar credit systems, there is the issue of low quality programmes in some institutions. The low quality could be as perceived by a prospective exchange partner/country, or real as a result of commodification/commercialisation of education (Tellefen 2010). In the eastern African region neighbouring countries such as Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania education systems have unique differences ranging from the structure to language of instruction. These have posed challenges to those seeking mobility opportunities. Standards are not unified and there is lack of a systematised interpretation of credits. Student mobility from Kenya to Uganda is high while the reverse is yet to be witnessed. Why should this be the case? The question raised here is whether the East African Community will be realised if education is not a part of the integration. As Zolfaghari A. , Sabran, M. and zolfaghari A. (2009) suggest, there is need for structures to ensure national and regional higher education meets international standards for more vibrant internationalisation to happen. Focusing back to newly established universities the issue of comparability is still valid. When collaboration programmes between countries take an educational dimension the default choices are more often than not, the more established and stable institutions or those that compare favourably. This however, is with the exception of cases where younger institutions take the initiative and showcase their uniqueness to attract international participation. Zolfaghari et al (2009) rightly state that the challenges of higher education have a direct relation with economic and developmental rate of countries. By inference, therefore, the economic, infrastructural, accreditation and general development status of an institution has a bearing on the international comparability of a university. The economic, digital and knowledge divide doesn't only affect states but also institutions of higher learning.

Curriculum issues

Success in internationalising university education requires running of programmes that appeal to and attract international students. Most public universities have had the tradition of starting campuses that run programmes offered in the main campus. With time as the campuses grow into colleges and later into chartered universities, they continue running conventional programmes with minimal or no innovation. Few innovative programmes are not developed with the international dimension in mind. Hence, they lose their international appeal. Is it not possible for universities in Kenya or Africa run programmes that attract high percentage of international students? Universities that have international programmes also prepare their graduates to be global minded and extend their work horizons. Internationalisation of the curriculum therefore is not meant to serve the interest of the international staff and students only but those of the local. Any curriculum is developed and implemented to meet the needs of society. In the twenty first century, the society is much more expansive than the country. It is global. University education whether of old or young universities should be relevant in addressing this concern. In order to achieve the goal of the internationalization of higher education, institutions of higher learning need to integrate a global dimension into their curricula by addressing cultural, ethnographic, geographic, historic, and linguistic issues in innovative ways.

Possible sources for internationalisation of curricula are: highly interactive course designs with both domestic and foreign participants commonly referred to as joint curriculum development; use of international research projects in teaching; international dimension in both content and learning processes is necessary e.g. courses taught in other than the domestic languages should be attended by both foreign and domestic students (Knight 1999).

Issues of infrastructure and services

Internationalisation being a response to globalisation and globalisation being fuelled by advancements in information and communication technology implies that low application of technology hinders internationalisation programmes. Having described the context of newly established universities reveals that availability of adequate and necessary technological and other infrastructure is low compared to that of well established older universities. International programmes require good and adequate tuition, research, accommodation and recreational facilities, equipment, internet connectivity, and other support services. Support services such as language proficiency, language of instruction, counselling, academic, social, and cultural and health advisory are very important. These may not be up to standard and may therefore jeopardise internationalisation efforts. Since young institutions have several projects competing for resources, there is more justification for planned and strategic internationalisation programmes that can be managed in view of required infrastructure and services.

Conclusion

Young universities face unique challenges in their efforts to internationalise education. These challenges are not insurmountable, neither are they new. The first suggestion to be made here is that these challenges and issues discussed here, and any other, could to be anticipated in order for them to be managed or avoided. Universities need to understand their contexts and make the best of them as they develop. A realistic and strategic approach to internationalization rather than a defeatist one is proposed. Any internationalization effort needs to be well thought out for purpose and expected results. This requires clear institutional policy on internationalization that is well articulated and understood by all stake holders.

Internationalization in higher education institutions is best achieved when the rationale and strategies used are comprehensive with widespread relevance, for and adapted to, the multicultural aspects of society (Louw 2004). This requires a context in which the strategies become an integrals part of educational policies. This enhances their acceptability and support and enriches the quality and relevance of the educational programmes offered (Louw 2004). The process of internationalisation should be integrated systematically and holistically in the higher education sector (Garcel-Avila, 2005) and strategies should be comprehensive and affect all levels of the institution (Louw 2004).

The internationalization of higher education depends on the acceptability and comparability of programmes, projects, researchers and students. This requires universities, especially the newly established ones, to ensure that quality is competitive and comparable enough to attract international participants as well as make the graduate relevant and valuable globally. This can be achieved by internationalizing the curriculum as well as integrating the international dimension into programmes. Internationalisation activities of any given institution need to be coordinated centrally to ensure alignment to rationale and goals of internationalization as well as avoid duplication, conflict and redundancy. Concerning service delivery, university staff and students require enhanced capacity to supporting international activities (Stone, 2006). An international office with qualified personnel to drive the internationalization of education is the way to go. On another level, it is necessary that financial, technological, infrastructural, and service support is availed to run and manage internationalisation programmes. This will ensure streamlining, monitoring and evaluation of programmes.

At the national and regional levels, there is necessary to break down the barriers to achieving borderless higher education. Focus here turns to setting up common standards that ease mobility of students and facilitate credit transfer and recognition without compromising quality. Execution of common educational periods, entry requirements and use of acceptable/ international standards for education assessment and evaluation with other universities can contribute towards levelising the mobility field. Institutional internationalization policies need to be in line with national foreign policy. This is assuming that the foreign policies are sensitive to the needs of internationalization and globalization. With economies, labour and development agendas taking a global dimension, it is expected that national educational agenda are designed to drive the others in the global perspective.

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CONTRAPRENEURSHIP IN HIGHER EDUCATIONAL ORGANISATIONS: PERSPECTIVES OF TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT

Peter Neema-Abooki, PhD

Dean: East African School of Higher Education Studies and Development

Makerere University, P. O. Box 7062, Kampala – Uganda
E-mail: pneema@educ.mak.ac.ug, akampaneema@yahoo.co.uk
Skype: peter.neema.abooki Cell: +256 772 413 184

Abstract

The paper singles out educational institutions onto which it castigates the deep-seated challenging phenomenon of “contrapreneurship”: the active resistance to change. It asserts Total Quality Management (TQM): a metaphor for the process and management of change designed to realign the culture and working practices of an organisation for the pursuit of continued quality improvement.

The cross-sectional survey solicited responses from group categories of Administrators, Academic staff, Students, and Support staff at three universities in Uganda. While Mbarara and Uganda Martyrs Universities were targeted wholesale, the respondents at Makerere University were selected from the former School of Education (SoE) and Faculties of Social Sciences (FSS), and Economics and Management (FEMA).

The results revealed that the members of the academic community at the universities are – although varying in both degree and essence – occasionally ready for change initiatives. Pinpointed was that the superordinates were opposed to change because the system favoured them; and, therefore, any propagation of change necessarily threatened their authority.

The paper ultimately advocates for “Total Management Commitment” and flexibility of all members of a given academic community, arguing that organisations can hardly survive in today’s competitive and changing world unless they commit to Total Quality as a central driving force.

Key Words: *Contrapreneurship, Culture, Educational Organisations, Total Quality Management.*

Introduction and methodology

Organisations hardly work in isolation. As an old adage intimates: “No man is an island entire of self, organisations have to fully involve not only internal stakeholders but have also to take advantage of the external environment. The all-embracing interaction helps organisations to share learning and to achieve the set objectives. Stoner, Freeman, and Gilbert (1995) are categorical that the entire organisation must work together to enable a quality culture to succeed. In the selfsame words of Musaazi (1982), quoted in Neema-Abooki (2006), to operate

successfully, an enterprise, a school or a government unit must have an organisational structure which provides for the clear allocation of functions and responsibilities to the various sections and departments of the establishment. Robbins and Coulter (1999) opine that organisational managers ought to therefore recognise the importance of the environmental responsibility of the organisation and of individuals; the dual responsibility which is otherwise referred to as the "greening of management"

Organisations therefore aim at improving business practices to match competitive edge. Nevertheless, failures might occur should senior management tend to motivate change through top-down programmes which in turn often fail to create deep and sustained change in organisations. Failure to institutionalize Total Quality Management (TQM) can be attributed to a gap between top management's rhetoric about their intentions for TQM and the reality of implementation in various sub-units of the organisation. The gap varies from sub-unit to sub-unit due to the quality of management in each. By quality of management is meant the capacity of the senior team to: 1) develop commitment to the new TQM direction and behave and make decisions that are consistent with it, 2) develop the cross-functional mechanisms, leadership skills and team culture needed for TQM implementation, and 3) to create a climate of open dialogue about progress in the TQM transformation that will enable learning and further change. TQM transformations will therefore persist only if top management requires and ultimately institutionalizes an honest organisational wide conversation that surfaces valid data about the quality of management in each sub-unit of the firm and leads to changes in management quality or replacement of managers ([http://mitiq.mit.edu/iciq/PDF/RELEVANCE%20OF%20TOTAL%20QUALITY%20MANAGEMENT%20\(TQM\)%20OR%20BUSINESS%20EXCELLENCE%20STRATEGY%20IMPLEMENTATION%20FOR%20ENTERPRISE%20RESOURCE%20PLANNING%20\(ERP\)%20A%20CONCEPTUAL%20STUDY.pdf](http://mitiq.mit.edu/iciq/PDF/RELEVANCE%20OF%20TOTAL%20QUALITY%20MANAGEMENT%20(TQM)%20OR%20BUSINESS%20EXCELLENCE%20STRATEGY%20IMPLEMENTATION%20FOR%20ENTERPRISE%20RESOURCE%20PLANNING%20(ERP)%20A%20CONCEPTUAL%20STUDY.pdf)).

Innovations like TQM are typically motivated by top management's desire to improve performance. However, if top management adopts TQM because other firms have, understanding of TQM and how it can be utilized to improve performance of the firm will be low. If understanding is low, commitment will also be low and will lead to early abandonment. Management's behavior and the organisation's emergent culture must therefore become consistent over time with the TQM philosophy or employees will become cynical. Such cynicism in turn undermines commitment. Thus an organisation seeking to make a fundamental TQM transformation faces significant organizational and managerial challenges of change (<http://uk.search.yahoo.com/search?p=TQM+transformation+strategy&ygmasrchbtn=web+search&fr=ush1-mail>).

This paper subscribes that the innovator has two forms of reassurance to offer. One, his or her own skill in persuasion by having done enough homework in the project-definition stage to look like the expert he or she has become. The second kind of reassurance is *spreading the risk*: making sure that enough supporters are lined up, that their very presence indicates the likelihood of success and distributes the responsibility among a larger group (Neema-Abooki, 2004b). The flamboyant ideal that managers, together with all other members in an organisation, should incessantly inculcate in themselves an "education of conscience" and that each should painstakingly uphold the ideals that heighten the reign of the common good is hereby reinforced. For, even successful organisations need day-to-day improvement (Neema-Abooki, 2006). Castigated heretofore is the deep-seated challenging obstacle to the management of organisations; namely: "contrapreneurship", that is, the active resistance to change. Such a scenario is detrimental to the desired change for continued improvement. Morgan and Murgatroyd (1994) define contrapreneurship as the effective and creative use of skills and competencies to prevent significant change from occurring. The co-authors highlight that in contrapreneurship the kinds of resistance encountered are active rather than passive, creative rather than blunt rejection, and powerfully effective rather than being just a nuisance.

The rationale for this paper is therefore to ascertain with the TQM gurus that TQM establishes dynamic planning and implementation that can orchestrate change. It asserts TQM as a

metaphor for the process and management of change designed to realign the culture and working practices of an organisation for the pursuit of continued quality improvement (Neema-Abooki, 2006). Sought to this effect were but the perceptions of the respondents regarding the extent of readiness that the university exhibits towards change initiatives.

The phenomenon of contrapreneurship was probed from Makerere University (Mak), Mbarara University of Science and Technology (MUST), and Uganda Martyrs University (UMU). At Mak, respondents were selected from the School of Education (SoE), Faculty of Social Sciences (FSS), and Faculty of Economics and Management (FEMA). The other two Institutions were targeted wholesale owing to their size as compared with some particular Schools/Faculties at the Makerere University.

Suffice to spell out herewith that the SoE is now, together with two other newly created schools, under the College of Education and External Studies while FSS has joined the Faculty of Arts and the Institute of Psychology to constitute the College of Humanities and Social Sciences. FEMA has amalgamated with the Institute of Statics and Applied Economics to what has become the College of Business and Management Sciences.

A cross-sectional survey research design was utilized in the study since, unlike the longitudinal one, it helps collect information within the same spell of time. Moreover, survey results can be generalised to even a larger population. For the sake of triangulation, a structured questionnaire – same for all respondents – and an interview schedule helped collect data. The latter instrument was open-ended and hence availed opportunity to the interviewees to qualify their responses.

The study solicited responses from the academic communities, sampling from Administrators, Academic staff, Students, and Support staff. Forensic consideration was given in view of a proportionate representation of each sub-group. To this effect, the amount of data collection was therefore regarded efficient to help determine statistically any conspicuous differences. And particularly for Mak, the student-respondents were drawn from the postgraduates but including under-graduates in their final year of study.

While quantitative data was analysed and reported in terms of tabulated frequencies (f_o) and percentages (%) the qualitative type was subjected to descriptive form.

Findings and discussion

Table 1 Presents the corresponding percentage scores by the respondents in regard to readiness for change initiatives at the universities as perceived by the respondents

	Administrators		Academic staff		Students		Support staff	
	f_o	%	f_o	%	f_o	%	f_o	%
MAKERERE UNIVERSITY								
Always	9	18	11	22	93	18.6	11	22
Occasionally	30	60	39	78	374	74.8	39	78
Never	11	22	0	0	33	6.6	0	0
Total	50	100	50	100	500	100	50	100

MBARARA UNIVERSITY								
Always	11	55	8	40	16	10	8	40
Occasionally	9	45	12	60	132	82.5	12	60
Never	0	0	0	0	12	7.5	0	0
Total	20	100	20	100	160	100	20	100
UGANDA MARTYRS UNIVERSITY								
Always	4	20	0	0	37	26.4	17	85
Occasionally	16	80	20	100	103	73.6	3	15
Never	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	20	100	20	100	100	100	20	100

The results, as depicted in the table, reveal that the members at the referred-to-universities are occasionally ready for change initiatives. This is manifested by the stance that, apart from the administrators at MUST and the support staff at UMU who scored 45% and 15% respectively, all the other respondents at all the institutions registered – and some of them even superlative – percentages to attest to the status quo. Tangible evidence is rendered by UMU’s academic staff (100%), MUST’s students (82.5%), and Mak’s support staff (78%).

Adjacently, the majority of the interviewees equally alluded to “fear to change” as a prime obstacle at their Universities. Though equated to both the superordinates and the subordinates, lack of commitment to change-initiatives was mostly associated to the senior managers. The respondents at the three universities resonated with one respondent at Mak according to whom the bosses, “conservative as they were, did take refuge in their traditions and resisted evolution”. The quoted respondent, himself an administrator and speaking in general terms, voiced that the senior managers were opposed to change because the system favoured them; and any propagation of change threatened their authority. As a panacea, the respondents alluded that while there was need for managers at whatever level to curb the rampant concern for personal survival and all members of the academic community to be conscientized about the advantages of change, it was of utmost imperative for universities in particular and institutions of higher learning in general to adopt the Japanese way of creativity and innovation.

Hence, they should embrace the “Kaizen strategy” which calls for never-ending efforts for improvement involving everyone in the organization – managers and workers alike (http://www.1000ventures.com/business_guide/mgmt_kaizen_main.html).

Suffice to intimate herewith that at the time of committing this paper to print the situation at the Universities is tremendously different from what has been depicted by the foregoing. Makerere University in particular is currently experiencing a brand of leadership which is winning profound admiration of the media and the public as “revolutionary”.

This paper juxtaposes that the resistance to be overcome does not always come from top management nor does the impetus for change always come from below. For instance, lower level employees may make positive suggestions propagating for a reform and management may resist these plausible initiatives. The contrariety may also be true that even lower employees or any presumed beneficiaries of such changes do negate them and as such managers often are frustrated in their attempt to create change. Applying this to the educational situation, the co-authors highlight that in schools even the proposal to adopt a different text book can touch off a frenzy of resistance (Neema-Abooki, 2006).

Sources of resistance to change, according to David (1992), are the following:

1. Inertia of groups and organisations
2. Ignorance of trends
3. Investment in what will become obsolete
4. Preference for the present system
5. Fear of loss (of security, status, power)
6. Rejection of change source
7. Fear of the unknown.

However, in contradistinction especially to “Number One” source above, Marilyn Ferguson, cited by Covey (1989), observes thus:

No one can persuade another to change. Each of us guards a gate of change that can only be opened from the inside. We cannot open the gate of another, either by argument or by emotional appeal.

Without prejudice to the foregoing, the major sources of change likely to affect the practice of management include:

1. Physical environment

A good understanding of the physical environment will help the community to seize the opportunities and alleviate the constraints through proper planning. The comprehensive planning process normally requires that the community fully analyzes the physical environment of the area to be planned (<http://www.lees-summit.mo.us/CompPlan/Physical%20Environment.htm>).

2. Social environment

Also known as the milieu, the social environment (context) of an individual is the culture that he or she was educated and/or lives in, and the people and institutions with whom the person interacts. A given social environment is likely to create a feeling of solidarity amongst its members, who are more likely to keep together, trust and help one another. Members of the same social environment will often think in similar styles and patterns even when their conclusions differ (http://74.6.239.67/search/cache?ei=UTF-8&p=social+environment+definition&sado=1&rd=r1&fr=ush1-mail&u=en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Social_environment&w=social+environment+definition+defin e&d=E4Jkvd29T2Oy&icp=1&.intl=uk&sig=1z5m0l1R_NbP5ykJCXaHAg--).

3. Information environment

The Information Environment (IE) is a term used to refer to the development and provision of services which enable people to find and manage information efficiently and effectively in their learning, teaching or research. Developing the IE is a continuous process of responding to changing needs and technologies (<http://www.jisc.ac.uk/whatwedo/themes/informationenvironment/overview.aspx#whatis>).

4. Political environment

The critical concern heretofore is that the political environment has a very important impact on every business operation no matter what its size or its area of operation. Whether the company is domestic, national, international, large or small the political factors therein the country will have an impact on it. And the most crucial and unavoidable realities of international business are that both host and home governments are integral partners. Reflected in its policies and attitudes towards business is the governments idea of how best to promote the national interest (<http://www.exampleessays.com/viewpaper/41568.html>).

5. Moral environment

Referred to here is the totality of circumstances surrounding an organism or group of organisms, especially: a) The combination of external physical conditions that affect and influence the growth, development, and survival of organisms. b) The complex of social and cultural conditions affecting the nature of an individual or community (<http://www.answers.com/topic/environment>).

General Overview

This paper subscribes that, considering the variety of sources of change, successful managers will be those who are aware of world events and trends even outside their organisations. It is obeisance that they should acknowledge that management is both a science and an art. It was in a similar veining that one respondent at Mak juxtaposed thus: Rulers use power, Managers use authority, and Leaders use influence. This paper subscribes to the foregoing and reinforces Leader/Manager distinction thus: “Leaders plant; Managers weed. Both together yield the greatest harvest (http://www.1000ventures.com/business_guide/crosscuttings/leadership-mgmt_synergy.html). Relatedly, a respondent at MUST, referring to the “managership and leadership feature different mindsets”, construed thus:

Leaders set the outputs; Managers chase the inputs. Leaders focus on group products; Managers focus on individual jobs. Leaders encourage new ideas; Managers enforce the old ideas. Leaders stimulate right things; Managers monitor for wrong things. Leaders thrive on tough competition, Managers talk little of competition. Leaders prize comparison with others; Managers see scant need for comparison. Leaders think of involvement programs; Managers think of suggestion programmes. Leaders empower others to make decisions; Managers tightly control the decision process. Leaders see leading as animate and proactive; Managers see managing as inanimate and reactive. Leaders think of a dynamic, caring human system; Managers think of a business following a script. Leaders think of improving initiative and innovation; Managers think of improving compliance and conformance. Leaders shape organisation’s character, culture, and climate; Managers assume that’s neither a big deal nor their job.

The paper delights in the synergistic leadership-management relationship which presupposes that in order to maximize one’s long-term success one should strive to be both a manager and a leader. Merely possessing management skills is no longer sufficient for success as an executive in today’s business world. Needed is the understanding of the differences between managing and leading and the knowledge of how to integrate the two roles to achieve organisational success. Hence, one has to synergize the functions. A manager makes sure that a job gets done as a leader cares about and focuses on the people who do the job. To integrate management and leadership, therefore, demands a delicate balance between a calculated and logical focus on organisational processes [management] and visioning, energizing employees, and a genuine concern for them as people [leadership]

(http://www.1000ventures.com/business_guide/crosscuttings/leadership-mgmt_synergy.html). Leadership-management synergy is therefore result-based, entrepreneurial and inspirational; and as such it is central to a TQM transformation strategy.

Concluding remarks

The paper concurs that resistance to change may be overcome by educating employees or inviting them to participate in implementing the change. Acknowledging legitimate resistance and changing tactics based on it, together with employee participation, is a holistic strategy helpful in dealing with resistance. As cited in Neema-Abooki, (2006), a useful technique to systematically identify areas of resistance is therefore a *force field analysis*; defined as “the process of determining which forces drive and which resist a proposed change”. The technique involves creating a force field of driving forces, which aid the change or make it more likely to occur, and restraining forces, which are points of resistance or things getting in the way of change. The starting point should be identification of the change goal. According to Covey (1989), driving forces are generally positive, reasonable, logical, conscious, and economic. On the other hand, restraining forces are often negative, emotional, illogical, unconscious, and social/psychological. Both sets of forces are very real and must be taken into account in dealing with change. According to Neema-Abooki (2006), this is per se an incessant call to the implementation of TQM as “a process for encouraging the attitude that change is the usual situation, because through this comes quality improvement and success”. Heightened is the view of Macdonald (1998) that TQM is a managed process that involves people, systems and supporting tools and techniques. It is, therefore, a change agent that is aimed at providing a customer-driven organisation. Suffice to reiterate that TQM presupposes not only total involvement of all the stakeholders but continuous evaluation and improvement if quality is to be reflected. For, it is a system of principles, methods, and best practices that provide a framework for organizations to strive for excellence in everything they do (<http://www.aztech.org.uk/courses/168.asp?sj=168>). The paper ultimately subscribes that effective implementation of any managerial intent calls for quality of direction if a strategic change is to succeed.

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Dr. Neema-Abooki Peter holds various academic credentials in both philosophical and theological disciplines besides a Post Graduate Diploma in Education, a Masters and a Doctor of Philosophy – both degrees in Educational Management. He is currently the DEAN and Senior Lecturer in Educational Management and Administration, Human Resource Management, Educational Policy and Planning, and Educational Foundations at the East African School of Higher Education Studies and Development (EASHESD) at **Makerere University**. Earlier on he lectured in Educational Foundations, Educational Administration, and Educational Planning and Management at **Kampala University, Kisubi Brothers' Centre for Uganda Martyrs University, and Kyambogo University**. He doubles as External Examiner in several Universities. His scholarly research has delved into issues that encompass not only managerial, with specific focus on Quality Assurance (QA), but also theological and socio-anthropological disciplines. On the International scene Peter is a member of several organisations and a reviewer of several Journals

VOLUNTEERING AS A CATALYST TO SOCIO-EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN UGANDA: FROM DONATION TO COLLABORATION

Sanni T. Adebayo

**Department of Social Work & Social Administration,
Kabale University, Uganda**

tideen2001@yahoo.com
Phone: +256-784534402

ABSTRACT

—The world is a global village. No nation is totally independent of others; not one is above assistance. Volunteering is the practice of people working on behalf of others without being motivated by financial or material gain. Being motivated to volunteer is a crucial threshold for both the volunteers and those seeking their services to ensure full benefits of volunteerism. Yet the reigning conceptual model of volunteering in the field of non-profit sector studies- is an economic one, based on the notion that such people are engaged in unpaid labor- a characterization which offers at best a superficial explanation of the motives that encourage them to show a wish to help by offering their time and expertise pro bono. Volunteering is generally considered an altruistic activity, intended to promote good or improve human quality of life and living standards as has been the case in Uganda in terms of developments. Some people also volunteer to gain skills without requiring an employer's financial investment. From time to time, some countries donate funds to other countries for development, but the position has shifted from donation to collaboration in terms of exchange of human resources for capacity development.

Volunteering takes many forms and is performed by a wide range of people. Many volunteers are specifically trained in the areas they work in, such as medicine, education, or emergency rescue. Some others volunteer in various areas, such as in response to a natural disaster. From a public policy perspective, the economic, educational, vocational and social outcomes of volunteering make this an important subject meriting investigation. Volunteering is perceived as important for creating social, educational opportunities and advancing civil society, and therefore has become a fundamental part of social policies across the globe. Volunteering refers to an individual's long term helping behavior without compensation conducted willingly for the active help seeker after deliberation in the context of an organization. Therefore, this paper attempts to point out importance of national and international volunteering in socio-educational development in Africa, especially in Uganda in the framework of south-south cooperation from a geographical perspective and, from donation to collaboration from a substantive point of view..

Key words: Volunteering, Socio-educational, Emergency, Development.

Introduction

According to the Microsoft Encarta Dictionary (2006), a volunteer is defined as “somebody who works for nothing; somebody who works without being paid.” It also refers to “somebody acting without legal obligation: a participant in something who is not legally bound to participate and does not expect to be paid.” In another perspective, a volunteer is therefore someone who offers to do charitable or helpful work without expecting any rewards either by way of payment or compensation for the service(s) rendered, for it is done out of one’s freewill and not out of legal obligation or compulsion. The volunteer, on the other hand, is someone who gives time, energy and talents to others, expecting nothing in return, and is not forced to do so. Volunteers must have an open mind, be willing to embrace wisdom learned from others and also let the experience of volunteering lead to personal inner growth. Different nations and organizations take volunteering activities upon themselves, to assist their neighbor sister country, by sending professionals who qualified for development of such country in the area of education, e.g. Peace Corps of United States and Technical Aid of Nigeria.

Federal Government Established Nigerian Technical Aid Corps Programme in 1987 to assist States in African, Caribbean and Pacific Regions in their socio-economic development efforts through the participation of Nigerian experts in various fields of human Endeavour, especially in education.

The programme has proven to be an effective and more coordinated form of assistance in contrast to the hitherto policy of outright cash donation to the beneficiary States. The Scheme has also demonstrated its value as a practical expression of South-South Cooperation for which Nigeria has always been in forefront. In the key note address by Dr. Ibrahim Assane Mayaki, on Africa’s Changing Development Landscape “Beyond Aid” in Tunis, Tunisia, 4 November 2010. He reiterates firmly and clearly: “that though Aid will continue to be an important tool for Africa’s development, however, Aid cannot develop Africa. Development assistance cannot help Africa realize its sustainable development objectives. He stated further that Africa’s development will be the result of African efforts that aim at utilizing innovative financing mechanisms and other forms of development finance, particularly domestic resources.” The internationally agreed principles of the Paris Declaration and the priority actions under the Accra Agenda for Action are global milestones that Africa fully associates with. However, delivery by development partners on their partnership commitments, particularly on use of country systems has been abysmally low. Volunteering is one of the aspect, which developments can take place because of willingness of individuals and nations to contribute their quotas for better society?

Safrit and Merrill (1995) identified the four defining tenets of volunteering:

1. Volunteering implies active involvement. The act of volunteering involves active participation or contributions of time, energies or talents; it is never seen as the giving of financial or material resources as a donor/sponsor.
2. Volunteering is uncoerced. Individuals give of their time, energies and talents freely and for whatever motivation(s).
3. Volunteering is not (primarily) motivated by financial gain. Many program reimburse volunteers for personal and material expenses incurred during their service. These financial remunerations have been termed reimbursement, stipend or living expenses, but never salary. They are supplemental and not the main motivation for volunteering.
4. Volunteering focuses on the common good. Although reasons for volunteering may be individualized and perhaps even self-serving, the outcomes of volunteering are focused beyond the individual towards a larger, common good.

In 1999 the United Nations volunteers identified three defining characteristics: (a) Volunteering is done by choice, (b) without monetary reward, and (c) for the benefit of the community. This paper articulates the spectrum of national volunteerism, from donation (of the past) to collaboration of the modern era.

Theoretical framework

For over three decades, the factors that cause individuals to assist the needy have been of interest to psychologists. Early research conducted by psychologists studied helping in emergencies or other unexpected and short-term situations. More recently, research began to focus on helping in long-term situations (Stukas, Snyder, & Clary, 1999). Pre-arranged and ongoing commitment to providing service and support to others is known as volunteering (Baumeister & Bushman, 2008). The social psychologists E. Gil Clary and Mark Snyder are prominent researchers in the field of the psychology of volunteering. They have examined major theories of volunteerism, these being the functional theory and symbolic interactionism. They have also examined possible consequences of making volunteering a compulsory task. Clary and Snyder have identified the motivational functions that volunteering satisfies. Finally, they have conducted thorough research to help support their theories.

Clary et al. (1998) have recommended taking on a motivational perspective when addressing the questions of why individuals choose to volunteer and what factors support volunteerism over prolonged time periods. This is because such questions address the same concerns that are central to the motivational perspective; these being what are the processes that start, guide and maintain courses of action.

Clary et al. (1998) have selected the functional theory to deal with these motivational questions. This theory examines which personal and social purposes do a person's thoughts, emotions and actions serve (Clary et al., 1998, as cited in Snyder, 1993). According to Clary et al., this theory has helped to develop the understanding of the processes involved in attitudes, persuasion, personality, social cognition and social relationships. This theory thus has the potential to increase understanding of the psychology of volunteerism. The functional theory holds at least three key principles relating to volunteerism. An important assertion of this theory is that individuals choose to perform similar tasks in order to attend to different psychological functions (Clary et al., 1998; Clary & Snyder, 1999). An alternative explanation of this theory, one that helps to explain volunteerism more clearly, is that individuals will partake in the same volunteer task to satisfy different motives. Also, this theory states that major psychological events, especially choosing to volunteer, rely on individuals identifying to themselves, what their motives are, then selecting situations that can meet these psychological needs (Clary & Snyder). The functional theory also encourages the consideration of a broad selection of personal and social motivations that promote volunteerism (Clary et al.).

The functional approach helps to explain the psychology of volunteerism, as does another theory used in social psychology, known as symbolic interactionism. This term was originally coined by the sociologist Herbert Blumer in 1937. According to one of the basic assertions of this perspective, individuals act toward things based on the meanings they link to those things (Blumer, 1986). This perspective is relevant to volunteerism and studies conducted by Clary et al. (1998) have helped to confirm this theory. The major influence that determines if an individual will or will not choose to undertake volunteer work, is whether the work is linked to their own psychological motives.

National volunteerism from donation to collaboration

National volunteerism is a situation whereby a citizen or group of citizens render needed help to their nation freely and without the slightest expectation of payment, reward or gain. Volunteering to serve at the national level, which is meeting certain needs or rendering of needed help and

assistance for a worthy cause, is perhaps the height of patriotism and national service that any citizen can hope to attain. It is a demonstration of a citizen's selflessness, commitment and desire to be a good citizen, being aware of his/her nation's needs and coming forward to meet such needs freely and without expectation of rewards or payment. Some volunteers of these categories are students who have just completed their study in University but have no job to do. In lieu of these, they join an NGO's and voluntary organization to volunteer on ongoing project with aims of converting to full-time employment. Done memory lane, in Africa we have way of assisting ourselves. For example, in the rural areas, the use of volunteer efforts to construct houses and how able-bodied men came together to assist neighbors plough large fields, periodic mobilization of young adults for the regular maintenance of rural roads that led from town to villages.

At the global level, during the Crimean War especially the critical period between 1853 and 1856, Florence Nightingale volunteered her services as a nurse to treat wounded British soldiers at war front barracks hospital in Turkey. Her exploits with the 38 other volunteers that she was able to mobilize to support her remain the critical defining principles for the nursing profession the world over to this day. Today one of examples of organized volunteerism and easily one of the enduring in the world is St John Ambulance Brigade. It was originally founded in 1887 in the United Kingdom, "to provide volunteer first aid service". Today, the organization has voluntary membership associations in more than 42 countries of the world. The service of this organization has moved from national to international status and its good examples of selfless service to humanity are being replicated in different countries of the world.

The Boy Scouts, an organization founded in England by British Military Officer Robert Baden-Powell in 1907 is today reputed to be the largest voluntary organization in the world, with over 25 million members in more than 140 countries. The Girl Guides also established in 1909 by the same Baden-Powell and today has over 10 million members worldwide, drew its inspiration from the Boy Scouts. Both organizations were founded and have continued to operate on three basic principles which are: "personal commitment to God or Supreme Being, good citizenship, and helpfulness." Today, the Boy Scouts Guides, although made up principally of youths, are known to provide useful voluntary services to the nation in diverse fields. It is not uncommon to see Scouts helping with the maintenance of order at schools and colleges social events such as inter-schools sports competitions, helping with traffic control during public ceremonies, providing help and running errands for the elderly and the infirm and sundry acts of public spiritedness.

Medical charity organization the world over is the Medecins sans Frontieres (Doctors without Borders). Founded in France in 1971, the MSF has over 2,000 volunteers and 15,000 local hired staff and renders needed emergency medical assistance to the needy in over 80 poor and underdeveloped countries, and especially to the victims of man-made and natural disasters.

In the same spirit and consequently, Nigeria through her foreign policy established the Technical Aid Corps Scheme design to get Nigerian to volunteer to serve the cause of their nation abroad. This emanated from Federal Ministry of External Affairs in 1986. Under this scheme, the Nigerian Professionals in diverse fields such as Medicine, education etc who have volunteer of their free will would be trained and deployed for two –year duration (renewable upon good performance) to the needy African and Caribbean countries as a unique component of Nigeria's external policy. This was intended to offer manpower in the place of money. Some African countries today have benefited from this program in the area of educational development.

The importance of volunteers

The importance of volunteers to community welfare is generally well understood by society. Yet some institutions have made volunteerism a compulsory activity. For instance, some high schools in the United States include volunteer work as a requirement for student graduation. These institutions tend to hold the belief that mandating volunteerism will cause individuals to

integrate prosocial values into their belief systems (Stukas, Snyder, & Clary, 1999). However, research has contradicted this viewpoint. If individuals recognize that they volunteer only when required and not of their own accord, they may be less likely to volunteer later on. Requiring individuals to volunteer may also give rise to psychological reactance. This is where placing controls on a person's freedom results in them attempting to re-establish their free will. This can be achieved by deviating from the required task and declining to continue performing it in future situations (Stukas, Snyder, & Clary).

The volunteer functions inventory

While studying and analyzing the psychology of volunteerism, Clary and Snyder (1999) developed an instrument designed to measure volunteers' motivations, known as the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI). The VFI offers six motivational functions that are satisfied by volunteerism. The first of these is the values function that is, volunteering presents individuals with occasions on which they are able to express altruistic and charitable values, as well as compassionate feelings they hold for others. Consideration for other individuals is a common trait for those who choose to volunteer sets volunteers apart from non-volunteers and helps to estimate whether volunteers will fully complete their duties (Clary et al., 1998). The second is the understanding function; that is, volunteers will often receive the opportunity to learn new skills or to understand more about the world in general. Through volunteering, an individual may be able to utilize knowledge and skills that are usually unused, and to develop new knowledge and skills through hands-on experience (Clary et al.). The third is the enhancement function, that is, individuals who are currently experiencing a positive mental state may choose to volunteer in order to enhance their positive mood. Also, by choosing to volunteer, individuals are able to undergo psychological growth, personal development and increases in self-esteem. This function involves a motivational procedure that focuses on developing positive attitudes relating to the ego (Clary et al.).

The fourth is the career function; that is, individuals may be able to gain experience in their chosen career by doing volunteer work in a similar field. This would increase their chances of being selected for their desired job later on (Clary et al., 1998). The fifth is the social function, which reflects individuals' motivations relating to social relationships. Volunteering may be socially rewarding in that it enables individuals to build new friendships or to strengthen current friendships. If an individual takes part in a task for which others have a particularly high opinion, this will probably reflect well on the individual (Clary et al.). The sixth is the protective function. It is derived from another principle of the functional theory, which states that individuals are motivated to ensure that their self-esteem levels are protected. This function involves a motivational procedure that focuses on eliminating negative attitudes relating to the ego. Volunteerism may assist this motivational procedure by reducing negative feelings an individual may be experiencing, such as guilt over appearing to be more fortunate than others are. Volunteering may also serve as a means for individuals to address, or temporarily escape from, their personal problems (Clary et al.). Volunteers commonly report that values, understanding and enhancement are the most important functions, whereas career, social and protective are the least important functions (Clary & Snyder, 1999).

Conclusion

It is worthy of commendation that, volunteering is for those people with large hearts who see themselves as individuals who can make a change in the world. This is achievable only if the government throughout the world provides enabling environment where patriotism and national/international commitment can thrive and flourish.

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NEW AND CREATIVE APPROACHES TO LEADERSHIP REQUIRED IN SOUTH AFRICAN SCHOOLS OF TOMORROW

Prof RJ (Nico) Botha

**Department of Teacher Education
School of Education, University of South Africa**

PO Box 392, Pretoria, 0003
botharj@unisa.ac.za

Abstract

School reform initiatives that are continually taking place locally necessitate new ways of thinking with regard to the concept of educational leadership in schools. South African principals, as in other parts of the world, can simply no longer lead in the old and traditional ways. This article, based on a review of the literature, focuses on evolving school leadership within the changing school context. It portrays the South African school context as dynamic and characterised by the interaction of external and internal factors, with the latter dominated by issues such as school-based management and dysfunctional schools. Understanding this dynamic nature and the enormous challenges that emerge is a prerequisite for understanding the types of leadership approaches suitable for school's of tomorrow.

Introduction

As the leadership role of the school principal is widely regarded as the primary factor contributing to a successful relationship between school reform and school improvement and is therefore an essential dimension of all effective schools, South African principals of the future, as the counterparts world-wide, will be increasingly expected and required to lead in new and creative ways to keep up with the new challenges, expectations and demands of modern-day society. The focus in this paper, based on a literature study, will be on this emerging vision of schooling and the evolving concepts of creative leadership needed to nurture the development of that vision in South African schools.

Traditional approaches to educational leadership

A synopsis of some of the 'older' and more traditional views of or approaches to educational leadership that gained prominence in the past few decades is subsequently given. Common among these approaches is the understanding of school leadership as an evolving process. Although there are also others, the following seven educational leadership views or approaches have been associated with the principalship over the years:

- **Authoritative leadership:** This traditional leadership concept presents the principal as someone who is totally in charge and is associated with aspects such as authority and power. According to this approach the principal's subordinates have to accept commands/control.

- **Instructional leadership:** The instructional leadership concept of the school principal presents the principal as someone whose approach to curriculum and instructional development displays strong and directive behaviour.
- **Contingency leadership:** This situational concept of the school principal as leader proceeds from the premise that each situation is unique and must be viewed and studied as such, to the conclusion that the effectiveness of a principal's leadership is contingent upon a particular situation.
- **Transactional leadership:** Transactional leadership occurs when the relationship between the leader and the followers is forged mainly on the basis of the exchange of valued things between them.
- **Shared leadership:** Shared leadership, also known as collaborative leadership or distributed leadership, is leadership in which a leader acknowledges that leadership of an organisation cannot be the exclusive preserve of a single person, but is team-based.
- **Transformational leadership:** Transformational leadership occurs when leaders and followers join hands "in pursuit of higher-order common goals" (Barnett & Sagor 1994: 26). Transformational leaders build unity with followers around a clear collective vision and a commonly understood and accepted mission and purpose (Steward 2006).
- **Political leadership:** The political leadership role of the principal can be described in terms of the principal as a member of the school governing body. In this structure the principal usually serves as a non-voting, *ex officio* member who nonetheless plays an important political leadership role.

The characteristics of modern school reform

Underlying the literature on school reform, school restructuring and emerging visions for schools of tomorrow are three dominant and central themes which represent the heart and soul of school reform. They represent fundamental shifts in education that have dominated schools in South Africa, as well as worldwide, over the last decades, while touching each of the three key levels of schools as organisations, namely the institutional level or the interface between schools and their environments, the managerial level and the technical core level, or teaching and learning level in the case of schools.

From producer control to consumerism

The business of schooling is being redefined in relation to the customer, marketisation and consumerism. At the same time, the traditional dominant relationship between educators and the public domain is being reviewed in favour of parents and community members. The role of parents is dramatically redefined in the restructuring of schools. Hargreaves (2007) emphasised four elements of this evolving role in the restructuring process, namely choice in selecting a school; voice in school governance and management; partnership in the educational process; and enhanced membership of the school community.

From hierarchy to community

There is a growing feeling that the existing structures of management in South African schools are unsustainable. Although school-based management has existed for a while, there are still various scholars who believe that the continuation of the existing bureaucratic systems of management in our schools is counterproductive to the needs and interests of educators. In view of the far-reaching attack on the basic organisational infrastructure of schools a system that will require from school principals to lead in new and creative ways is required.

From behaviourism to social perspectives

At the centre of this newly-forming vision of South African schools of tomorrow are fairly radical changes in our assumptions about knowledge. A new view, one that holds that knowledge is internal and subjective, that it depends on the values of the persons working with it and the context within which that work is conducted, is receiving serious consideration. In schools of tomorrow, a learner-centred model will replace the more traditional teacher-centred instruction on the core level and this will place huge demands on the way in which these schools will be instructionally led.

Emerging visions or metaphors of creative leadership

Taking the abovementioned school reforms in mind, it becomes clear that schools of the future cannot be led in the same traditional manner as before and that these reforms necessitate new approaches to creative leadership. Because changing our metaphors is an important prerequisite for developing new approaches to leadership, a metaphorical approach will be applied in this section.

The school principal as community servant and facilitative leader

The leadership challenges for principals in this new era will be complex. Not only must they accept the mantle of leadership (i.e. changing from implementers to initiators, from focusing on process to a concern for outcomes, from being risk avoiders and conflict managers to risk takers) but they will also need to adopt leadership strategies and styles that are in harmony with the central tenets of the innovative school organisations they seek to create, working with people rather than through them. Principals will need to facilitate these partnerships and become 'servants' of the community and the people in the true sense of the word. Servant leadership differs from more traditional views of leadership in a number of ways. Establishing meaning rather than controlling and supervising is at the core of this type of leadership, which is based on dialogue and cooperative, democratic leadership principles.

The school principal as organisational architect

If there is an all-encompassing challenge for South African leaders of tomorrow's schools, it is to lead the transition from the bureaucratic model of schooling to an adaptive, self-management model. At the same time, school leaders will have to adjust their own definition of what it means to be a school leader. The challenge, then, is to redirect administration from management to leadership, and to do so in ways consistent with the principles of post-industrial organisations. There is a fair amount of agreement that existing organisational structures contribute to the problems that currently confront South African schools, and that these conditions either cause or support the educational negligence that often characterises the system.

The school principal as social architect

Leaders of tomorrow's schools should also be able to address the rapidly changing complexity of the South African society. These changes are nowhere more visible than in the family and in society at large. The condition and structure of the South African family is changing, so that an increasing number of learners come from homes without strong support systems, homes without parents and from very poor and economically disadvantaged families. The task then is to restructure schools completely in order to address these needs and problems. Problems currently experienced in this regard in most South African schools indicate that we have so far largely failed this challenge.

The school principal as moral and ethical leader

Moral leadership acknowledges that values and value judgements are the central elements in the day-to-day realisation of the educational purpose. As moral educators, leaders of tomorrow's schools will be much more heavily invested in purpose-defining activities than simply in managing existing arrangements. This means that those wishing to impact society as school leaders must be motivated by a set of deep personal social values and beliefs. As the moral character of both families and schools in South African continues to decline, school leaders should view their leadership task more as a mission than a job. The belief that the activities of school leaders are intertwined with ethical and moral issues is central to the metaphor of moral educator.

The school principal as visionary leader

Creative leadership for our schools of tomorrow needs to be anchored in the struggle to forge a new vision for schools, and such a vision should be firmly grounded in a transformational view of education in relation to the South African society at large. This involves taking the initiative in developing a dream about the school and sharing it with others in such a way that what is initially a personal dream is reshaped and elevated to the status of a shared organisational vision. This has the advantage that a clearly expressed and shared vision to all stakeholders in the school community gives clear direction of where to school goes.

Synthesis

Principals worldwide use different leadership styles and approaches. The principal's style in leadership is traditionally based on his or her assumptions about human beings, human learning and human nature. As the South African educational landscape is volatile and changing by the day, the contingency leadership metaphor will always remain relevant as the school situation is and always will be contingent in nature. Emerging metaphors of school leadership are all dependent on the situation and will therefore be contingency-based. The authoritative leadership approach, for one, will not be applicable in the South African schools of tomorrow because of changing assumptions and the democratisation of the country and the school environment. As an organisational architect, the principal is to lead the transition from the autocratic and bureaucratic models of schooling to a more adaptive, self-management, distributive, school-based and participative model.

Although instructional leadership is widely acknowledged to be a critical skill in educational leadership, very few of South African principals have had training for that role. Current assumptions of instructional leadership include much deeper involvement in the teaching and learning process and carry more sophisticated views of professional development of staff. Influenced by leadership developments in the private sector, the focus has increasingly shifted in schools from an instructional model towards facilitative models of leadership that emphasise collaboration and empowerment. This suggests that the principal's role should not be to direct others but to facilitate a process in which decisions are made collaboratively.

In an era of transformation, as currently experience in South African education, the transformational leadership metaphor, focusing on the importance of teamwork and comprehensive school improvement, will continue to be important, but only as an expansion to other modes of leadership such as visionary and ethical leadership. As 'vision' is one of the most frequently used buzzwords in the education literature of the modern era, this aspect may be considered as the make-or-break leadership task of the school leader of tomorrow, more specifically in the ways in which leaders facilitate their vision. This includes the ethical responsibilities of principals and the dilemmas that they face in this regard.

Conclusion

It can be concluded that the over-riding challenge for tomorrow's school leaders is to help articulate and implement an educational vision for a new South African society. The challenge arising from our struggle to redefine education is that if we want improved quality in our schools, we are going to have to lead differently. In the process, our concept of leadership in schools of tomorrow will have to be radically different from the way it was in the past.

GLOBALISATION, THE MODERN CITIZEN AND TEACHER EDUCATION TODAY

P. Calogiannakis, K.Karras and N.Andreadakis

University of Crete, Greece

Abstract

It is generally accepted that the process of the 'internationalisation of education', i.e the growing cross-border activities between national systems of higher education is losing ground to 'globalisation. Increasing cross-border activities of blurred national systems is often employed to depict world-wide trends and growing global competition.

In this context a lot of issues are discussed: the universal transfer of knowledge in the 21st century society and the diversity in higher education, the construction of the modern citizen, and access to the global educational material relevant to educational policies with respect to internationalisation and globalisation of education and of teacher education in particular.

Key-words: *Globalisation, teacher education, globalisation, citizen, human values, social-economical-educational dilemmas*

Introduction

In general, globalisation has often been the fundamental element of discussion for global development in the context of some key-issues, that is, of politics and ideology, economy, society, and culture, sciences and education, especially teacher education.

From this perspective, our problem can be connected with the above key-issues/questions: How is the concept of globalisation being defined at present and with which values is it associated? And which dimensions of globalisation can contemporary educators and researchers study, and what dilemmas and restrictions may be encountered?

Such inquiries and analyses are strongly related to the concepts of 'citizen', 'education', "transfer of knowledge", "access to universal sources", "acquisition of global values and beliefs", "global consciousness", "global thinking", etc. . Educators could play an important role in constructing a framework representing some modern social and educational challenges.

In this context, the type of knowledge and values transmitted, the kind of education provided and the kinds of relationships that exist and develop between educators, pupils, citizens in general are of most importance.

The increase in the global population, with the associated phenomena of demographic upheaval, population redistribution and migration and consequent cultural upheaval have lead to a redefinition of education and teacher education in particular, thus forcing researchers to study this area within a local, national and global framework. Furthermore, modern reality is

characterised by a whole string of unprecedented parameters: developments on the economic front and new indices of economic growth and power, technological and scientific breakthroughs coupled with the digital revolution, computer science, electronics, new forms of communication, the use of nuclear energy and biotechnology and new materials. All of the above have empowered citizens in new directions, create new values and role models and given rise to a new code of ethics. Contemporary scholars should not merely bear these issues in mind – they should trace them in relation to education, teacher education and educational processes. Furthermore, the use of modern technology in education, distance education, ongoing life-long learning and the creation of video-conferencing classes have brought a new environment for the development of the individual and the citizen; they have opened new horizons in the field of knowledge and education internationally, while also creating new study and research areas in teacher education. Lastly, there is the influence of the mass media and international relations, with legislative reforms in the area of education –e.g. fundamental EU educational policy documents, as well as the emphasis on human rights and the role of numerous educational bodies in stressing the concept of alterity. These in turn constitute new concerns for comparative educationalists about the role of education and the moulding of contemporary citizens. In particular, the various forms and expressions of the concept of otherness or difference, in close connection with contemporary demographic changes and the individual's dependence on technology, pose new dilemmas and concerns for education in general and teacher education in particular. These concern the new knowledge to be promoted and included in the school curriculum as well as the ways to bridge the gap between traditional school structures, and how they should be interlinked to the present and the future. The above dilemmas also relate to the comprehension of changes in technology, demography, economics and elsewhere. Furthermore, new approaches to the functions of the human brain and learning methods (multiple intelligence types), together with the widely debated changes in information and communication channels, and radical changes in the fields of labour and the economy have created numerous challenges to the individual and society. Indeed, they have oriented education towards restructuring, change and a critical approach to its goals, aims and structures (Cogan, 2000: 37-60).

Being mainly concerned with educational and social change, researchers normally analyse educational practices, curricula, reforms and educational policies, while appearing to be less interested in the ways and means schools mould teachers and educational planners, the role of new values promoted via schools and how these new values emerge and are projected within globalisation, professionalisation etc. In this context, educational research could become more humanistic, in turning its attention to the ways and processes by which contemporary citizens are moulded. This could be achieved by studying both educational and social relations, human relations and moral dilemmas posed in the field of knowledge. It could also examine the priority of knowledge and the relativity of values that appear to dominate and mould contemporary education. This debate relates to the hierarchy of values and cultural pluralism, as well as to the interpretation of socio-political practices in their wider context and to change or development of political and social structures. Within this framework, the role of political culture and education at school is an issue that comparative educators can both contribute to, attesting their own knowledge and experience (Apple, 1996).

It is general accepted that globalisation and its influences in the 21st century, has become an essential feature of modern world. Professional teachers, therefore, need critical frameworks to examine globalisation's effects, as well as the particular constructions of citizenship promoted by trans-local actors.

Furthermore, educators need to be aware of the processes that schools use to socialise future citizens in accordance with constructions of the modern 'citizen' that emerge from above and outside the school. Because trans-local actors are fashioning particular understandings of 'global' and 'citizen,' educators need to revisit, re-examine, and reread these concepts.

The goal of this study is to discuss the role that teacher education and professional teachers might play in helping teachers to engage with the *'education for the construction of the citizen'* discourse in the context of globalisation. In this perspective an analytic theoretical framework, *the micro-, meso-, and macro-perception model* is proposed to assist with critical examinations of 'globalisation' and 'citizen' in teacher education and understanding the professional teacher. Following this train of thought we argue that modern teacher education can focus on the way in which we "construct" the concept of "citizen" within the framework of *the role played by education in socialisation in the context of globalisation* as well as on the processes via which contemporary education and society in general moulds *values and behaviour for citizens of the 21st century*.

Some of the initial questions and concerns researchers can pose include the following:

1. How is the concept of the *citizen* in the 21st century defined and which *values* and aspirations is it associated with?
2. Which dimensions of the "citizen" can be connected with *teacher education and the professional teacher*?
3. Which main *issues* and *problems* may be encountered?

In the above perspective contemporary scholars may focus their analysis on:

- a. The way in which we "construct" the concept of the "citizen" within the framework of the role played by education and socialisation;
- b. The processes via which teacher education and professional moulds values and behaviour for future citizens;
- c. The delineation of conceptual and semantic proposals to be used as methodological tools in the teacher education and the citizen as part of new research and activity areas in the era of globalisation.

A humanistic approach as a descriptive model of analysis of teacher education could study three dimensions/levels of the citizen:

1. The micro-dimension or micro-realisation, which relates to the personal dimension of citizen/teacher-pupil i.e. as socio-psychic entities, how he learns through education to participate in political and social processes; how he teaches human beings/future citizens.
2. The meso-level, or meso-realisation, which has to do with the socio-spatial dimension, i.e. as active members of local, national and wider society, how citizens/ teachers-pupils co-operate, participate and work in common with others within the context of their wider environment; and finally,
3. The macro-level or macro-realisation, which relates to the socio-temporal dimension, to how citizens/ teachers-pupils see themselves as members of national and global multinational space, and how they define themselves within the context of the society in which they live, on the basis of their past and present, which to some extent determine their future.

(Karras, 2011; Kubow- Karras, 2011)

Following the above axes of thinking, there is a need to focus on the next:

The need to free teaching and teacher education from ethnocentric orientations, and from the attempt to interpret stereotyped collective attitudes and dominant schema bound up with the process of constructing national consciousness.

The need to seek out wider issues of teacher education and professional on the micro-/ meso- / and macro-levels, relating to the concept of citizen in the 21st century, in a developmental framework encompassing personal, psychological and also historical, economic and cultural and global analyses.

There is a need for teacher education to develop the concept of the global citizen in terms of global-society, whereby aspirations for the citizens of the future are inextricably bound up with the aspirations and priorities of the school and society in which they are integrated.

The need for transition from a globalisation based on economics to one founded on culture or solidarity/on human beings.

Discussion

In this framework, the education of students as future citizens is bound up with contemporary schools, while at the same time highlighting interesting areas for investigation. These include the structure of space and time in contemporary schools; the cultivation of knowledge and culture; the provision of motives and opportunities; the creation of norms and values that also mould the principles of behaviour for citizens; the structures of given ethics and behaviour processes; the role of public education; the contribution of new technologies to education; challenges for teachers in 21st century, etc. The challenges to be faced in schools of tomorrow can include the following: comprehension and acceptance of other forms of culture; learning of tolerance through the discovery of difference; differentiation of forms of excellence; proliferation of opportunities and periodical revision of taught knowledge; continuing, alternative education via the use of modern techniques for the diffusion of knowledge and the consequent upgrading of the teaching profession (Karras & Wolhuter 2011).

We do of course believe that concern about the concept of citizen and political education in the present day needs to be incorporated into the wider framework of concern about every sphere of human life and activity. Such a perspective could shed light on the concept of "citizen" and "education" through a broader treatment and quest for meanings and senses. In this general direction, we believe that teacher education can firstly become more global or universal and turn their attention to certain fundamental proposed principles, which are in themselves universal (Leclercq, 1999). It can then attempt to study education from these principles, which are: that the object of life is harmony with the environment and respect for nature; respect for others; use of free time; education throughout life. We might say that essentially, the need for global, universal education for the citizens of the future is inextricably bound up with the need for pupils - future citizens – to be educated to the extent where they can make choices which they can maintain and defend, while at the same time being ready to alter them should the need be judged to arise. This treatment also defines the directions which both education and future citizens could take within the framework of the development of societies. It is proposed that such development should primarily be human and not economic; that it be firstly psychic and emotional and then cognitive; that it be initially critical without the hypocritical intervention of politics and the media; that it be open to all cultures and, finally, that it be synonymous with creativity and not imitation (Lê Thành Khôi, 2001; Calogiannakis & Kazamias, 2009).

A general conceptual framework for action (Calogiannakis, 2004) aiming at approaching teacher education and professionalism in today's world could include the following dimensions or areas:

1. The concept of *world-society/world-citizen* that will study the global or universal development of the concept of citizen mainly on the basis of the principle that while the economy may well be global in nature, citizens should not adopt a blindly economic attitude or approach – the world should under no circumstances be regarded as a commodity. Furthermore, global culture may include many individual cultures, yet also be capable both of producing culture founded on technology and science and of developing a set of values and norms. The object of educational research is on the one hand to define the identities and distinguishing features of these concepts. On the other, it is to assist in defining those principles that could pave the way for a society-world and a global citizen which will not only be characterised by global integration, but which will also favour the expression of more individual cultural traits.
2. The *concept of transcendence*. This entails the adoption of a policy for humanity in the world-society that will be directed at introducing, safeguarding and controlling common universal goods and with developing a global justice policy for all. Global education will be called upon to define the terms of such a policy. To the extent that it may be transformed into a [cultural] commodity to be planned and taught, teacher education will have to seek out those elements of cultural contact and activities on the universal level. Teacher education would have a tendency to unify, but not homogenise world-society and will reject entrenched power policies that have, in reality, led in the past to nationalistic attitudes. It will lead nation states and citizens away from the politically immature stage during which dogmatic, nationalistic reasoning was adopted to maturity, i.e. to a transcendence of these extreme modes of thought. This approach may lead to a global citizen who can be integrated into the above framework for analysis and approach. Lastly,
3. The approach to *utopia*. At first, such a standpoint appears utopian in its own right. Yet today, with the assistance of modern technology, many channels of communication are now open. For the first time in the history of the citizen since democracy emerged in Athens, citizens have regained a podium for expression- digital communication. From direct democracy, the citizen moved on to parliamentary democracy and now, with the Internet, to digital democracy. Global education can focus its attention on this juncture, on how it can trace and define this new challenge, i.e. on the transition from Athenian egalitarianism to digital egalitarianism. At the same time, numerous problematic situations may arise. For this very reason, resistance must be created through the media of education and society to a superficial, stultifying way of life, in which the construction of the human citizen gives way to the construction of the consumer, or the impassive television viewer, or even the impassive citizen.

On the basis of the above conceptual framework, we believe that contemporary Teachers Education needs to focus on the following:

1. The need to free studies from ethnocentric comparisons and analyses, and from the attempt to interpret stereotyped collective attitudes and dominant schema bound up with the process of constructing national consciousness. Concurrently, educational research may point out the transition from approval of the concept of a national "us" to questioning of it, under the terms of a plurality of approaches, whether within national schemata or beyond them. This transcendence of the ethnocentric approach by no means entails indifference towards the national self or dismantling of it. But educational research can demarcate the theoretical ground on which it will approach the citizen of the future, within a broader framework, no longer exclusively in terms of the nation state. It can study school within a wider socio-political context, given that the school of the future, integrated

into a globalised, universal environment, is to be defined in terms of the value it lends to individuals and how it prepares them as future citizens. What is important is that educational research and teachers education views educational practices on the international level, in terms of the emotional, value orientations of ideology and culture.

2. The need to seek out wider issues on the micro-/meso-/and macro-levels, relating to the concept of citizen in the 21st century, in a developmental framework encompassing personal, psychological and also historical, economic and cultural analyses. Here teacher education can highlight an abundance of evidence, through studying and approaching mechanisms for the formation, construction and enforcement of attitudes. It can also do so through analysis of the value orientations of the citizen as individual in terms of a wider culture, through multiple interpretations, holistic approaches, dialectic comparisons and the inter-educational influences of educational phenomena and events.
3. The need to develop the concept of the universal citizen in terms of world-society, whereby aspirations for the citizens of the future are inextricably bound up with the aspirations and priorities of the school and society in which they are integrated. In this framework, global education could study the education of the universal citizen; this education would be oriented to the development of a free and critical human being.
4. The need for transition from a globalisation based on economics to one founded on culture or solidarity. This is considered as a highly important issue in current thought. We believe that in this transition, teacher education has an important role to play, and that an educational and cultural reality that takes the citizen as its starting point one can be linked to it. For that very reason, teacher education must enter a period of rethinking and of new outlooks on things and concepts. In other words, it will be capable of studying collective forms of human action on the educational, cultural and political level. It will look at the new challenges in the area of production-based society and international level science, as well as at the orientation of values in the so-called "information society" or "knowledge society".

Within the above framework, the following may be regarded as some of the problems faced by contemporary education in general in studying the citizen of the 21st century: competition for the control of knowledge; the transference of information; antagonism between the national and the universal; competitive ethnocentric education, and, lastly, the new apperception of the world on the basis of a multi-meaning thought mode, an open consciousness, critical thought, a holistic approach and multicultural understanding.

The above problems lead to a fundamental revision of teacher education area, within the terms of moulding citizens of the future. Such methodological and conceptual revision may include the following:

- Re-evaluation of methodological approaches and theories: how can we pinpoint, positively identify and compare educational similarities and differences in teachers education? And
- Secondly, there is the redefinition of the area of teacher education, and the contribution made by education in approaching it, as well as the reconsideration of the concepts of time and space of educational events and phenomena: how are we to define the concept of citizen in general?

As an Epilogue ...

It thus follows that in studying the modern citizen in the context of globalisation, teacher education will have to pass more into the field of education; from quantitative educational paradigms to qualitative ones; from the external characteristics studied in an educational phenomenon to internal ones; from linear, juxtapositional comparisons to interpretational, multi-prismatic approaches; from banded comparative studies and analyses to case studies; from the educational context to the political, ideological, demographic, economic, historical and cultural context; from unequivocal views and interpretations to polysemous, pluralistic, multi-interpretive approaches.

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Dr. Pella Calogiannakis is Professor of Comparative Education at the Pedagogical Department of Teacher Education at University of Crete, Greece. Her research interests are related with methodological and epistemological issues of Comparative Education and Political Socialization in relation to globalization and modern citizen. She is the author of ten books, editor of five handbooks and writer of about 90 articles/ studies in Greek, English, French, Russian and Arabic languages. Email pkalogian@edc.uoc.gr

Dr. Konstantinos Karras is Ass. Professor at the Department of Primary Teacher Education at University of Crete, Greece. His research interests deal with the profession of teachers in Europe and worldwide and the international aspects of teacher education and representations. He is the author of 3 books, editor of 4 handbooks/ books (3 in English, 1 in Greek) and of about 60 articles in different languages. Recent work of his is the *International Handbook*

on *Teacher Education Worldwide, Training, Issues and Challenges for teacher profession* vol & II (preface Gaston Mialaret), Ion Publications, Athens 2011 (in collaboration with the C.C. Wolhuter). Email kgkarras@gmail.com

Dr. Nikos Andreadakis is Associate Professor at the Pedagogical Department of Primary Teacher Education, University of Crete, Greece. He is expert in Educational Research and Evaluation. His research interests include: School effectiveness and school improvement, effective teacher, teaching effectiveness, quantitative - qualitative methods of students evaluation, school failure, quantitative - qualitative methods of educational research, applied statistics. He is the author or editor of 6 books. He also has published 60 articles and chapters in Greek or international journals and volumes. Email nandrea@edc.uoc.gr

POLITICAL INFLUENCE ON EDUCATION WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO TEACHER EDUCATION WORLDWIDE

Konstantinos G. Karras

**Assist. Professor, University of Crete
Greece**

kgkarras@gmail.com

Abstract

In this study we focus on the conceptualization of political influence on education and its place in teacher education worldwide. In this context we present some representative political and other influences in Teacher Education Worldwide by taking into account new research on teacher education and training and by including 90 cases-studies covering many aspects of what we know about teachers and the teaching profession today from an international perspective. This presentation attends to the role of political influence on education in the context of history, culture and economy in understanding variations in teacher education and the teaching profession in the socio-political, cultural, and economical context of the 21st Century.

Introductory note

This study is based in following axes:

1. we pose some basic questions related to the political influence on education and we briefly discuss some contexts and areas of political influence on education and
2. we present some representative teacher education systems worldwide as examples of political influences on education.

Questions and contexts-areas of political influence on education

The basic questions related to the political influence on education can be posed as follows:

- What is the role of school today? (educational, cultural, economical, political)
- Which are the relations between the school and the State? (social, economical and political)
- Are educational crises political and social crises too? (school as a part of socio-political system)
- Which knowledge is of most worth to the modern citizen?

- Can we change society, by changing school?
- What type of citizen modern school 'produce' and for which society does the school prepare him/her to live in?

In this perspective, political influence on education is related to different contexts:

- to the existing historical, cultural, socio-economical environments
- to the dominating values and ideologies systems
- to the action of some persons responsible for decision making
- to the dominant concepts for modern education and society, i.e. globalization, multi-culturalism, local-national-global citizen.

Also, political influence on education is observed at different levels:

(In terms of 'external efficiency'):

- at the level of the administration systems and decisions making, especially in the level of educational reforms
- at the level of the existing educational policies in a national and international perspectives
- at the level of international relations and the externalization of Education

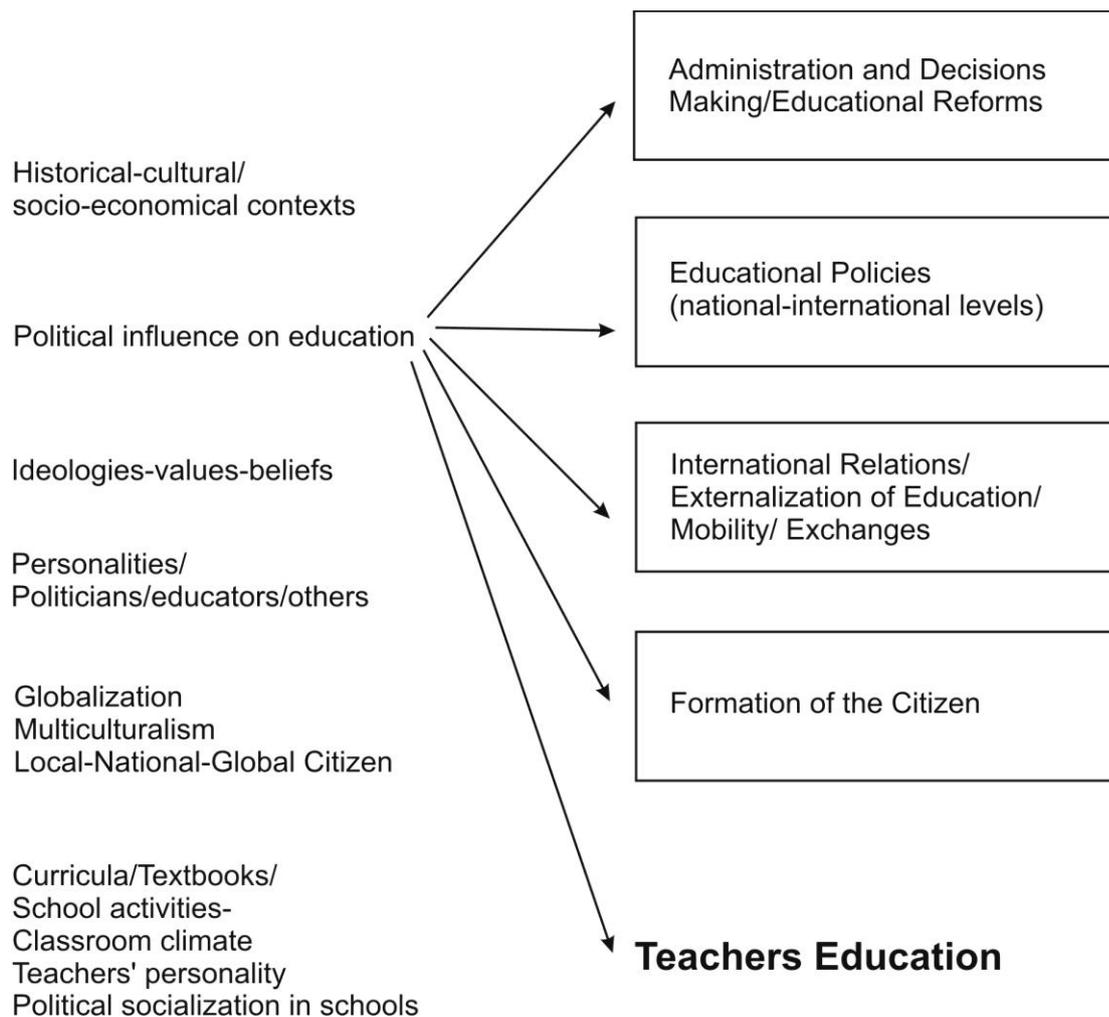
(In terms of 'internal efficiency'):

- at the levels of school (curricula, textbooks, classroom democratic climate, teacher personality, political socialization process in general)
- at the level of the formation of the future citizens
- at the level of teacher education

(Apple, 1995, Cowen and Kazamias 2009)

Figure 1 that follows represents the above conceptualization on political influence on education and the place of teacher education in it.

Figure 1



Teacher education worldwide: some representative examples

In the above context, we present some representative political and other influences on teacher education worldwide by taking into account new research on teacher education and training in 90 published cases-studies covering many aspects of what we know about teachers and the teaching profession today (Karras & Wolhuter, 2011).

This study is centred on the role of political influence on education in the context of history, culture and economy in understanding variations in teacher education and profession in the socio-political, cultural, and economical context of our days and discusses some contemporary issues and challenges in this area.

A general overview of the main axes that came forth from the above international study is focused on the following factors that are strongly related to modern teacher education and the teaching profession: Historical, environmental and demographical factors, socio-economical factors, ideological, political and cultural factors, educational and international factors.

These factors are mainly connected to colonial influences and colonial era, missionary education, local, regional and national history of the countries. They also have to do with geography and lands, population, ethnicities, minority groups, as well as with the reconstruction and transformation processes, modernisation, centralisation and decentralisation processes,

social and economic changes, federalism, uniformity, employment, labour market, professionalisation, illiteracy, gender and equity issues, etc. Furthermore they are associated with political and other ideologies, reconstructions and political transformations, colonisations, harmonisation processes, educational changes and reforms and educational policies. Finally, these factors are strongly related to globalization, harmonisation/ uniformisation, Europeanisation and modernisation processes, multiculturalism, influence of international bodies/ institutions/organizations, declarations etc. (Anastasiades, Calogiannakis, Karras & Wolhuter, 2011).

The international cases-studies on teacher education related to the local political and socio-economical circumstances, priorities and conditions of each country, define the main issues, problems and interpretations considered of most importance for each country.

In Europe tendencies and reforms in teacher education and profession are related to the scientific knowledge and professional practice (professional paradigm and the Universities' academic model) and to the globalisation process connected with the European Union. Concepts like democratisation, centralisation and decentralisation, professionalisation, multiculturalism and gender balances are of most importance for pre-service and in-service teacher training programs in the context of the new socio-economic and cultural challenges.

In this perspective, *Finland* for example gives emphasis to pedagogical studies and to teaching practice and to the high-level criteria for teacher profession (well-qualified profession, a profession of lifelong learners, a mobile profession and a profession based on partnership. to attain significant goals in Europe). The combination of scientific knowledge and professional practice is of most importance for this country. In the same way, *France* debates the reorganisation of the teacher training curricula (combination of IUFMs' professional paradigm and the Universities' academic model). *Denmark*'s main goals and educational paradigms are connected to relationships between theory and practice and between subjects (academic education) and didactics (professional education); the institutional challenges raise the question of whether teacher education should take place at universities (as Bologna process demands) or in teacher training colleges (historically successful). Also, the reform in *Sweden* is criticised for not placing enough emphasis on content knowledge and for re-centralisation tendencies. In *Germany* globalisation (Bologna Declaration and its implications for teacher education) is connected to the federal political system forces of uniformisation which Bologna had brought to teacher education and training.

For *Belgium* the discussion is focused on centralisation and decentralisation of teacher education system and professionalisation process. In *The Netherlands*, teacher education is discussed on the basis of the structure of an atomised set of competences). In *Switzerland* the Europeanisation of education and the relationship between pre-service and in-service teacher education are discussed. Innovative initiatives (such as the Teach First scheme) are taken place in the *United Kingdom, England*, which aims to attract graduates from 'top' universities for the teaching profession. Issues in and related to teacher education are gender balances (female dominance), mentoring and partnership in the wake of developments in the European Union and ethnic minority recruitment for teacher education. In *United Kingdom, Northern Ireland*, critical issues remain the gaining of wider access and participation in teacher education and making teacher education more inclusive in a religiously, socio-economically and even gender segregated and stratified society, arriving at a satisfactory teacher induction programme and sorting out the still unsolved problems of policy formulation and policy decision in a very complex political context.

Greece gives emphasis to the new educational reform in the context of socio-economic and cultural environment of the 21st century with special emphasis on teacher education and in-service training. *Cyprus*' educational system and teacher education and training is influenced by both its status as an ex-colony as well as an independent country. Education in Cyprus – among others– has to give emphasis to the challenges of multicultural education in the context

of a united Europe. In addition, in *Portugal* the policy of decentralisation affected teacher training policies as well as forces of globalisation (Bologna Declaration, the Lisbon Goals and the Dublin Descriptors). In some other countries the educational reform and teacher education reform seems to ignore the everyday realities (*Italy*), or put emphasis on the democratisation of the country in general (*Spain*) with special attention to the reform concerning the in-service training.

In the Balkan countries special attention is given to the transition process of education in general and teacher education in particular. Pre-service and in-service teacher education are mainly oriented to the harmonisation with European Union's demands (Bologna and Lisbon declarations). Concepts like teacher professional development, reconstruction of education, democratisation, modernisation and multiculturalism are of most importance. Some countries like *Albania and Hungary* focus on the low quality of teacher education and the harmonisation of the system of higher education- including its system of teacher education- with that of the European Union. In the same way *Slovakia's and Slovenia's* educational reforms focus on political democratisation and economic liberalisation; education and teacher education are influenced by the Lisbon goals and Bologna declaration; in addition in *Romania*, Europeanisation and traditionalism, the influence of international organisations and the societal reconstruction are the main characteristics of Romanian society and education. The *Czech Republic* also gives attention to professional teacher education at universities, both pre-service and in-service teacher education. In this perspective, *Serbian* reform of education emphasizes teacher professional development. In *Bulgaria*, from a pre-1990 Eastern Block period and the overly centralised system runs the transformation and the reconstruction period in education and teacher education. In *Estonia* recent changes and reforms are related to the learning society and intercultural learning. *Croatia* is characterised by the multiculturalism in educational reforms in recent years. *Lithuania* gives emphasis to the new education programmes in teacher education and in-service training and *Lesotho* discusses the dilemma of quantity vs. quality in education and teacher education and training. *Poland's* national system of education is strongly connected with the reform to the system of teacher education. *Russia's* post-socialist reconstruction and modernisation of education give special emphasis to information society.

Countries in Africa relate teacher education and profession to their historical colonial past that influenced education in general. In this perspective emphasis is put on different kind of educational problems: quality of education and teacher education, distant and decentralized education programs, financial support to education, modernization and professional development, teacher effectiveness and teacher morale. For example, *Egypt's* efforts to modernise the educational system and the teacher education system are focused by giving emphasis to actions that promote 'quality' in all educational levels and to international educational standards. For some other countries, like *Botswana* the post-independence period influences the expansion of educational programs and the distant education colleges. In the same way *Sierra Leone* put emphasis on qualified and trained teachers who work under 'poor working conditions'. Furthermore, in *Kenya* financial support and physical resources to ensure quality teacher education are the priorities in education in general and in teacher education in particular. In *Algeria* few teachers are trained, since colonial influence is still present in the contention that academic knowledge. In *Congo* and *Ethiopia* teacher education suffers from a paucity of institutions, of low quality programmes and lack of a real policy of in-service continual professional development. *Namibia's* and *Zimbabwe's* cases are centred between colonial model and a post-colonial one that give emphasis to teacher as a critical practitioner. In some other countries like *Gambia*, Islamic religious schools do play a decisive role. *Nigeria* gives emphasis to the decentralised nature programmes for future teachers and *Tanzania's* case relates teacher education with its colonial history and transformation processes.

In addition, *Rwanda's* case call attention to the global *Education for All* movement (Dakar Declaration). In *Malawi* special emphasis is given to an effective teacher education in rural areas; the low quality of teacher education, the methods of teaching, the low morale of teachers in Malawi, are some of the main educational problems of the country. *Eritrea* discusses the

theme of teacher morale, that has had a negative feedback in the teacher education system of the country and *Southern Sudan's* major problem is the challenge to educate somebody to become a teacher (only 7% of teachers are trained). Finally, in *South Africa* teachers were imported for the 'mother country', Britain; today, teacher education reforms followed the societal and educational reform in that country.

In the **Arab world** political and demographic transformations influence education and teacher education and the teaching profession. Pre-service and in-service teacher education is oriented towards globalisation processes, lifelong learning and multicultural education and gives special emphasis to the combination between theory and praxis in teacher education and development. In *Saudi Arabia* for example the dialogue in education is focused on pre- and in-service teacher education and training and lifelong learning. *Kuwait* is characterized by the globalised mixture of Institutions (a national institution -Kuwait University, a bilateral-with USA University of Missouri, institution, a branch of a regional institution-Arab Open University, and a branch of the American University of the Middle East). Teacher education in *Iran* reflects the political and demographic changes (radical reforms). The educational challenges in this country are related to the dignity and honour of teaching profession as well as the question of employment of teachers, the weakness of teachers in professional skills, the teaching methods and the evaluation procedures. In some countries educational policies includes teacher education as a part of the educational system in general (*Oman*) and gives emphasis to the theory and praxis in teacher education and in multiculturalism in educational system (*Israel*). In addition, in some other cases, like *Lebanon*, the colonial history is also related to the globalisation of education (existence of different teacher education institutions in order to harmonise teacher education with the model of the Bologna declaration).

Reforms, and transformation process are also observed in some countries in **Asia**, where teacher education is related to the educational development of the country (*Turkey*) (establishment of a secular state, reforms heeding to the equalisation of educational opportunity till the Bologna Declaration), and teacher education and profession is related with reconstruction and transformation process); government has therefore launched an ambitious teacher education programme, with heavy involvement by international aid organisations; in this regard innovative approaches are taken place, using distance education and flexible courses to assist the large number of untrained teachers (*Afghanistan*). Teacher education and the teaching profession is often connected to education programmes that can no longer attract the best candidates (*Azerbaijan*). In some cases it is underlined by the fact that personal qualities are necessary for being an effective teacher (*Kazakhstan's* case). In addition, In *Kyrgyzstan* the low quality of education in teaching theories and praxis are discussed and in *Tajikistan* the transformation of the in-service teacher international agencies is characterize teacher education system.

In Asian countries modernisation and professionalisation of teacher education are connected with history, demography, illiteracy, and social and cultural needs. So in the majority of Asian countries, the emphasis is given to the practical education and training of contemporary teachers (*Bangladesh*) and the influence of historical factors (colonialism, missionary education) and of contemporary ones (such as religion, and process of globalisation) (*Brunei and Indonesia*). *Pakistan's* case focus on modernisation of the country in combination with societal needs (Islam religion); teacher education is of low quality, with little developments in the line of in-service training of teachers. *India* with 18 million teachers relates education with the quality and the duration of teacher education and the curriculum for an effective system of in-service education of the country. For *Hong Kong* the use of three languages and the discussion on theory and practice in teacher education is important. Globalisation and the challenge to educating teachers as critical practitioners are also some of key-concepts in this country. In *Singapore* the feminisation of the teacher profession is discussed and the adoption of teacher education to the everyday school life are discussed. In *Thailand* after the colonial era, the pedagogical discussion for teacher education concern the content of pedagogical knowledge and the description of critical thinking skills. Furthermore, *Taiwan's* major emphasis is given to

the quality of teacher education. *Malaysia* after the colonial era affronts the problem of the low numbers of males in the profession and the demographic composition of the Malaysian population. *Sri Lanka*'s main problem of illiteracy influenced the quality of education. In *Lao People's Democratic Republic* inequities is the focus of educational discussion in the country in the context of the question of modernisation and the international aid; its colonial history (47 ethnic groups) is related with the illiteracy as one of its major problems that is strongly connected with the cultural heritage. Finally, *Japan* gives special emphasis to the professionalisation of the teaching profession and teacher education in *China* deals with modernisation and human capital theories in recent years.

In the **Americas** teacher education and profession is situated in the centre of the discussion concerning diversity, equality and social justice, globalization, decentralisation and privatisation, professionalisation and quality in education. In some countries the main effort of education is responding constructively to the educational issues of diversity, equity, inclusion and social justice in teacher education and the linking theory and practice as well (Canada); teacher education, effective teacher educator, professional development and of globalisation are the key-words for Canadian educational policy. In the *United States of America* the emphasis is given to the federal funding intended enable people to qualify for the teaching profession. In some other countries (*Argentina*) international bodies have a considerable influence over teacher education and the decentralisation and privatisation of teacher education is the main topic of educational discussion in the country. In *Chile* both pre-service and in-service training, career promotion and theories of modernisation and human capital have influenced teacher education reforms today. In this context *Colombia's* political and economic climate historically influence teacher education. *Brazilian* new educational model concerning teacher education development is related to a critical awareness strongly connected with the quality of life in general. In *Mexico* the creation of a national system (after the independency) and the failure of the economy courses in Marxist-Leninist ideology led to the reconstruction and changes of educational programmes and teacher education. *Cuba's* main challenge facing teacher education today concerns vocational education (technology is viewed as a critical part of public schools and teacher education). *Costa Rica's* case is connected with the strong involvement of the private higher education sector in teacher education and in-service training. *Panaman* inequities in teacher education and continuous professional development are the main issues of the educational discussion in that country. Moreover, *Montserrat's* teacher education is influences by global and regional (Caribbean) forces; in *Trinidad and Tobago* the issue of quality of teacher education is discussed in the context of the content (theory) and the pedagogical skills (practice) include in teacher education programmes.

Finally, *Australia's* system of teacher education (teacher training colleges and teacher education at universities) is under discussion as well as the professional development of teachers and their training.

Papua New Guinea's colonial legacy les to the construction of modernity projects including education and teacher education and in *New Zealand*, the issue of equity (gender wise and ethnic background wise), as well as the 'knowledge society' make up the discourse and reforms of teacher education.

Discussion

Globalisation, and its influences worldwide has become a significant feature in modern world. Teacher education and profession therefore, need critical constructions based on an examination of globalisation's effects. Emphasis must be given to developing awareness of trans-local values and how the beliefs and actions of the global elite shape worldwide concerns. It is a fact that the study of education of teachers is judged in our days particularly important, provided that the education is more generally called to play important role in the modern societies given the fact of the repercussions of globalization.

The education of teachers, as it is also delimited by the various national but also international educational policies and as it is shaped by the new conditions that it faces the educational profession in the what we call "society of knowledge" and globalization it requires in our days a qualitative and social upgrade.

In this perspective the role and the work of teachers, as the main agents, but also "critical recipients" of educational policies of their countries, are considered important factors of appointment of not only profession of teacher of but also policies that practice and concern educational reforms and changes and the problems that today face the profession in many countries around the world (Wolhuter & Karras, 2011; Calogiannakis, Karras & Wolhuter, 2011; Karras- Berkhout, 2010).

According to Greek philosopher, Aristotle (Book VIII):

"That the legislator must, therefore, make the education of the young his object above all would be disputed by no one" (1337a10). "Since there is a single end for the city as a whole, it is evident that education must necessarily be one and the same for all, and that the superintendence of it should be common and not on a private basis....For common things the training too should be made common" (1337a21).

The importance of a common education shaping each citizen so as to enable him to serve the common good of the city recalls the discussion of how the city is above the individual. And (in Book I Chapter 2) Aristotle underlines:

"one ought not even consider that a citizen belongs to himself, but rather that all belong to the city; for each individual is a part of the city" (1337a26).

In this perspective, political influence on education and teacher education in particular is strongly related with the common good of the citizens since education should be the priority not only for every legislator but for everybody.

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Dr. Konstantinos Karras is Assistant Professor at the Pedagogical Department of Teacher Education at University of Crete, Greece. His research interests deal with the profession of teachers in Europe and worldwide and the international aspects of teacher education and representations. He is the author of three books, editor of 4 handbooks/ books (3 in english, 1 in greek) and of over 60 articles in different languages which relate to teacher education in Greece and internationally. Recent work of his is the *International Handbook on Teachers Education Worldwide, Training, Issues and Challenges for teacher profession* vol & II (preface Gaston Mialaret), Ion Publications, Athens 2011 (in collaboration with the C.C. Wolhuter). email <kgkarras@gmail.com>

WHOSE INTERESTS ARE SERVED IN EDUCATION? A CRITICAL APPRAISAL OF THE NATURE OF EDUCATION FROM SOCIOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE

Prof Itumeleng Mekoa

**Centre for the Advancement of Non-Racialism and Democracy
Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University**

[Itumeleng Mekoa@nmmu.ac.za](mailto:Itumeleng.Mekoa@nmmu.ac.za)

Abstract

Recent sociological approaches to the study of education have clearly indicated that education is not an innocent, neutral phenomenon like politics. Education is an ideology with particular interests. Education is not just biased but also has political objectives, which must be entrenched through it as a system. And because education is not apolitical or unbiased, it is therefore important to analyze the nature of education in general. Whose interests does a particular education system serve? Who determines what constitutes knowledge or curriculum? Education is also about the transmission of values. Whose values are transmitted through the education system? Does education foster unity or diversity in the society? Does it also foster equality, democracy or justice for all? Does it foster liberation and resistance or passivity? Does it develop or under-develop its subjects? These are critical questions particularly in this period of struggle for the development of African scholarships or African education for the South African context. In what category is an African scholarship or African education? Does it foster liberation and resistance or passivity?

Introduction

In order to answer the above-mentioned question I have decided to do it the African way. In traditional African meetings (imbizos) which are usually held under the trees in rural areas, African men will always cite many examples from their previous experiences in order to justify their suggested solution to the issue before them. It is very common in such meetings to hear old men (in African thought seniority is always associated with wisdom, not formal education) citing other experiences and examples before offering a direct solution to the issues before them. This is because African traditional meetings are not usually rushed and interrupted by points of order, or time up or call for vote. Decisions are also reached by consensus after long discussion and this approach is also intended to accommodate as many diverse views as possible. Therefore in attempting to answer the question; whose interests are served in any education system, I have decided to analyze various sociological studies on education and how this is evident in most national education systems.

The structural functionalist perspectives on education

The term structuralism refers to the sociological perspectives, which base this theory on the concept of social structure as an independent force. According to this view society is an independent entity, which impinges on human social behavior. It controls and moulds the behavior of individuals in its socializing processes. Gouldner has highlighted the way in which structuralism approaches are based on the idea that social forces exist over and above the intention of the members of the society. He writes:

Structuralism presents us with [a vision of] society conceived as a thing- like facility, standing over against its individual members with coercive controls and moulding them in its socializing processes...[This view] sets society as an entity over and against man, and shows him being made by it.(Gouldner 1980; 36)

The following discussion of structuralism will look at the theories of structural- functionalism, reproduction, and resistance. The emphasis in each theory is how an individual or individuals are constrained by society to develop independently of it. The structural- functionalist view of education focuses on the functional interdependence between education and the society, whereas the reproduction and resistance theories address themselves to the way in which the modes of production in a society are reproduced and resisted within the educational system.

Emile Durkheim- Education as the transmission of society's norms and values

Emile Durkheim's thinking about education was based on his interest in the way in which an orderly society is maintained particularly in this complex modern world. He also focuses on the way in which individuals are constrained and molded by the society. Education is an extension of the society's vision. According to Durkheim therefore education can be defined as "the influence exercised by adult generation on those that are not yet ready for social life." (Durkheim 1956; 71) Durkheim's view of education as something done to children by adults is also reflected in the writings of educational theories like Griessel, Fourie, and Stone. For instance they suggest that:

The child very much wants to become someone and experiences an obvious need for an adult to support him in his ignorance on his way. (Griessel et al 1976; 117)

Durkheim argued that a society can only survive if there exist among its members a sufficient degree of homogeneity, and education perpetuates and reinforces this homogeneity by making the child conform to collective social demands. Without such conformation, cooperation, social solidarity and social life in general would be impossible. For Durkheim in all societies the moulding of an individual into a united whole is essential for "social solidarity". This also involves a commitment that a society is more important than the individual. Education therefore provides a link between a society and the individual.(Haralambos et al 1991;230) An example is also made of how a subject like history can make children to see that they part of something larger than themselves.(Haralambos et al 1991; 230). Education therefore enforces allegiance to the society. In this complex industrial society, Durkheim argued that education provides a function, which cannot be provided by either the family or peer group. In the school context children are socialized into a larger society beyond peer group and family. A school therefore is a society in miniature, a model of social systems.(Haralambos et al 1991;230). Education also for Durkheim teaches individuals social skills for their future occupations, particularly in this complex industrial era of division of labour. Though there might be criticisms of Durkheim's view on education

however it is clear that European or Western education particularly from the colonial period transmitted European or Western values particularly in Africa. And this has created a problem in Africa of acculturation, hence a demand in Africa of the Africanisation of education, so that African values can be transmitted to African children. Durkheim's view on education however fails to realize that not all values transmitted through the education system might be that of the entire society, sometimes those values might be those of the ruling minority, sometimes even oppressive minority like in the apartheid South Africa. For Durkheim also because education is a formation or moulding process of the individual, his/her critical capacity is inhibited. Such an education system does not encourage independent critical thinking and diversity. Durkheim writes:

The man whom education should realize in us is that the man such as nature has made him, but as the society wishes him to be, and it wishes him such as its internal economy calls for.(Durkheim 1956; 122)

This one-way transmission of education where students are portrayed as empty vessels that have to be filled by the teacher is often referred to in education circles particularly by Paul Freire as "banking education". He argued that a relationship exists between "banking education" and the uncritical retention of the social systems:

The more students work at storing the deposits entrusted to them, the less they develop the critical consciousness which would result from their intervention in the world...the more completely they accept the passive role imposed on them, the more they tend to also adapt to the world as it is...(Freire 1978; 53).

This "banking education" system according to Paul Freire regulates the way in which students perceive the world- and also presupposes to be giving students "true" and relevant knowledge. This system of education, which Paul Freire criticizes, follows from Durkheim's view that the aims of education in any society is to develop in the individual's abilities and capabilities required by society.

Talcott Parsons - Education as the transmission of universalistic values

Talcott Parsons also like Durkheim has provided what was to become the structural-functional view of education. Parsons like Durkheim argued that the school represents a miniature society where students are socialized into the values of the larger society, which are necessary for their adult roles. For Parsons the school has two functions to perform: to socialize individuals and also to allocate them particular roles in society. (Parson 1961; 453). Education as the means of socialization must develop the individual's commitment to the values of society and performance of the particular roles within the society. According to Parsons education does not only provide human resources for society. Education is responsible for training in technical and social skills required by society. In this process of training individuals are selected for various occupational opportunities. Like Durkheim, Parsons structural- functionalist view of education does not consider the fact that sometimes the values transmitted by the education system may be those of the ruling minority rather than of the society as a whole.

Kingsley Davis and Wilbert Moore- Education and role allocation

Like Parsons, Davis and Moore see education as a means of role allocation; however they link it to the systems of social stratification. Social stratification refers to systems of social inequality, which is based on a hierarchy of groups. In this social system unequal economic rewards are

perpetuated through various ways like wealth, prestige and power. These inequalities are then passed from one generation to another, thereby producing groups of people arranged in that order of the wealthy and poor. Education according to Moore and Davis is one way of perpetuating social stratification. Education sorts and grades people according to their abilities and talents and reward them with high qualifications and rewarding occupations, which are functionally important in the society. (cf Haralambos et al 1991; 232)

Education and the development human potential and intellect.- A liberal perspective

A liberal view of education is different from a sociological one. Unlike the sociological one it focuses on education in relation to the individual rather than the society. According to liberalism the main objective of education is to develop human potential and intellect and only indirectly the improvement of the society. One of the most influential proponents of this liberal view is American educationist John Dewey (1953). He was opposed to the rote learning of fact in schools and argued for progressive learning method whereby learners or pupils learn by experience. Rather than being fed with information, their skills should be developed to enable them to solve a variety of problems.(Haralambos et al 1991;232). They would also develop a critical mind that would make them question the world around them. For Dewey such progressive education is vital for any democracy. In a democracy power rests with the people, it is therefore necessary for people to think for themselves. Liberal education according to Dewey would promote flexibility, tolerance and equality.(Haralambos et al 1991;232)

Another advocate of liberal education is Ivan Illich. However he goes further than conventional liberal view and argue that formal schooling is unnecessary and harmful to society. For him the main purpose of education is to develop the skills of the individual like typing, woodwork etc. education however sometimes does not concern itself with the acquisition of particular skills, instead of being a liberating experience in which pupils or learners explore create and develop their capacities to the full, education sometimes become repressive which indoctrinate pupils. (Haralambos et al 1991;236)This indoctrination inhibits creativity and imagination and enforces conformity. In this school system pupils have no control over what they learn or how they learn it.

Any education system is involved in the transmission of values whether traditional or liberational: An observation

The above- mentioned perspectives on education indicate that it is not a neutral entity. Knowledge or education is never without political messages and political purpose.

All curricula are not natural objects arising from the accumulated wisdom of the past, but often the results of political objectives and ideologies.

Curriculum writers choose certain heroes, events, and other processes and shift them to the margins of academic consideration or ignore them altogether. Students are likely to hear more about the fictionalized childhood experiences of George Washington than about the real lives of people like themselves. No matter what their color, ancestry or gender, students in English and social studies classes are more likely to read books by DWEMs (dead white European males) than by other authors. Pretending to a common cultural heritage may help to tie the nation together, but it does so at the expense of the self- concept of each student whose identity is not recognized in the curriculum (Nelson et al 1993; 171).

And because any education or knowledge is a result of political settlement, it will always serve the interest of a particular group. For political interests education can marginalize or exclude other groups on gender, class, or racial grounds. One body of socially constructed knowledge is taught to the exclusion of others. In this case therefore education transmits not one set of

values but shapes the mind of students in order to make them conform to the values of the society. In his theory of learning Paulo Freire argues that the whole activity of education is political in nature. Politics is not only one aspect of teaching or learning but all forms of education are political, whether or not teachers and students are conscious about this. Politics is in the subjects chosen for the syllabus and those excluded. Politics is any curricular whether negotiated or imposed.

In *A Pedagogy for liberation*, Friere said:

This is a great discovery, education is politics. When a teacher discovers that he or she is a politician, too, the teacher has to ask, What kind of politics am I doing in the classroom? That is in favour of whom am I being a teacher? The teacher works in favour of something and against something. Because of that she or he will have another great question, how to be consistent in my teaching practice with my political choice? I cannot proclaim my liberating dream and in the next day be authoritarian in my relationship with the students. (Shor and Freire 1987; 46).

And because education is about politics, there is no such a thing therefore as a value free education. Socio-economic values of any given society are transmitted through education to the students. Curriculum therefore becomes a cultural reproduction. What we need to understand according to Michael Apple about the transmission of knowledge, are the linkages between the form and content of the curriculum, the system of economic production, and the maintenance of class relationships. As result of the observation of these linkages he asks the following questions:

What are the manifest and latent social functions of the knowledge that is taught in school? How do the principles of selection and organization that are used to plan, order and evaluate that knowledge function in the cultural and economic reproduction of class relations in an advanced industrial society like our own? (Apple 1978; 372)

Apple's purpose also in raising these questions is to attack the naivety that what is taught in schools is objective knowledge and that teachers are apolitical and non- partisan.

His other purpose is to connect his analysis with Marx's idea that the mode of economic production determines the general character of the social, political and spiritual processes of life. Cultural transmission, of which school knowledge is an important component are not only shaped by the mode of economic production but in turn reproduce in the consciousness of the people the ideas, values and norms that maintain the relations of reproduction. Michael Apple suggests that culture should be thought of in terms of the metaphor of distribution:

One can think about knowledge as being unevenly, distributed among social and economic classes, occupational groups, different age groups and groups of different power. This same groups have access to knowledge to other. The lack of certain kinds of knowledge- where your particular group stands in the complex process of cultural preservation and distribution- is related, no doubt, to the absence in that group of certain kinds of politicians and economic power in society." (Apple 1979; 16).

Apple using Pierre Bourdieu's idea that knowledge can be understood as cultural capital, argues that education reproduces class divisions of a hierarchical order through their distribution of cultural capital. As he puts it, "Schools, therefore, processes both knowledge and people." (Apple 1978; 376)

Policy- makers and curricula authors: Whose interests do they serve?

In any country these days the education system is designed and controlled by the national departments of education. And any national government is an adherent of a particular political ideology, whether conservative, liberal or radical. This means therefore that any educational system emanating from any national government will always be motivated by a particular ideology. Policy-makers and curricula authors within educational systems are nothing but agents or ideologues of their governments. They would ensure therefore that a product of their educational systems reflects the wishes of their government. Education or knowledge as a social construction will be constructed in such a way that it shapes the minds of such students to adhere to that ideology or accept the status quo. Paulo Freire's definition of education as politics is a critique of such domination and a commitment to challenge social inequality. He sees society controlled by an elite, which imposes its culture and values as the standard. Required syllabuses, mandated textbooks and standardized exams impose this standard. Paulo Freire wrote that, "any educational practice based on standardization, on what is laid down in advance, on routines in which everything is predetermined, is bureaucratizing and anti-democratic" (Freire et al 1989; 41). For Paulo Freire, a curriculum, which is controlled from above, is a means to impose the dominant culture on each new generation of students. And because knowledge is not neutral, curricula are expressions of historical moments where some groups exercise dominant power over others. Hence in this critical education Paulo Freire, invites students to question the systems that offers them knowledge and to discuss what kind of future they want, including the right to remake their society. The political nature of education then manifests itself because in it whole individuals and society is constructed. Curriculum then becomes a carrier of ideology and a process of socialization. R H Tawney observed that "educational policy is always social policy" and criticized the elite "public boarding- school" tradition of the wealthy in England and advocated development of free schools for the working class. He saw how the very nature of the elite system was a part of the hidden curriculum teaching the sons of the wealthy "not in worlds or upset purpose, but by the mere facts of their environment, that they are members of a privileged groups, whose function it will be, on however humble a scale, to direct and command, and to which leadership. Influence and the other prizes of life properly belong" (Tawny 1964; 83)

Educational policy as a political policy

In the public sector it is the task of the elected political representatives in collaboration with the appointed officials to promote the general welfare of the society. Through the electoral systems the elected representatives are empowered to take decisions on behalf of those they represent. The elected politicians are also responsible for the legislative functions and governing functions. This is the case in South Africa, J.J Cloete explains:

Political policy, which will be the policy of the ruling political party/parties, will always be the highest policy level in the public sector. The governing party/parties sets objectives (policy), which point the way in which the authorities will direct community life. When a political party comes into power the so- called party policy could consist of little more than election slogans or clichés that serve as convenient propaganda. However the policy, which the political party introduces in parliament by means of bills, will be a much better formulated and reasoned statement of principles and/or objectives. There could be different political parties, each of which has its own views and programme of action to promote the well being of the community. When a party comes into power its views and programme of action have to be implemented through new or perhaps amend legislation, as well as through the budget. By this means the official policy of the country comes into being. Examples which come to mind are the policy of separation development of the National Party in force up to 1994 when it was replaced by the reconstruction and development policy of the ANC." (Cloete 1994; 94).

Education systems therefore reflect the policies and politics of the government of the day. No education can escape politics of its government. As Michael Apple said:

Education is deeply implicated in the politics of culture. The curriculum is never simply a neutral assemblage of knowledge, somehow appearing in the tests and classrooms of a nation. It is always part of a selective tradition, someone's selection, some group's vision of legitimate knowledge. It is produced out of the cultural, political and economic conflicts, tensions, and compromises that organize disorganize a people. As I argue in *Ideology and Curriculum and Official knowledge*, the decision to define some groups knowledge as the most legitimate as official knowledge, while other groups knowledge hardly sees the light of day, say something extremely important about who has power in society. (Apple 1996; 22).

Politics therefore through the policy of the state can easily make its way into the curriculum. And because knowledge can be socially constructed there is a danger if a state using the educational systems to win total allegiance from the people. National designed and control of the curriculum makes people to believe that the state has the ability and authority to know what is good for the people and establish standards for measuring individual worth. In the authoritarian state, the education system to teach people to love and protect the state, it's rulers, and its laws. As J. Spring said in the authoritarian state "people are educated to accept and love their place in the social order and to believe that they should sacrifice for the common good. The educational system of an authoritarian states wants to produce common citizens who are willing to die to protect the very state and social systems that condemn them to a life of slavery and exploitation" (Spring 1994; 15) Even in the democratic state there is no guarantee that the education system cannot be used to control the political decisions of citizens and, at the same time, ensure that it does provide citizens with the knowledge and skills they need in order to make good decisions. Hence Gutmann (1987) Dewey (1966) and Giroux (1988) have argued for the necessity for principles and method that limit democratic authority over the education system. Gutmann for example would argue that democratic decision-making should be limited by the principle of no repression. Operating on the principle of non- repression, school, no matter what is taught, should still promote and all divergent thought. This principle according to Gutmann would ensure the maintenance of freedom of ideas. This would also according to Gutmann limit the possibility of using education to control political decisions. Education therefore as a political factor will always remains controversial for any government, policy-makers, academics, educationalist and even societies.

Can the government be entrusted with the mission of education? Traditions of dissent to government education

If education is a product of human creation, can any human institution whether government, school or university be entrusted with the mission of education century.

If education is a human creation and about the transmission of values, is it not possible that government operated schools to impose particular value, methods of instruction, and knowledge on future citizens. Springs gives an account of Molesworth in Denmark. Molesworth found that citizens were made obedient to the state through schools financed and supported by the state-supported religion. (Spring 1994, 38) Using the logic similar to Plato's justification of philosopher-kings in *The Republic*, religious leaders in Denmark argued that the rulers were inspired by God and therefore have access to the truth. Therefore, religion can preach the doctrine of submission and obedience to both heavenly and earthly rulers. According to Molesworth religious leaders at the time depended on rulers for support, hence they backed the idea of gaining absolute obedience of citizens. Therefore education, which is one of the functions of the state and operated by religious leaders, then one of the primary goals of such

schools, will be to teach obedience. Molesworths contends that the combination of state and religions governance of education resulted in the frequent recommendation that student students submit to “the Queen of Virtues, viz. submission to superiors, and an entire blind obedience to authority.” (cf Spring 1994; 38) Molesworths also argues that the educational systems cause people to forget that government is a product of human creation-not divine intervention. Such education he argued taught, “that the people ought to pay an Absolute Obedience to a limited government; fall down and worship the Work of their own hands, as if it dropped from heaven” (cf Spring 1994; 38).

Molesworth clearly recognizes that the authoritarian state can maintain power by claiming access through religion to some form of higher truth. He argued that in order for education to contribute to liberty and freedom, it must be separated from religion. He called for the professor to replace the priest and for education to be free from religious dogma in the service to the state. (cf Spring 1994; 38). For Molesworth there could be no wisdom without freedom. According to Molesworth schools operated by religious groups and the state placed ideological restraints on education. The same question can be asked whether a secular education administered by the state not tied to any religion, can be free of ideological restraints.

Education and political control in a global economy

The development of a global economy over the last several decades has led to an increasing effort to create international educational standards and international achievement evaluation. Multinational corporations are demanding that educational systems produce workers who will be loyal, obedient and willing to sacrifice for the good of the corporations. The new global citizenship that will be tied to global corporations. Thus taking away the right of societies, nations and even governments to determine the destiny and social thought of their subjects. As Joel Springs asserts:

The transition to a global economy and global citizenship raises issues regarding the future functioning of the nation- state and government operated school systems. In the future, will the nation-state primarily exist to serve the needs of the international corporations? Will they serve the interest of global corporations or the political and economic interests of citizens? In the future global economy, who or what should exert political control over educational systems? Today, global corporations can exert tremendous economic power over nationals to accomplish two important objectives- maintaining low corporate taxes and gaining an inexpensive, well-educated labor force. For instance, if corporations feel taxes are too high, they can threaten to move their plants to another country. This threat creates an atmosphere of competition where countries try to outbid one another with promise to corporations of government aid, tax abatements, and low corporate taxes... Using the threat of moving to another country, corporations can apply economic pressure on government to organize school systems that will meet their needs for a complaint, in expensive, well brained labor force.(Spring 1994; 168).

The global domination therefore of the economy by multinational corporations has forced many countries to create a global curriculum that will meet the job requirements of multinational corporations. This global curriculum will also allow multinational corporations the freedom to establish operations in any country, because all the national work force would be educated in a similar manner. This raises another question: What is knowledge? Where knowledge is most worth? In this process of global economy there is a possibility that multinational corporations will define what knowledge is and what knowledge is most worth. Multinational corporations' managers become new educational philosophers and experts. Their definition will be in the context of what is good for their corporations. The needs of multinational corporations take precedence over against those of individuals and societies. Thus develop some form of authoritarianism and necrophilic personalities. Joel Springs explains:

By influencing national systems of education to meet their needs, international corporations can develop authoritarian, necrophilic personalities. The key to this process is basing educational standards on the needs of industry as opposed to the needs and desires of the individual. From the standpoint of Neill and Reich, schools can aid in the development of authoritarian personalities by requiring students to sacrifice their desires and needs regarding learning for the acquisition of knowledge considered necessary by global corporations. In this situation, students are taught to think of learning as being useful for getting a job, but they are not taught that learning can be used to create a world that meets their desires. With corporate needs dominating national educational systems; students are not given the opportunity to think of learning in terms of their personal pleasure. What they learn is to think in terms of corporate needs. In this situation, students learn to sacrifice their desires to the authority of the corporation. From Paulo Freire's perspective, having schools operate according to international standards and evaluated by achievement tests based on those standards represents the worst form of banking education. Knowledge, as defined by international standards, is deposited into the minds of the student. Students do not participate in the establishment of the international standards and, consequently, became passive receivers of what someone else thinks they should know." (Spring 1994; 171).

In summary in a global economy multinational corporations use their economic power to pressure national government to educate students to be compliant workers. In this situation, corporate managers and politicians became educational philosophers and experts. Multinational corporations demand loyalty from students through their education systems in their future employment accept the capitalist economic order, sacrifices their desires for the common good of the economic order. The education system demanded by the multinational corporations might also instill the values that are protective of the property rights of these multinational corporations.

What about education in a global culture?

Earlier on I consider the issue of education as the medium of transmission of any values. I also argued that education can advocate values of Western society or the culture of the economic and social elites or the culture of the dominant groups. This issue of education as the medium of the transmission of value needs to be considered in the larger framework of the development of a world culture. The development of a global culture is a result of the development of a global economy. This new global popular culture is dominated by the American culture with its music, movies and television industries. As sociologist Todd Gitlin wrote:

American popular culture is the closest approximation there is today to a global lingua franca, drawing urban classes in most nations into a federated culture zone. (Gitlin 1992; 1)

The globalization of American culture is a major threat to indigenous culture. In this global culture there is no tolerance for local knowledge's or indigenous knowledge. America through its global culture regards itself as licensed to save not just Africa but other third world cultures. In the context of American educational and cultural arrogance, three educational discourses have managed to challenge cultural imperialism. They are African studies, multicultural studies and post-modernism. Culture therefore in the global world has become a site of struggle. Chandra Talpade Mohanty has written on the role of radical critique of liberal education, drawing on the views of Paulo Freire and said:

Education represents both a struggle of remaining and a struggle over power relations... This way of understanding the academy entails a critique of education as the mere accumulate of disciplinary knowledge's that can be exchanged on the world market for

upward mobility. There are much larger questions at stake in the academy these days, not the least of which are questions of self and collective knowledge of marginal people and recovery of alternative, oppositional, histories of domination and struggle.” (Mohanty, 1989- 1990; 184)

Although African studies, multiculturalism and post-modernism are complex and complex and contradictory at times, there is a general agreement on some issues. All are opposed the dominance of American culture or even Eurocentric culture in all its forms of institutional dominance, privilege and racial and gender-specific inequality. African studies and multicultural only differ on that the former centers on African experience as a grounding for African framework or cosmology, whereas the latter attempts to articulate new grounds for inclusion for all the marginalized, groups, while questioning cultural hegemony of Eurocentrism or Americanism. (Lowy 1989; 610). In his article “The Afrocentric ideas in education” Molefi Asante defines both Afrocentric and multicultural forms of education. Afrocentrism may appear to be a narrow critique of Eurocentrism because of its advocacy of the needs of the Africans, however Asante sees mutual and overlapping agenda for both Afrocentrism or multicultural. The challenges for Afrocentrism, Asante suggest as the following:

1. It questions the imposition of the White supremacist views as universal and/ or classical.
2. It demonstrates the indefensibility of racist theories that assault multiculturalism and pluralism.
3. It projects a humanistic and pluralistic viewpoint by articulating Afrocentricity as a valid, no hegemonic perspective. (Asante 1991; 173)

Asante’s definition of multiculturalism contains the same generic points that validate the universal and no hegemonic character of inclusionary forms of curriculum:

Multiculturalism in education is a nonhierarchical approach that respects and celebrates a variety of cultural perspectives on world phenomena. The multicultural approach holds that although European culture is the majority culture in the United States, that is not sufficient reason for it to be imposed on diverse students populations as “universal.” Multiculturalists assert that [for] education to have integrity, [it] must begin with the proposition that all humans have contributed to world development and the flow of knowledge and information, and to most human achievements are the results of mutually interactive international effort. Without a multicultural education, students remain essentially ignorant of the contributions of a major proportion of the world’s people.” (Asante, 1998; 172).

Multiculturalism in education is sometimes criticized by both the right and left in terms that misrepresent its diversity, whereas Afrocentricity is condemned for being racist and exclusivist. (Lowy,1998; 611). The right claims that multiculturalism in education promotes divisiveness and ethnic polarization rather than nationality. (Lowy, 1998; 611). The left on the other hand claim that multiculturalism reinforces the status quo because it fails to challenge the current social structures of inequality, racism and exploitation (Lowy 1998; 611). The emergence of Afrocentric thought has provoked some of the most hostile debate over the Western academic canon, its political correctness, and role

Africanisation of education

There is a challenge to address the question of values in education particularly African values in South Africa. African people form the majority of the population in South Africa and are also indigenous. Therefore the education system has been challenged to be reflective of the culture and values of the African people. Education systems throughout the world, according to Makgoba, have three important traditional roles in society- the preservation, the imparting and the generation of knowledge.

They preserved cultural heritage of their societies. Malegapuru Makgoba explains:

The Universities in Africa should recognize this responsibility. It is their prime responsibility to enhance Africa, its people, its rich and diverse values, traditions and heritage. This remains the greatest challenge for educationists in Africa today." (Makgoba 1997, 179).

Therefore even the so-called English liberal institutions and the Afrikaner conservative institutions will have to shed their clothes and put on African clothes. Because they are located on the African continent, they will have to be reflective of African values. By so doing, they not only contribute to Africa's development but also culturally to the Africans. They will be true national assets serving foreign values. Malegapuru Makgoba writes:

It is important to recognize immediately that the imparting of inappropriate or irrelevant education, even of the highest caliber, would equally lead to a poor and ineffective product. Thus university education has to be relevant not only to the people but also to the culture and environment in which it is being imparted. It is essential to recognize that true development occurs only when scientific thought and technology practice become part and parcel of a people's culture...All great and successful nations of the world have their education molded into their respective cultures, so that the educated English or American person remains distinctly American or English, but not African." (Makgoba 1997, 179).

The last few years have also witnessed a fundamental rethinking and change in perception regarding the place and role of a university in the development of their societies particularly in Africa. African scholars engaged in the debate are Nyerere, Ajayi, Fafumwa, Mazrui, Yesufu, Makgoba, Seepe, Vilakazi, Nkondo, Mosala and many others. In more general terms Nyerere has referred to a university as an institution of higher learning; an place where peoples minds are trained for clear thinking, for independent thinking, for analysis, and for problem solving at the highest level" (cf Hinzen & Hundsorfer 1979, 38ff).

It is therefore an institution for free and critical enquiry. Nyerere ascribes to a university a number of functions of which the most important are to transmit knowledge and to be a centre that attempts to advance the frontiers of knowledge (cf Hinzen & Hundsorfer 1979, 38ff). He considers knowledge that remains isolated from the people, or which is used by a few to exploit others, a betrayal:

It is a particular vicious kind of theft by false pretences. Students are bread and butter of the peanuts because they have been promised a service in the future. If they are unable or unwilling to provide that service when the time comes, then the students have stolen from the peanuts as surely as if had carried off their sack of wheat in the night." (cf Hinzen & Hundsorfer 1979, 38ff).

In the 1970's six new principles were devised by African educationalists for the development and existence of African university (cf Gold Schmidt 1977) as National relevance, Africanisation, social identification, state hegemony, Academic freedom, International communication. Mpati, a leading African educationist discussing the role of university in Africa, rejected the 'classified models of Western universities whose approach and pattern of learning are relics of a by-gone era and whose attitudes cannot always be reconciled with progress and reconstruction.(Mpati 1980, 43).

The role of a university in an African society is to help liberate African people from the shackles of the past in order to discover their own authentic identity and to establish their own creativity. The university is therefore called upon to play a strategic role in mental decolonization and liberation.

Conclusion

Education is largely an act or experience that has a formative effect on the mind, character and physical ability of an individual. Education is controversial and everyone has an opinion about education. In the technical sense, education is the process by which society deliberately transmits its knowledge, skills and values from one generation to another. However from various approaches mentioned above it is clear that education has wider implications than transmission of knowledge. It can be an ideological tool of those who have power to determine knowledge production. For political interests those who have power can use education to marginalize or exclude others on class, religio-cultural and racial grounds. In such a case education that does not only transmit one set of values, but also shapes the minds of the students. Education policy makers are ideologues who represent the ideology of the government. Curriculum therefore is a national doctrine.

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CHALLENGES AND LESSONS LEARNT IN THE PROCESS OF IMPLEMENTING AND HANDING OVER SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT PROJECTS (SIPS) SUCCESSES TO KAMPALA CITY COUNCIL (KCC): THE AGA KHAN FOUNDATION (AKF) EXPERIENCE

Kezaala Najib

kezaalanajib@yahoo.com

Abstract

The coming in of the NRM government in Kampala ushered in a new era of development that was to engulf the whole nation in the years to follow. A new Uganda had been reborn and new ideas and initiatives were being put on board to spearhead development and to rediscover the social-economic glory of the nation which had been lost over time. Government adopted a sector-wise approach, and one of the sectors addressed radically was education. Government had set up an Education Review Commission (a.k.a. the Senteza Commission), and among the many recommendations the commission made, was to revamp the primary school education system which had deteriorated significantly. The job was enormous, that government was forced to call in support and help from other development partners. One willing partner was the Aga Khan Foundation (AKF); hence the introduction of the Kampala SIPS.

The AKFs SIPS implementation and exit strategy targeted the primary school-teacher system at the school and community levels. The SIPS were able (among many other achievements) to impact over 1000 class-room teachers; over 200 school head-teachers; about 100,000 pupils; about 100,000 parents/community members; over 1000 School Managers; about 150 education political leaders; over 100 technical education administrators and managers. This achievement was the result of 15 years' efforts and struggle by AKF to pass on the mantle of managing and administering sustainably the successes registered by the SIPS to their principle partners "KCC".

It was assumed, right from the beginning, that the SIPS are a means to empower KCC – Education Department to own up the challenges and successes of the projects through scaling up and institutionalizing the projects activities and practices. Unfortunately, despite all those years of collaboration and close engagement between KCC and AKF (through the SIPS); KCC has little to show willingness to take over the initiatives. KCC seems not very prepared to take on the challenges, and it lacks the motivation to measure up to the task. It is this situation that this paper will be trying to address by seeking to understand underlying factors and or forces that are at play – leading to KCC's failure to take on the SIPS achievements. The paper will shade some light on how else, perhaps, KCC would have been motivated to own up the SIPS developments.

Introduction/Background

From independence Uganda had a healthy developing economy and education sector for at least a decade before the situation deteriorated as a result of nearly two decades of civil unrest. Most of the burden for education of children and the youth was carried out by parents. In the then economic context, this meant that children from poorer families had no access to primary education or dropped out long before completing the primary cycle. Between 1971/2-1975/6, the Government Educational Plan was almost not implemented due to manpower vacuum created by the expulsion of expatriate teachers and fleeing of local teachers. Between the early 1980s and 1990s, emphasis on educational policy was largely on general recovery and rehabilitation of educational facilities and manpower to restore functional capacity. By the late 1980s physical infrastructure had deteriorated with nearly twenty years of civil strife. A large percentage of the primary school classes were conducted in temporary structures. Text books, instructional materials and other scholastic materials were almost non-existent in most schools, making teaching and learning extremely difficult. The few remaining teachers who did not flee the country during repression were underpaid, under trained and demoralized. Many facilities were damaged by warfare and vandalism.

In 1986, the post-conflict government (NRM/A) dealt with the education situation by appointing an Education Policy Review Commission (the Senteza Kajubi Commission) – with the aim of redeeming the glory and re-focusing and re-directing education development in the nation. The commission recommended major policy changes and innovations including the popular Universal Primary Education (UPE). The commission asserted itself to the logic that only when every child is enrolled at the right age, and does not leave school without completing the full cycle of primary school education, it would be possible to ensure that all citizens have the basic education needed for living a full life; and that it would help in transforming the Ugandan society leading to greater unity among the people, help them develop higher moral standards and it would facilitate accelerated growth of the economy.

The key policy thrust in the educational sector for Uganda includes providing equitable access to quality and affordable education to all Ugandans, propelling the nation towards achieving the goals of Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP), meeting commitments to achieve Education for All (EFA) and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) by 2015; providing relevant education and enhancing efficiency, and strengthening partnerships in the education sector. In Uganda, education is a constitutional right enshrined in the constitution of the republic of Uganda. Articles 30 and 34 makes education for children a human right, and children are entitled to basic education by the state and parents hence, UPE.

UPE was designed and developed to ensure that; basic education is accessible to the learners and relevant to their needs as well as meeting national goals; education is equitable in order to eliminate disparities and inequalities (gender-based or otherwise); providing and maintaining quality education as the basis for promoting the necessary human resource development is established; a fundamental positive transformation of society in the social, economic, technological and political fields is initiated; and ensuring that education is affordable by the majority of Ugandans by provision of minimum necessary facilities and resources, and progressively the optimal facilities, to enable every child to enter and remain in school until they complete the primary school education cycle. (*Adapted from: Education Sector Overview Paper, 2006*). It is against this background that AKF came to the aid of government by providing its resources and expertise help bring about qualitative processes of teaching and learning in KCC primary schools through SIPs.

This was going to be an enormous task for government to shoulder. Government did not have adequate means and reasonable readiness to undertake the challenge despite its non-wagering political will. It is from this fact that government called on donors and other development partners to come to its aid to facilitate sustainable and desirable change. Government as a system was alluding to Ronald Lippit et al suggestion that planned/organized change originates

from a decision to make deliberate efforts to improve the system and to source the help and support of an outsider (*Adapted: The Dynamics of Planned Change, 1958*).

AKF joins the struggle

Between the late 1980s and early 1990s, His Highness the Aga Khan on behalf of AKDN signed a Protocol/Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) with the government of Uganda. It is this protocol/MoU that laid the foundation of AKF's intervention in the social economic development of the nation.

The Aga Khan Foundation (AKF) is part of the Aga Khan Development Network (AKDN). AKF is a private, non-profit, non-denominational development agency that seeks sustainable solutions to long-term problems of poverty through an integrated, community-based, participatory approach that reinforces civil society and respects local culture. In every undertaking, AKF's overriding goal is to assist in the struggle against hunger, disease, illiteracy, ignorance and social exclusion through the implementation of innovative solutions to development.

Okuni in SARE (a Journal of Comparative Education and History of Education; Vol. 13 No. 2; 2007), from the onset the involvement of the Aga Khan Foundation in education quality improvement in East-Africa was unique among NGOs and other major education development partners in the region. Rather than focusing on school facilities development, production and distribution of textbooks or the broad delivery of INSET packages using trainer-of-trainer (ToT) 'cascade' strategies, the AKF initially emphasized intensive school-based in-service training designed to change and improve the quality of teaching and learning on a school-by-school basis, although the AKF later developed other school improvement models (Anderson and Nderitu 1999:22). The emphasis on intensive school-based CPD and support derived from two insights: the conviction and 'experience' that this particular model was superior to the conventional 'cascade' type of training in terms of effecting long-term change in teachers' skills and their senses of professionalism (Joyce and Showers 1988; Greenland 2002: 22), and the fact that by their nature and design as 'action research' projects – AKF SIPs are developed and implemented not as tried and tested interventions but as experiments with the aim of testing and identifying innovative and replicable approaches to improve the quality of basic education. The internal monitoring, evaluation, documentation, reporting/sharing within the projects would provide a solid basis for determining the effectiveness of such an INSET approach, and hence, for advising other education development partners and stakeholders, including the East-African governments (*Adapted from article 'Decentralizing and revitalizing School-based Teacher Support and Continuous Professional Development at Primary School Level: Why it has failed in East-Africa'*).

Rationale for the AKF SIPs

In the early 1980s, the AKF decided to support education in developing countries and advance a model for school improvement. Initially, the AKF identified two challenges; the need to address the upgrading of teachers' skills in classrooms through on-job training; and, the need for production of affordable curriculum local materials aimed at compensating for the shortage of textbooks. For over 20 years the AKF SIPs have been operation in the region of East Africa starting with Mzizima SIP in Dar – Tanzania (1985 – 1995) at the Mzizima Aga Khan Education Service (AKES); later, AKF initiated outreach programmes to involve government schools and developed curriculum materials adopted afterwards for national use. Mzizima SIP was followed by Kisumu SIP (1989 - 1996), then Mombasa SIP (1994 – 1998). (*Adapted from paper by Onguti in School Improvement and Early Childhood Development in East-Africa - Experiences of the Aga Khan Development Network*)

The SIPs were therefore, vessels through which carefully designed and developed education programs that targeted school systems especially the primary school system were to be

delivered to the targeted beneficiaries. The SIPs themselves were no ends in themselves but rather a means through which change was to be realized. Kanyike suggests that the inspiration for the AKF SIPs arose from a British and a North-American research which indicated that in the 1970s and early 1980s there were enormous differences of ethos and academic achievements among apparently similar schools. School-level factors best explained this, for example; how schools handled discipline, homework and staff retention. The implication was that school improvement efforts needed to focus on specific schools (*Adapted from paper by Kanyike in School Improvement and Early Childhood Development in East-Africa - Experiences of the Aga Khan Development Network*).

AKF SIPs as CSOs under decentralization

In the search for good governance and accountability according to DENIVA study (2005), Uganda sought to devolve functions, power and authority closer to the grassroots by adopting decentralization as a mode of governance. Article 176 (b) of the constitution of the republic of Uganda stipulates that decentralization shall be the principle applying to all levels of local government to ensure people's participation and democratic control in decision-making. The specific objectives of decentralization policy in Uganda were set as:

- to transfer real power to districts and thus reduce the load work on remote and under-resourced central officials;
- to bring political and administrative control over services to the point where they are actually delivered, thereby improving accountability and effectiveness, promoting convincing and continuing relevance to Uganda's decentralization and local governance;
- to free local managers from central constraints and as long-term goal, allow them develop organization structures tailored to local circumstances; to improve financial accountability and responsibility by establishment a clear link between payment of taxes and provision of services they finance;
- to improve the capacities of the Councils to plan, finance and manage the delivery of services and their constituencies;
- to provide opportunity to citizens to access many channels of decision making; and
- to demystify power by bringing it closer to the people at the grassroots.

Without doubt, the decentralization process established a new configuration of roles, powers and responsibilities of local institutions. Local governments units were legally empowered to mobilize resources and utilize them as they deemed fit, employ new staff for effective delivery of services and exercise political and administrative authority as long as this was consistent with the constitution (Ashaba-Aheebwa, 1996). Kisubi (1996) suggest that the decentralization policy aimed at undoing the harm caused to local systems of governance by over-centralization. He suggests that its purposes was to 'invigorate local initiatives and local initiatives and local democratic processes so as to enhance local capabilities for self governance and service delivery order to achieve sustainable development (1996:84)

CSOs like AKF are interested in engagements that seek to collaborate and compliment government efforts and can be best described as private-public partnerships that aim at:

- Supporting participatory approaches in service delivery and infrastructure provision – which is the most traditionally recognized roles for CSOs especially NGOs.

- Facilitating large-scale government programs which may include program conceptualization, implementation, service delivery and monitoring and evaluation.
- Contributing to policy formulation and socially responsive development interventions through structured and unstructured interventions.
- Institutionalize alternative delivery systems where considerable coverage has been achieved through such systems. Implementation and management usually involve a new organization positioned outside typical government structures. Government contributes by assisting in resource mobilization and facilitating policies through participation on governing boards.
- Improving access of the poor to goods and services and effect both incremental change in local government policies and procedures and substantive change in rules, norms and value so that there is a fundamental change in favor of the poor.

The views that emerged from the study (DENIVA; 2005) indicated that LGs and CSOs had distinct roles to play. LGs were expected to collaborate and network with CSOs offering guidance, coordination and information sharing. LGs were expected to monitor, register and supervise CSOs involve CSOs in planning process indiscriminately as well as provide security and good open environment. CSOs were also expected to participate in the programme implementation process, resource mobilization. CSOs would want to participate in building capacity of LGs and bridge knowledge gaps but many agreed that it is the responsibility of CSOs to legally register.

There were views that to the effect that government now looks at CSOs as new partners in development or even extended arms of government. Others had it that NGOs/CSOs are better placed and trusted by the community and so should be a link between LGs and the community. Some LGs were found to be conscious of the crucial role of CSOs and included a range of them on their technical and planning committees. In general terms however the relationship between LGs and CSOs can be described as unsound and shrouded with contradictions even when there seemingly some sort of good working relationship [Adapted from DENIVA Study: *Civil Society in Uganda's Decentralization Process: A study of Civil Society Organization – Local Government Engagement in Districts of Kamwenge, Kamuli, Tororo, and Mbale; 2005*].

Consequently, according to Okuni, by design, AKF SIPs always emphasize responsiveness of their intervention strategies to identified needs or constraints and/or to government policy. Therefore, the AKF decision to keep its experimental agenda but giving more emphasis to wider implementation was influenced by the dramatic changes in the educational policy and funding environments in East-Africa (Greenland 2002:33) Kampala SIP (as one of the 'first and second generation SIPs in the region of East-Africa') was evaluated, assessed and rated to have been very successful hence the recommendation that it should be launched at a large scale in addition to endeavoring to ensure mainstreaming and sustainability (Siraj – Blatchford et al; 1997) of the SIPS successes and experiences gained over time.

Kampala SIP (1995-1999)

In Uganda, the Kampala SIP (KSIP: 1994 -1999) initially just like in the other two East-African countries, the KSIP targeted primarily the AKF/AKES Schools. The Foundation had just received back their schools from government (the schools were among the properties that the military regime had taken over after the expulsion of the Asians in early seventies). The schools infra-structure had been dilapidated due to neglect and lack of timely renovation and general care from government. The quality and standard of education had deteriorated; there was general mismanagement of the schools which led to poor performance of the teachers and

other workers. The situation was unbearable and unacceptable from a reasonable point of view. The AKF acted by ensuring that their schools must be improved to suit acceptable standards. This was achieved through an internal “AKF SIP”. Soon after realizing desirable changes in their schools, the AKF realized that there was need to share their success with the neighboring schools. This was intended for a more sustainable change that would go beyond the AKF schools. The ideas and new initiatives would be seen to be more plural and encompassing. The AKF started to pollinate 15 objectively selected primary schools in a round Kampala, hence the beginning of a wider Kampala SIP.

Siraj-Blatchford, Odada and Omagor state that KSIP (1994 – 1998) aimed at improving the quality of teaching and learning in a few selected nursery and primary schools i.e 12 government-aided primary schools and 3 AKF/AKES schools (as hinted earlier on), by promoting child-centered training and development and the use of learning resources in project schools. KSIP employed Project Officers (POs) on contract basis, with hope that by the end of the project, it was dependent solely on local authorities to take up and mainstream the innovations. KSIP’s attention on specific classes for specific subjects also proved problematic in that it was piecemeal and fragmented. While the Foundation deemed the school-based approach superior, it was looked at by others as slow and did not allow coverage of numbers as wished by local authorities “KCC”. On the other hand, non-government aided primary schools were amounting pressure for inclusion in the project (*adapted from paper by Onguti in School Improvement and Early Childhood Development in East-Africa - Experiences of the Aga Khan Development Network*).

Kampala SIP employed three External School-Based Teacher Development Professionals (ESBTDPs) later; they came to be known as Project Officers (POs) to implement SIP’s activities in the three AKES schools. Each PO engaged with one school for three days a week. The actual contact time was two and a half days in the classroom. The afternoon of the third day was for the professional school-based workshops. The PO had options to work with the lower, middle or upper on each separate day. Once a week, the PO usually worked with a team member in a given school to provide support and monitor progress. On average, each teacher had an hour meeting and sharing with the PO in the two and a half days. On average, the PO worked with four teachers every day – where such support could not be given, there were opportunities for interaction during the afternoons in the professional school-based workshops. Over time the PO had built professional rapport with the supported teacher that at times the two would observe a lesson together continuing to impart skills to the teacher being observed and to the one observing with PO. The team observed more lessons hence helping more teachers because of the trainees’ vigilance to practice new knowledge and skills or their need for more support. In 1996 when more schools had been brought on board, contact time on average came to one hour per teacher in three days. A PO observed an average of four teachers per day, thus, at least twelve teachers had the opportunity to interact with their mentor/trainer (PO) every week (*Adapted from Lawrence Kanyike’s paper ‘Always Learning, Always Teaching: The Evolution and Implications of the Aga Khan Foundation Teacher Continuous Professional Development Initiatives in Uganda*). KSIP had established a central Teachers Resource Centre (TRC) at the AKES schools complex where all professional teacher development ideals and innovations were adapted and or adopted from and practiced in the field. KSIP was also in the practice of providing a cup of tea, a meal for lunch, and some financial contribution to teachers whenever they came to the TRC at the AKES schools complex.

This pattern of work by KSIP was not only very practical and engaging but it was very effective and highly motivative in that it gave greater opportunity to both the supporter/mentor (PO) and the one being supported/mentee (teacher) to build rapport between themselves, thereby learning from each other and being able to create a professional ‘critical friendly relationship’- where critical and helping feedback was always timely and received in a respectful and reasonable manner. Teachers had been used to the ‘superior – subordinate’ or the ‘master – servant’ type of relationship where the subordinates {teachers} suffered the anguish of their bosses at school and from the Education Department from KCC without facilitation and

provision of the necessary professional support to enhance their capacities' to perform better. KSIP conclude work in 1999.

KSIP's greatest achievements were the rehabilitation and improvement of the quality of teaching and learning in the AKF/AKES complex schools, and developing a central Teachers' Resources Centre (TRC) in addition to targeting the mentioned number of schools.

EUPEK SIP (2000-2004)

Enhancement of Universal Primary Education in Kampala (EUPEK) project evolved from the smaller KSIP. A final (external) evaluation of KSIP was conducted in 1997 and found that the project had been successful overall, and that it had achieved its objectives reasonably, and consequently recommended a second phase, hence 'EUPEK'. The evaluation exercise also identified a number of strength but also very critical weaknesses which were to be incorporated and to be addressed in the new SIP (EUPEK). One significant weakness identified by the evaluation team was the missing link between the project's activities and the role of the citizens including that of KCC. Another concern for the evaluators was the project's sustainability as this was found to be inadequately addressed.

EUPEK commenced in September 1999, and its greatest challenge was to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of primary education delivery in order to have more cost-effective educational services provided by a combination of state and the community. EUPEK was intended to complement government efforts to improve the quality of primary education especially in government-aided primary schools in the city. EUPEK's objectives were in line with the government White Paper and the Education Strategic Investment Plan – 1998-2003. EUPEK sought to collaborate with and complement the efforts of both the Central government and the department of Education of Kampala City Council (KCC) as advocated by the two government documents.

EUPEK's broad aim was to expand the KSIP activities to impact all government-aided primary schools in the city by building effective education systems comprising a stronger City Education Office (CEO), and Teacher's Resource Centres (TRCs) that in courage effective participation of citizens and other stakeholders. Specific activities were to improve the quality of UPE by designing appropriate and effective programs for teacher professional development, development and production of local teaching/learning resources/materials, and training of head teachers and School Managements Committees (SMCs), to strengthen the capacity of the City Education Office to supervise and effectively manage UPE in all City schools and to sensitize and empower citizens to participate in and influence the process of school improvement in Kampala, mobilize more resources to support sustainable primary education development in the city, develop innovative programs that address specific problems in education and explore through research and experimentation possible approaches to UPE that would increase access to primary education and respond to the needs of the most needy citizens [Adapted from Kezaala Najib's paper 'Enhancement of Rights Fulfillment through Citizens Participation in School Improvement Initiatives in Uganda' in Institutionalizing Rights in Development through Citizen Participation – Case Studies from Kenya, Uganda and Zimbabwe; 2003].

Kanyike observes that one of EUPEK's objectives was to scale up the KSIP level of efforts to mainstream its activities for sustainability by working with system teacher supervisory personnel (at KCC and including Centre Coordinating Tutors "CCTs" under the Teacher Development Management Service of the Ministry of Education and Sports). It was observed that successful work with STSP had greater chances to enhance dependable relationship that would facilitate sustainability. EUPEK endeavored to increase chances of internal school-based teacher developers (ISBTDs) hence 'peer mentors or coaches' through a carefully designed and developed process of coaching and mentoring.

Bakundana & Kakooza observe that the introduction of UPE created an upsurge in the increase of pupils' enrolment in schools creating the phenomenon of extraordinary big classes. Teachers faced the challenge of handling big numbers while maintaining the quality of education to ensure that learners acquire relevant knowledge and skills for adult life. EUPEK chose the innovation of coaching and mentoring as a means through which desirable change for teachers' professional development would be delivered. The mentors work was two fold; to identify the general principles of good practice; and the other one, which is more complex, was to establish the specific nature of teaching. The former is to strategies teachers identify during their lesson planning; and the later to tactics and techniques used spontaneously in the immediate classroom situation.

The work was overwhelming to the POs which forced them to delegate some roles and responsibilities. It was also deemed to be of importance to share concepts of coaching and mentoring to help teachers [i.e. Headteachers, Deputy Headteachers, and Heads of Departments who would form an internal school-based team of coaches and mentors to carry on with the [practice of coaching and mentoring to their colleagues/mentees) understand the underlying principles and patterns of project activities and their values to improve classroom practice and the general pedagogical values. POs deliberately targeted some selected teachers as partners while they (POs) provided pedagogical leadership. The basis for the process of coaching and mentoring was founded on the discourse of lesson observation. The lesson observation process is cyclic; there is planning; observation; then post-observation conference. Lesson observation could involve a one-to-one process or in a group (group conference) *[Adapted from Flavia Bakundana et al paper 'Growing the Growers: Coaching and Mentoring Teachers in Kampala' in School Improvement and Early childhood Development in East Africa – Experience of the Aga Khan Development Network].*

Initially, EUPEK's approach was similar to that of its predecessor (KSIP). Under KSIP, project personnel were the sole source of influence to the teachers at school levels. Serious reflections were made and it was realized that there was need for some modification to improve the intervention of the new project (EUPEK). A critical element of the intensification was the infusion of new ideas and perspectives into the project mainly due to the coming on board of three new comers (at EUPEK) .i.e. the new Project Director (PD), a new Community Development Officer (CDO), two new POs, and a new Researcher (EUPEK was the biggest AKF SIP in terms of project personnel). The reflection widened the horizon of both the new and old project personnel to examine possibilities for modifications aimed at improving the implementation of project activities.

Project Officers (POs including he CDO) began to systematically encourage teachers and schools to identify their own priorities and areas they deemed to have obvious gaps that required support attention. This new innovation also encouraged EUPEK to lead the coaching and mentoring/intervention from behind by letting the schools and teachers and SMCs to decide on what training program they preferred, thereby moving away from the "EUPEK blue prints". The activities increasingly became more internally driven (at school level/Community levels) that externally driven as the case was earlier on. This greatly motivated teachers and other stakeholders/community members/parents to engage themselves with the planning, facilitating and managing the training programs and other activities with minimal support from POs save where more technical input was necessary. This was a shift from an imposed external "expert" approach to a more respectful negotiated process facilitated by dialogue between the mentors and their mentees.

EUPEK's achievements were extension of the SIP's intervention to all 86 government-aided primary schools in the city, addressed challenges posed by UPE such as handling big classes, developed the culture of school-based workshops and inter-school visits, and strengthening the aspect of community participation; aiding the primary teachers training department at Kyambogo University by supporting the establishment of a TRC at he university. Another break-through

was the introduction of the phonic approach (in the five selected schools) with the aim of improving the teaching of reading to enhance the culture of writing and reading.

EUPEC SIP (2005-2009)

The Enhancement of Universal Primary Education and Community (EUPEC) project was a continuation of the philosophy of school improvement as advanced by AKF. EUPEC was intended to facilitate a process of institutionalizing its predecessor's (EUPEK) success through mainstreaming and scaling up activities and achievements to enhance sustainability. EUPEC's purpose was three fold:

- To promote children's rights and generate understanding on gender issue, HIV/AIDS and the importance of education amongst the poor urban communities.
- To improve access to education and the quality of teaching and learning in community-based, private and public primary schools of poor areas in Kampala and Wakiso District towns neighboring Kampala; and
- To ensure sustainability of quality education by mainstreaming initiatives in KCC Education Department and developing further the capacity of KCC

EUPEC sought to address the professional needs of teachers; the effective participation of communities in the provision of education; and strengthening the capacity of service providers, including NGOs, education specialists, and government institutions. The overall goal for EUPEC was to improve the sustainability of education interventions, and to improve the access to and quality of education for children in the poor and most advantaged urban communities.

EUPEC adapted the cascade model of intervention based on clusters as its exit and implementation strategy. EUPEC deliberately organized project schools in fourteen clusters i.e. ten clusters (each cluster was composed of seven government-aided primary schools and five non-government-aided primary schools, making a total of twelve primary schools in each cluster. There were two clusters in each of the five divisions, thus, the total number of schools directly impacted was sixty including ten BEUPA centers) in Kampala; four clusters (each cluster with four government-aided primary schools and two non-government aided primary schools) in Wakiso . Clustering schools was designed and encouraged for purposes of easy reach, and to facilitate a speedy process of pollination of SIP's ideas to other neighboring and interested non-cluster schools.

The cascade approach was advanced as a result of the need to reach and impact as many stakeholders as possible within the project life period of five years. It was also hoped that the cascade was more familiar to government personnel/civil servants would aid, first enough, the process of handing over the project more appropriately. There were four basic levels of the cascade .i.e. at the National/District level as the super structure; the divisional level; the cluster level and; at the school/community level. Major project activities at the District level were imparting facilitation skills and development of training materials targeting district system personnel, political education leaders, and some specifically selected school level personnel including school managers (SMCs); development of resources centers, enhancing capacities in the process of coaching and mentoring, monitoring and evaluating trainings and other activities, documenting and reporting – at divisional and cluster levels (The target group was the same as at the District but with more inclusion of school level personnel reflecting the cluster); and emphasizing coaching and mentoring, documenting and reporting at school level – the target were teachers, parents/community members.

The success of EUPEC's overall success was to be underpinned on the willingness and commitment by KCC to avail resources (EUPEC intervention was based on a MoU between AKF and KCC and Wakiso). It was expected that as the project develop in maturity from the third year (2007) throughout the remaining years (2008 and 2009) the Districts would be the main contributors of all necessary resources – meaning that project funds would be dwindling significantly. The project's field activities were being spear-headed by a thin project staff of two POs, Two CDOs, and a Researcher with the overall assistance of the PD.

Significant achievement for EUPEC included establishment of a district TRC at Nansana C/U primary school; funding a print project at Wakiso DEOs office; establishing a “high tech resource centre” at KCC (DEOs) office; supporting the development of and funding of over twenty school improvement small projects at specifically identified project schools/communities in KCC; supporting a special capacity development and appropriate life and production skills training program for BEUPA under KCC.

The analogy above summarizes AKF's experience and struggle to help government in its endeavor of bring primary education sanity in the city and the nation a large. It's this experience endowed with extraordinary performance and success through SIPs in the city that is at risk of being totally lost as a result of indifference, and or unfortunate disengagement by KCC who are deemed to be the owners and the targeted beneficiaries of the SIPs interventions. This situation however, is not unfounded; there seem to be reasonable ground that facilitates its blossoming.

Factors that influence effective CSO/LG [AKF SIPs/KCC] engagement

For purposes of the need to understand further the situation and relationship between KCC and the said AKF SIPs, there are some basic underlying factors that are deemed essential to facilitate positive and closer relationship between local governments and their partners in development i.e. CSOs/NGOs as identified by DENIVA. This paper concurs that the identified factors are very central and critical to public/private partnerships whose single aim and purpose is sustainability of interventions their related change ushered in. The study established that a number of enabling conditions and opportunities obtained in a district (for Example Kampala) influenced the level of LGs/CSOs (for example KCC/AKF SIPs) engagement. These included:

- **The strength of existing CSOs network and support from the national/international CSOs:**

AKF as part of AKDN is one of those international NGOs with high regard and repute from governments and other donors and partners in development. AKF is also known for its notorious urge for qualitative work and accountability in all its interventions and undertakings. AKF's mission is to develop and promote innovative solutions to problems that impede social development, primarily in Asia and East Africa. The areas of focus for AKF are; education; health; rural development; and civil society development. AKF has been winning and continues to win funding and trust from other international Agencies like; DfID; CIDA – Canada; Ford Foundation; Comic Relief – UK; EU; USAID; ETC. It is against this background that AKF is rated. It is suggestive therefore that AKF is unquestionably a well founded, respectable, influential and experienced NGO both regionally and globally.

- **The nature and quality of the LG leadership and community support to CSO activity:**

KCC is a leading local government in Uganda although its performance is below expectation. KCC accommodates the central government. The assumption therefore, is that the leadership of KCC is among the elite of the nation. KCC is also the richest local government and urban authority in terms of resources. The leaders especially the technical system personnel are well educated and experienced in their offices (there seem to be questions on the capacities and abilities on the side of political leaders especially those supervising education; another question

is, if the technical staff are well prepared and experienced then why is their performance towards SIPs work is not reasonable enough to facilitate ownership and sustainability?).

- **The obstacles, challenges and sources of conflict inside and outside CSOs were also key in influencing the level of CSO/LG engagement:**

Although AKF SIPs never experienced open conflict with stakeholders, disharmony was evident especially when headteachers were challenged by project staff to open up and be transparent in the area of financial accountability. Many headteachers felt that SIPs staffs were interfering with issues that are not their concern.

- **Factors that are internal to CSOs relate to their capacities to engage LGs:**

The greatest internal factor regarding AKF SIPs was the unweaving commitment to supporting all project activities including making funds and other resources readily available to support the implementation of projects' activities. The SIPs were also known for their recruitment of competent and willing project personnel.

- **Unity and collaboration amongst CSOs:**

AKF endeavored to deliberately solicit support through collaboration and networking to enhance its performance. Cases in point include; joining hands with ANPPCAN and Straight Talk Agency to promote children rights and responsibilities in KCC schools; supporting MRCU to role-out their early childhood education program in Kabulasoke CPTC. However, there were no deliberate efforts by KCC to influence joint efforts among CSOs to synergies and complement each other's performance.

- **Transparency and accountability in some CSOs and networks:**

As mentioned earlier on, AKF is at the fore front to demand accountability for purposes of transparency. However KCC in some circles was complaining that the SIPs were not transparent enough since most project activity figures were reached at without the collaboration of KCC. On the other hand KCC never made counter efforts to share budgetary information with the SIPs.

- **Gender blindness and resource capacities:**

AKF is an all equal gender agency in its nature of work and recruiting staff. This is exhibited in its call for inclusive and integrated and gender responsive programs. As a local government, KCC by policy promotes gender equality in all its endeavors.

- **Forces outside CSOs include the information gap between CSOs and LGs:**

This is one aspect (save details regarding finances) where AKF SIPs and KCC enjoyed mutual relationships sharing freely information especially that concerning schools in the city. However, SIPs were blamed by some circles of being over possessive of some project materials in form of literature and other data.

- **Suspicion by politicians about losing their political power:**

Ironically, EUPEK's greatest allies were the politicians. Local government chairpersons, education committee members, MPs, were forth coming; they were on the fore front of drumming up support for the SIPs. The politicians saw the SIPs as promoting their cause and were contributing to making them relevant to the electorate.

- **Lack of understanding of the mandate of CSOs in LGs:**

AKF through its quest for qualitative work underlined the importance of keeping their personnel abreast with all aspects that affect their performance. This therefore means that the SIPs were always aware of their mandate. This explains their stay of over fifteen year of service within KCC without any major difference between the two partners.

- **Political interference and the different financial expectations by CSOs and LGs:**

As hinted above, there was no significant political interference registered by AKF SIPs. However, great expectations by AKF from KCC to shoulder some expenses by topping up on SIPs field activities yielded no fruits as KCC continued to claim that there were no funds available for such activities despite there being annual budgets for education development in the city.

- **The strategies employed by CSOs to engage LGs determined their efficacy and level of influence:**

This very critical and it is one area that has great implications regarding AKFs SIPs and their exit and intervention/implementation strategies.

The most remembered strategies by politicians, technical staff and the public are discussions and open dialogues. Others are trainings, monitoring, sensitization, campaigns, involvement of LGs in CSOs activities and one on one consultation with top leaders [Adapted from DENIVA Study: *Civil Society in Uganda's Decentralization Process: A study of Civil Society Organization – Local Government Engagement in Districts of Kamwenge, Kamuli, Tororo, and Mbale; 2005*]

Challenges: gaps, cracks and missing links

Having gone through some analogy related to the AKF SIPs, we now reflect on the same, but with the purpose of analyzing challenges and other issues that have or seem to have hampered the continuation of the SIPs in Kampala and therefore their survival and sustainability especially after AKF closed the last SIP (EUPEC). It should be noted however, that the analogy above is not very detailed therefore it has not discussed all issues thus some of the details we are to address here might not have been alluded to directly prior.

Decentralization and the perceived performance of KCC

While it can be observed that the decentralization process has generally had many positive effects one of which is the growing CSO-Local government interaction on matters relating to governance and service delivery, the depth and degree of this engagement has not been fully documented. Anecdotal evidence in a number of reports dealing with local governance points to the view that there is growing CSOs-local government interactions, which ranges from mutual existence to utter suspicion and conflict [Adapted from DENIVA Study: *Civil Society in Uganda's Decentralization Process: A study of Civil Society Organization – Local Government Engagement in Districts of Kamwenge, Kamuli, Tororo, and Mbale; 2005*].

Decentralization policy was developed and implemented with the purpose of empowering the grassroots stakeholders to have greater say and contribution in national building agenda, and to influence decisions at local government levels through objective participation to enhance accountability and performance. The Local Government Act (1994) entrusts the duty of managing and administer primary education (UPE) with all its challenges to local governments. The assumption is/was that local governments are closer to the people and that therefore they

would be in position to deliver the primary education service more effectively and appropriately, and to the satisfaction of the stakeholders. Unfortunately, this is/was not the case. The reality on the ground presents a different picture.

On the same note Okuni observed that school-based teacher support and continuous professional development in the region of East-Africa was being affected mainly by policies that were inconsistent with realities on the ground although the very policies were established with the intention of bettering primary education and its access. The introduction of 'free' and universal primary education (UPE); and the devolution of many functions and powers that had hitherto been performed by the central government to local governments units , under the Local Government Units Reform Programmes (LGRP). The two policy changes and reforms and other related regulations were intended to have far reaching implications for quality in primary education in general and for teacher education in particular. Decentralization was meant to be the means through which qualitative primary education under UPE was to be delivered. The overall aim of the two policy changes and reforms was to ensure that all children have equitable access to acceptable good-quality primary education where people/communities/stakeholders are given greater autonomy and liberty to manage their affairs. Unfortunately, government-aided primary schools are facing numerous challenges owing to the effects of UPE policy changes as school management and administration has become a nightmare, teachers are increasingly demoralized, community members/parents are confused as they have instead been disempowered to reasonably facilitate their children's' education due to 'UPE politicking'. The greatest casualties in this saga are the learners who continue to miss-out on their education as they are subjected to under-dosages of desirable and qualitative primary education; and their parents and the community at large as their aspirations of enhancing future chances of success for their girls and boys are likely to be affected negatively as the quality of education their children are receiving is highly questionable. The local governments who were given the duty of managing and administering primary education through the decentralization policy seem not to have been prepared enough to shoulder the burden and related tasks of UPE (*Adapted from article 'Decentralizing and revitalizing School-based Teacher Support and Continuous Professional Development at Primary School Level: Why it has failed in East-Africa'*).

KCC as a local government is not spared in performing badly especially in the management of primary education in the city, despite AKF SIPs' support – and this could explain partly the prevailing environment regarding sustainability of the of SIPs achievements. Under KSIP, KCC was highly understaffed; there were only five Education Officers at the District (KCC) and one officer at each of the five divisions (where one division officer was in the acting capacity and he was the division's Trade Development Officer). This thin staff had no time and could not stretch and spread wide enough to be actively engaged (save officiating at special functions) with the SIPs activities. The SIPs activities were generally appreciated as "Aga Khan Project" by teachers, headteachers, officials and other stakeholders.

EUPEK/EUPEC inherited KSIP's challenges wholesomely. The interventions were continuously seen as "Aga Khan SIP". Efforts to bring KCC on board yielded minimal fruits as the technical staff continued to partially disown the project's activities despite supportive rhetoric at different functions and times. On the centrally, the political education leaders and the wider community were very supportive of the SIPs interventions. The politicians tried to make some decisions and were keen to translate the same into tangible actions however; their efforts seem to have been frustrated by forces beyond their capacities. It should also be noted that although the politicians were supportive, their support was inept as many education political leaders' (i.e. members of Education Committees) capacities and abilities were lacking to reasonably influence tangible decisions and actions. AKF SIPs experience was that Education Committees were largely composed of members who could not independently and logically present themselves, they could not effectively express themselves in English – this affected their ability to communicate. Many members were not well informed on relevant education policies and were not appropriately empowered and guided by the technical staff, this left them to be vulnerable and

ineffective. Similarly the School Management Committees members were equally ineffective; they could not effect any desirable change without the approval of the headteachers.

AKF SIPs advocacy approaches as opposed to tangible aid handout

DENIVA reports that with a few exceptions, people in local governments especially the technical staff perceive advocacy oriented CSOs negatively. NGOs that are popular are mainly those that contribute to the district budget or are generally engaged in service delivery/tangible aid handout and not advocacy. In otherworld LGs generally preferred service provision by NGOs with minimal questioning. DENIVA study indicates that CSOs understanding of advocacy centered on the narrow concept of corruption. The talk of corruption clearly dominates advocacy in LGs especially in the current era of decentralization. There were many allegations of CSOs witch-hunting stakeholders in LGs. When CSOs get involved in monitoring, officials are not willing to release information. These officials perceive CSOs as interfering in their work. Similarly, KCC was more ready to receive donation aid especially in form of money and expected no serious demand for accountability. The SIPs were free to intervene as long as their activities never concerned about KCC's money and related expenditure and responsibility. This could be the explanation why AKF SIPs never knew at any one point funds available for education development at KCC. On a number of occasions POs/CDOs failed to extract accountability for resources extended to KCC on time and at times they failed totally. This scenario was also very notorious with headteachers. All headteachers were very welcoming whenever their schools were scheduled to receive some form of assistance, and were open with information regarding community participation. However when one wanted to know about the schools' general income and expenditures to enhance accountability and transparency, often headteachers were furious against the move; they were very skeptical and suspicious.

AKF SIPs' own noise/distortion

While KCC as a partner with AKF, in the struggle to improve primary education in the city, is in the limelight for failing to further the SIPs achievements, and therefore, failing to sustain the activities through scaling-up and mainstreaming as a basis for institutionalizing the intervention; AKF as a partner in development, seem to have its own share.

It might be reasonably said that the initial idea of the AKF SIPs in Uganda was primarily to improve their schools through addressing timely and appropriate pedagogies and practices that would facilitate qualitative teaching and learning; and the consequential SIPs were primarily meant to be experimental projects – where lessons would be learnt, good practices registered and shared with others. The notion of “sustainability” must have crept in at a later stage, and after realizing that the AKF SIPs require serious inputs in terms of physical resources and psycho-value preparedness to enhance sustainable quality. AKF is likely to have under looked the fact that for the SIPs interventions to survive the test of time, KCC the owners of the schools in Kampala would have been targeted with vigor and double efforts to motivate them to take on the SIPs. The SIPs entry point therefore, would have been the chief Administrative Officer (CAO) through the Education Department (DEO) down to schools and the community. Targeting the CAO and the DEO/DE would enforce the SIPs to sink downwards with an official and technical push embedded with authority. The two officials are the most critical individuals as far as sustaining interventions on education in KCC are concerned. As they implement policies made by policy makers, they are at the same time mandated to inform policy makers on the need for improvement, interpretations, and making new policies to operationalise the existing ones at Local Government levels. Their words and actions are authoritative and denote official stand – not a single technical personnel would have questioned the validity of the SIPs interventions when the guidance and directives of implementation were being derived from the CAO and the DEO. Not a single headteacher/class-teacher would have the moral authority or otherwise to challenge or question the SIPs activities as being added assignments, burden etc. KCC is known for lack of funds; however, if the CAO chose to support a cause out of

reasonable belief, and relating the interventions to his/her performance, the required funds would be somehow availed. Similarly, the DEO would fight for SIPs activities even where resources were meager. This type of support has been registered by the SIPs especially with the few non-government aided primary schools – where convinced proprietors and SMCs outwardly went out to support the interventions through budgetary provisions. It is also true that in schools (government-aided) where headteachers undoubtedly saw value for the SIPs, project interventions were a priority and were significantly evident. In Wakiso, where the DEO was the entry point, the department had on several occasions endeavored to include SIP (EUPEC) activities in the District annual budget plans. Further evidence from elsewhere suggests that stakeholders support for development intervention is forth coming once they see value for it and its relevance active participation and unconditional accountability.

The AKF inadvertently missed a golden opportunity for not involving KCC at the brainstorming and conception levels of KSIP. This would have given AKF the chance to listen and hear from the “horse’s mouth” defining their challenges and identifying possible clues to possible solutions. KCC as a central partner had the onus to contribute to the early understanding of the problem and to be party to the process of defining the problem. This way, KCC would have got the opportunity to understand the nitty-gritty of school improvement project designing, development, programming, implementation and management. Involving KCC at the earliest levels of project development would have minimized ill feelings and suspicion from KCC, and it would have facilitated genuine rapport and sustainable dialogue between the two partners. O emphasize this point, Anne Hope and Sally Timmel (1984) as alluded to by Kezaala (2004) in ‘Institutionalizing Rights in Development through Citizen Participation’ assert that building trust and dialogue in society cannot be done by pronouncements nor by some “magical waving wand”; participation means dialogue. Dialogue is based on the premise of stakeholders sharing their own perceptions of a problem, offering their opinions and ideas, and having the opportunity to make binding decisions or recommendations.

Another mishap was contained in the “tripartite agreement/MoU” which document most individuals at KCC outwardly showed discontent with especially some of its content which was seen to be very unrealistic to KCC. One intriguing provision to KCC was the idea that KCC would be contributing the biggest sum of money (to fund project activities) as the project progressed (EUPEC Exit and Implementation Strategy). This was not feasible to KCC which was evidently expressing shortages in its revenue base. It was also very unfortunate for the inclusion of a provision which categorically barred KCC to interface directly with donors. KCC officials wondered the logic behind this move. These and some other issues helped the development of KCC’s cold feet and not trusting their partners in some areas. AKF might have missed this opportunity which had direct consequences with sustainability of the SIPs achievements unwittingly. AKF would have engaged KCC, and worked with it to develop appropriate projects, and, give KCC the opportunity through training and exposure, to interface with donors so as to grasp donor language and philosophy. This way, KCC would have been highly motivated as they would be able to articulate issues of concern with relevant donors. This would also help KCC to know different approaches different donors respect and the challenges therein.

For AKF to work effectively and empower KCC appropriately there was need for AKF to seriously study KCC’s culture (its composition and patterns, networks and relationships, organizational values, available resources – including the human resource and their management, communication systems and information flow, operations and related policies). Understanding KCC’s culture would have given AKF the opportunity to know the underlying factors and forces that move things at KCC.

John Madge in support of the culture approach to development claims that social customs, kinship systems, artifacts, are no longer regarded by them as individual features to be torn from their cultural context:

'A culture, like an individual is a more or less consistent pattern of thought and action. Within each culture there come into being characteristic purposes not necessarily shared by other types of society. In obedience to these purposes, each people further and further consolidates its experiences, and in proportion to the urgency of these drives the heterogeneous items of behavior take more congruous shape. Taken up by a well-integrated culture, the most ill-assorted acts become characteristic of its peculiar goals, often by the most unlikely metamorphoses. The form that these acts take we can understand only by understanding first the emotional and intellectual mainsprings of society'.

This is a very reasonable statement, neglect of which would be very futile. Moreover, there is ample evidence that those who approach the study of human relations from this point of view gain greatly in wealth of understanding. The culture concept is a tool of the utmost importance (adapted from: *The Tools of Social Science* 1953; 26/27). {Basing on this analogy, we may wish to pose some questions; did AKF Consider deeper understanding of underlying factors/facts at play at KCC (Education Department)? Did AKF try deliberately to study the operations of KCC and to understand patterns of work and relations their in? Were there any efforts by AKF to seek information and clarity on the entire culture of behavior/conduct especially regarding funds and field activities? Did AKF seek corporation and collaboration and support from KCC regarding the SIPs before their designing, developing, and implementing? Were there facts and generalizations presented to stakeholders after rigorous attempt to portray the cultural unity of KCC? What kind of hypotheses did AKF try to test regarding sustainable development and ownership of the SIPs by KCC? Is there evidence that at one point in time KCC reasonably claimed ownership of the SIPs?

It may be unfair to ask AKF such questions knowing very well that their SIPs were virtually experiments, and that KCC never deliberately invited AKF to come to their support although on the other hand KCC never rejected the intervention outwardly. Nevertheless sooner or later it will be necessary for interveners and development partners to determine the inherent values, and limitations of this line of approach especially when targeting organized and complex systems like KCC.

The discourse of resistance to change

Needles to say, many people fear change. People develop their cultures and traditions so tightly that they find it difficult to simply abandon them to go for the new trumped up change. The fear to embrace the unknown and the challenges involved with side effects that come with change is a very strong element that cements resistance to change. Change is feared for a number of reasons; the elite fear to lose out on their status in the new developments. The subordinates are threatened to lose their serfdom and provisions from their masters etc. Resistance becomes the only logical fight against perceived imbalances, injustices and threats.

Juliet Perumal (*in a paper addressing students resistance to radical feminist ideologies; SARE Journal; vol. 11 2005*) alluding to Finke (1993) suggests that teaching [*inculcating change*] is a practice which proceeds not progressively through time, but through resistance, regressions, leaps, breakthroughs, discontinuities, and deferred action. Gore (2002) contends that where there is an emphasis on the formation of radical understandings, normalization will be a dominant technique, and there is likely to be some resistance by students (stakeholders targeted for change). Foucault (1980) also cautions that radical educators (change agents) may experience resistance to the techniques and knowledge that they seek to promote.

In conformity to Foucault's assertion, Willis (1977) and Giroux (1983) argue that the concept of resistance emphasise human agency, in the sense that individuals are not simply acted upon by social structures, but actively subvert and struggle against imposed social meanings and forms

of socialization to create their own meanings. Layder (1993) distinguishes among five types of stakeholders' resistance; collective; individual; non-cooperation; escape/avoidance; and concealment.

For purposes of achieving the objectives for this paper, we draw inference to four paradigms of stakeholders' resistance as identified by Perumal (These paradigms are very characteristic of KCC's resistance to own up the AKF SIPs despite the 15 years input both in quantitative terms in form of resources, and in qualitative terms regarding professional and technical values and ideals) .i.e.

- **Denial**

Some senior officials deny that they were not involved in the entire design and development of the projects; that they were only called upon to rubber-stamp and drum up support for the projects

- **Discounting**

Some officials claim that the SIPs although are ideally good, they are meant for slow learners and are not suitable in an examination oriented education system like this of ours. They also claim that most classroom level activities under the SIPs are more suitable for early-childhood education and the lower/infant primary (from primary/standard 1 to 4) and not for the upper part of the school (primary/standard 5 to 7). This feeling is also shared by many teachers especially those teacher the upper classes and their Headteachers.

- **Distancing**

In some instances some officials at KCC saw SIP activities as very school-based that required more of the Centre Coordinating Tutors (CCTs) than KCC officials. Often there were also significant stand-offs between administration and inspectorate as to who should be directly answerable to SIP activities.

- **Expressing dismay**

On a number of times Education Officials at KCC expressed concern that the SIPs activities are heavily financed by AKF which money was not readily available at KCC. They also concurred with the school level counterparts that SIPs activities are very intensive and that they require more time to plan and implementing – meaning extra load of work yet they are already heavily loaded and with extras. In these circumstances officials and teachers expressed a sense of hopelessness and helplessness and admitted to be de-motivated instead.

Recommendations and conclusion

For purposes of this paper, the author makes five basic recommendations. The recommendations are neither magic wands nor are they mathematical formulas for mathematical solutions, however, they are deemed to be practical in respect to what this paper has been able to reflect on; and they are worth pursuing especially now that there are changes at KCC as a result of the introduction of the Kampala Capital City Authority (KCCA) under an Executive City Director as the accounting officer.

1. For any individual or group, to successfully work with KCC especially with the desire to sustain outside supported development interventions spearheaded by NGOs or the wider private sector, the need to understand the operations and paradigms of work at KCC, is not only reasonably essential, but it is a must, and a necessary undertaking.

2. One will realize that KCC is a local government and as such, a structured and cooperate body which has a formal leadership; technically, KCC/KCCA is under the leadership of the City Executive Director (CED) as the overall accounting officer – as a matter of reality and necessity the CED must be on board the intervention. In case of SIPs, the CED must officially acknowledge the role of the DEO, and, the DEO must be obliged to report back periodically to the CED
3. SIPs interventions must be led by the DEO and other support personnel. Any SIP staff i.e. POs, CDOs, Researchers etc, must be seen by school level staff as part of KCC, although SIP staff would be required to press for accountability regarding field activity and performance. SIPs activities should be an integral part of the DEO's activities.
4. KCC (DEO) should be encouraged to identify, name, and define their need, and participate very actively in the process of designing and developing the project/ intervention. KCC must take lead in choosing the intervention model, but of course, with reasonable input from the SIPs experts.
5. KCC (DEO) as a local government should be empowered to undertake research to inform desired interventions. Study findings in form of reports will go a long way to provide initial data on the prevailing need(s) – this way, KCC would be in position to provide relevant clues to any development partner interested in working with them (KCC). Research will also be very helpful in the process of making critical decisions and prioritizing.
6. Donors/Partners in Development should strictly “walk their talk”. Calling for accountability is synonymous with transparency. As Donors/Partners in Development demand accountability and transparency from stakeholders, the opposite is also very true; they should be transparent to enhance accountability. This will go a long way to facilitate trust thereby minimizing suspicion from both ends. They should lead by example.

In conclusion, we allude to Gisela Konopka claims that a professional effort means translation of thought into action, and the conversion of highly complicated knowledge into seemingly effortless doing. Knowledge and skills are constantly in the state of development. To stress the point, Konopka quotes O. Meredith Wilson [A message from the President: The Minnesotan, XIV, 1, 1960, 2] thus ‘the best of us, however vigorous our search for truth, will always leave at the outer reaches, frayed edges of knowledge or uncertainty grasped truths, and will at the last recognize how true it is that our greatest contribution to and through education is in the excitement and development of students (hence, KCC as stakeholders and therefore those targeted for change), who become equally interested in the search or truth, can complete what we imperfectly initiated (as such, KCC is expected to further the interventions and improve on them)’. Individuals at KCC who benefitted from AKF SIPs should prudently endeavor to play their roles and fulfill their duties in respect of sustaining the interventions.

Mary Parker Follet [The New State, 4th Edition, NY, 1934,342] claims that ‘the great cosmic force in the womb of humanity is latent in the group as its creative energy; that it may appear the individual must do his duty every moment. We do not get the whole power of the group unless every individual is given full value, is giving full value’. Those individuals (at KCC) who attest to benefiting from SIPs should as a matter of prudence try to keep the burner beaming – perhaps, others will pick from there (adapted from Gisela Konopka’s Social Group Work – A Helping Hand, 2nd Edition, 1972).

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INTERNET FOR ENHANCEMENT OF BORDERLESS EDUCATION: MEDIA OWNERSHIP, PREVIOUS EXPERIENCE AND FIELD OF STUDY IN KYAMBOGO UNIVERSITY.

Ndawula Stephen (PhD)

**Lecturer, Educational Communication and Technology
Lecturer and Researcher, Kyambogo University**

P.O. Box 1, kyambogo, Uganda
stendawula@yahoo.com

Ngobi Henry David (M.Ed)

Lecturer, Educational Technology, Kyambogo University

davidngobi@yahoo.co.uk

Abstract

Until recently, university students were still physically confined to traditional educational technologies such as chalkboards, papers and text books. The advent of the Internet has led to 'borderless education' where students are no longer physically bound to sources that are close by, but can easily get global exposure through surfing, downloading and obtaining electronic materials. Students' use of technology in a university should be explored since it is difficult for management to know if the needs are met effectively. This study was conducted in Kyambogo University, Uganda to explore the impact of Media ownership, Previous Experience and Field of study on students' use of Internet. Stratified random sampling technique was used to pick three hundred fifty (350) undergraduate students, randomly selected to constitute the sample. Data was collected using a questionnaire, and analyzed descriptively using SPSS version 12.0 for frequencies, means, standard deviation and cross tabulation. The results indicated that there were significant relationships among Media ownership, Previous Experience and Field of study and students' use of Internet. It was recommended that; free Internet access be provided to students at the university, students taking ICT classes be helped to purchase personal computers at subsidized prices and the university to enlarge the Information Technology Center to cater for students' needs.

Background

The school curricula in Uganda today have undergone reforms and modernization in line with the Government White Paper on Education (GWPE, 1992). Educational media has been strengthened to meet the demands and expectations of education. Higher education is being challenged by new opportunities relating to technologies that are improving the ways in which

knowledge is accessed by students. Using technology to enhance student learning in universities has become an important area for discussion and study within the field of educational technology. Information and communication technology (ICT) devices are recently emerging technologies that have now become integral to school system (Mukwa et al, 2008; Crowe, A., et al 2006 and UNESCO, 2000).

Uganda developed its initial ICT national policy in 2003 (Infodev et al, 2007). The policy framework document that delineated the need for a national ICT policy recognized that Uganda would need to embrace the goal of lifelong education for all. One of the recommendations that was implemented early in 2006 resulted into the founding of a Ministry of ICT to address the convergence of ICT and to provide coordination of policy development (Guyana, 2006). New media for providing quality educational materials was realized in response.

Uganda's capital, Kampala once served as a key center of the East African posts and telecommunications. At present, relative peace and radical economic reforms have transformed Uganda into one of the fastest-growing economies on the continent. As early as 1999 Uganda became the first country on the continent where the number of mobile subscribers passed the number of fixed-line users, with the ratio of more than 18:1. Uganda has been one of the first countries in sub-Saharan Africa to gain full Internet connectivity (infoplease, 2008). The role of the telecom operator and mobile networks in the country has modernized the telecoms sector. Major initiatives have been launched to bring telecommunication services and response rate the Internet to rural areas of the country.

Internet bandwidth in Uganda has experienced a rapid growth over the last two years in terms of number of service providers. By 2008, there were three main Internet Service Providers namely MTN, UTL and Infocom (My Uganda Country Portal, 2008). Expansion of Internet infrastructure is still limited with most concentration placed in the capital, Kampala, where the operators are guaranteed a steady market due to tourists, entrepreneurs and other interested parties (Kaggwa, 2000). In the upcountry, Communication by Internet has also increased with the Uganda Communication Commission Rural Communication development Fund (RCDF). In 2006, the government of the Republic of Uganda, through the Ministry of ICT drafted a national ICT policy for the education sector. Figure 1.4 is a summary of Internet usage and population statistics of Uganda for the years 2000, 2006, 2007 and 2008:

Uganda Internet Usage and Population Statistics:

YEAR	Country's Total Population	Users
2000	24,400,000	40,000
2006	28,574,909	500,000
2007	30,262,610	750,000
2008	31,367,972	2,000,000
2010	33,398,682	3,200,000

Source ITU <http://www.internetworldstats.com/af/ug.htm> Uganda Statistics from the World Bank

According to the information provided in the figure above, Uganda Internet Usage, Broadband and Telecommunications- UIUBT reports 3,200,000 Internet users as of March, 2010; 9.6% of the population (UITU, 2010).

In Uganda, universities have made advanced development in the provision of Internet resources (Computer Frontiers International –CFI Uganda, Makerere University, 2004). Some public universities have full-Internet access to most of their premises that are accessible to both faculty and students on the campus in a sustainable manner. In Makerere University a network was commissioned in 2001 to serve 20,000 students. This was accomplished through coordinating with the existing faculties, and creating a networking infrastructure, where none had existed – not even a common phone system, throughout the university. A network operating center has been installed with its own clean power source, back-up generator, air-conditioning, modem bank, servers and routers for provision of Internet service for 20,000 students (CFI Uganda, 2004).

The Internet in KYU

Kyambogo University is the second largest University in the country, established on 18th July 2003 as a Public University by merging three institutes namely; Institute of Teacher Education Kyambogo (ITEK), Uganda Polytechnic Kyambogo (UPK) and the Uganda National Institute of Special Education (UNISE). It is located on Kyambogo Hill in Kampala District (KYU, 2006). KYU's vision is: "To be a center of academic and professional excellence," while her Mission is: "To advance and to promote knowledge and development of skills in Science, Technology and Education, and in such other fields having regard to quality, equity, progress and transformation of society" (www.kyambogo.ac.ug). The University has a total of six Faculties divided into 27 Departments, with 402 teaching staff and 625 non-teaching staff. The University student enrolment includes Postgraduate, Undergraduate, Diploma and Certificate totaling to about 16,547 students (KYU, 2010).

Working in close collaboration with the Ministry of Education, KYU provides Internet services to students so as to increase their capacity to incorporate the resource in their academic activities. The university has also developed a Web presence for regular students and the affiliated teachers' colleges. KYU is committed to continue providing computer training and completing the digitization of the online curriculum (Connect-ed, 2004).

A new dimension was experienced into the KYU teaching programs in 2001: the reviving of the ICT projects. In partnership with the Ministry of Education and Sports, KYU owns some ICT academic projects: the 'ICT-Based Educational Content', 'ICT Basic Training' and the 'Connect-ED' projects. These projects took off in November 2001, and are supported by IICD, USAID and the UK Department for International Development (DFID). The Kyambogo University - also one of IICD's national training partners - is a training institute for teachers at various educational levels in the country. In addition, it undertakes specialized training in other programs such as Business Studies, Management, Art & Design and Home Economics.

The Internet-Based Educational Content projects aim at producing ICT-based teaching resources for students at the University. KYU avails e-teaching resources on a website and Intranet web servers (CONNECT-ED, 2006). Its sister project, 'ICT Basic Training', aims to equip lecturers with ICT skills they can transmit, impart knowledge to students and to foster learning. This is achieved by ensuring the spreading of basic training in the Internet use and benefits in educational institutions countrywide. The ICT projects in KYU have facilitated the establishment of labs with a considerable number of computers with wireless connections to the Internet. Equipment for the development of educational CD-ROMs have already been acquired (Kawesa, 2006). KYU has started by training staff members from her departments in the skills required to use computer applications and produce content. This has been covered in intensive three-week training programs.

In KYU, computer laboratories with Internet providers have been established to assist in students' training and Internet connectivity within the university and some affiliated Primary Teacher Colleges. As a multi-faceted strategy to increase the access to and use of Internet Connectivity by education stakeholders in Uganda, Connect-ED has introduced the integration

of computers into the teaching methods and provide capacity building to PTC administrators, tutors, pre-service and in-service teachers and application in KYU (CONNECT-ED, 2006).

Connect-ED has assisted in developing curriculum for PTCs and web-based teaching modules that support the national curriculum. Chavez (1997) argues that Internet and computer usage impacts positively on critical thinking, problem solving, prompt feedback and collaborative instruction. On this note, KYU provides Internet services to students so as to increase their capacity to incorporate the resource in classroom practice. For most of its existence, the Internet in KYU is primarily for the above mentioned academic related activities. The university keeps on upgrading her Web presence and digitization of the online curriculum (Connect-Ed, 2004).

In 2007 KYU achieved another progress in Internet use; Internet supported distance learning. This was initiated as an effort of the Open, Distance and e-Learning (ODeL). This is a Centre in KYU that manages and administers the Bachelor of Education Degree program through a blended Distance Mode. Instruction is by the use of e-learning materials; e-mail, Telephone (through on-line); with limited face-to-face, print materials and assignments. ODeL as a new approach to distance education in KYU underpins borderless education by assisting students who are willing to study, but when at their homes. (The New Vision, October 2007).

ODeL is funded by The AVU with the sponsorship from the African Development Bank (ADB). KYU began this Internet supported distance teacher education program for in-service student teachers together with other 10 universities across Africa (Gabona, 2008). These countries include Kenya, Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe, Mozambique, Madagascar, Senegal, Ethiopia, Uganda and Somalia. The first subjects taught under the program are Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, Biology and Information Communication Technology. The ODeL centre has set up a satellite station at Kyambogo for on-line communication.

The concept of borderless education

Borderless education refers to developments outside the traditional borders of education (Observatory Reports, 2002). The Internet appears particularly pertinent to Borderless Education. Particularly, this is a universal system which makes physical and national boundaries less meaningful and thus provides unrestricted information to all users. With the coming of global communication, the Internet opens many opportunities for improving educational information. The Internet has the potential to cross the traditional borders in the academia; geographical, conceptual, national, organizational, time and space. The Internet as simply a network of hundreds of thousands of computers all over the World, connected in a way that lets other computers access information on them (Usun, 2003); hence a typical representation of borderless communication. Internet use is on increase in universities as a tool of searching academic information. With the Internet, students are no longer physically bound to sources that are close by, but can easily search, download and obtain electronic materials, irrespective of the geographical proximity.

Problem statement

In KYU the Internet due to its nature, is meant to enhance borderless education; it is fast, cuts across all sorts of boundaries and flexible while allowing both students and lecturers the luxury of communication with each other from any location. However, students at KYU have tended to react with ambivalence to this new technology; seemingly due to some factors with the Internet, resulting into low levels of utilization. On one hand, they tend to preserve the benefits related to the traditional (non-electronic) classroom learning; whilst may as well feel increasing pressure to experiment with the Internet. Factors to any new technology need to be established since it is difficult for universities to know if they are meeting the needs of students effectively (OECD,

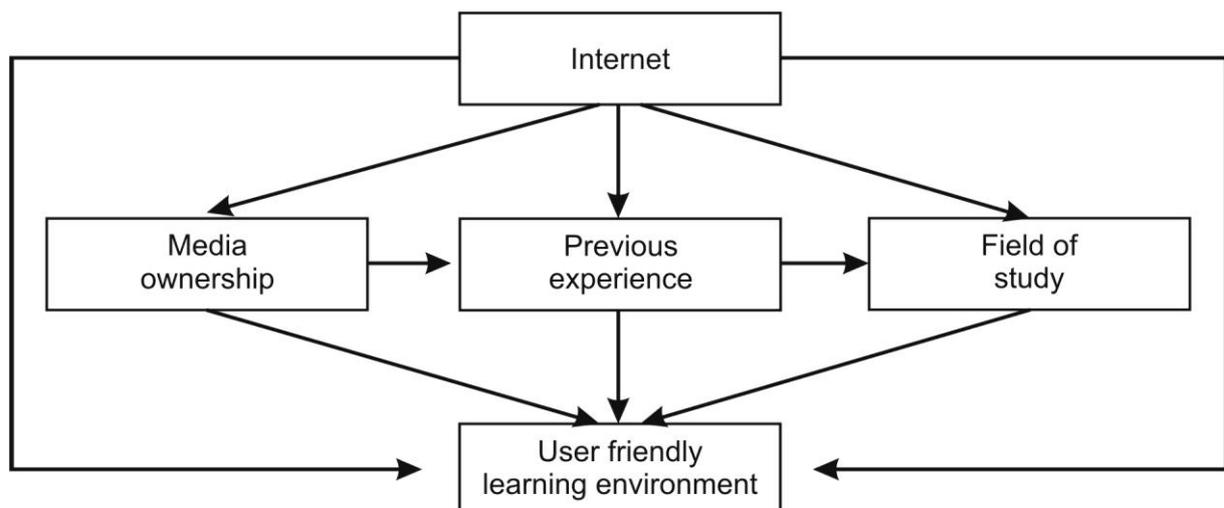
2005). It is against the aforementioned concern that this study attempted to explore students' use of the Internet in enhancing borderless education.

Conceptual framework and literature of study

While the learning benefits of the Internet are widely recognized by academics and practitioners alike, the context in which students operate often affects their use of the technology. This study established the impact of Media ownership, previous experience and field of study on students' use of internet. To some students in KYU internet is a recent ingredient in the curriculum whose user factors deserve a thorough exploration. A conceptual framework of the user factors according to (Slate et al, 2002, Comber et al., 1997 and Coley at el, 1997) that guided literature of the study. The literature in this study was based on three attributes for examining Internet user factors among students. The attributes were:

- Media ownership
- Previous Experience
- Field of Study

Researcher's conceptual framework



Media ownership

Media ownership implies the possession of computers by students/ users. Students who have personal computers tend to develop more Internet knowledge and confidence (Coley at el, 1997). A Personal Computer, for instance, increases the user opportunities to access the Internet for academic purposes. Students without personal computers are disadvantaged in the current technology-based education.

According to the National Telecommunications and Information Administration report (U.S. Department of Commerce, 2002), between 1998 and 2001, students who have personal computers, were more likely to be frequent users of Internet than their counterparts without PC, and dwelling in rural areas. In the 50 states, the poor and minority students in rural areas were already falling behind their counterparts in wealthier schools, although the ratio of students to

instructional computers was higher in schools with the highest poverty concentration than in schools with the lowest poverty concentration (NCES, 2005). Students from families who cannot afford personal computers face hard times catching up in tomorrow's technological job market. According to Becker (2000), e-media experience among the students indicates an overwhelming 93% of college learners using their personal computers for e-mails.

The convenience of having personal computers by students in a setting quieter than a university computer lab, also contributes to the heavy Internet use. At higher education students value their privacy and prefer using computers they own, in private, to ones in campus labs where the computer monitor is readily visible to others (Coley et al, 1997).

Previous experience

Students who have prior computer training stand high chances of using the Internet. Computer use contributes to high levels of Internet confidence, (Ayersman et al, 1995 and Hakkinen, 1994). Having insufficient operational skills of a given technology retards students' positive attitudes and consequently failure in use. Students' participation of the Internet is facilitated by positive attitudes towards computers. Students who have prior experience with computers are in better position to use sophisticated techniques for searching information than those who have not (Pennanen et al, 2003).

Students who have prior computer training stand high chances of using the Internet and usually have more favorable attitudes towards their use. They easily use the gadgets as a means of obtaining information suitable for academic needs. Such students can obtain contemporary materials from the Internet. The same type of students can also cite more course literature sources from the 'net' than those who have no prior computer training. The more the positive attitudes students have towards the computer, the longer they stay surfing the Internet. Previous Computer experience affects user attitudes towards the Internet (Yi-wen, 2000).

Among KYU students, it is easier to proceed using media that are familiar than learning how to adopt techniques that rely on unfamiliar technology and to develop new production skills. The diversity of media used for academic purposes, may be constrained due to a lack of familiarity with relatively complicated skills required.

Field of study

Field of study constitutes the learners' areas of specialization at university. The two broad fields of study in this research are the ICT-Based (IB) courses and Non ICT-Based (NIB) courses. Students' field of study influences functions and methods used with Internet. In some fields of study the subjects give chance of training in computer use; and hence the level of implementation of among students will automatically differ (Hong et al, 2003). In higher education academics, there are students obliged to regularly use the ICT into their courses. A computer obviously becomes a main medium necessary for implementation of an academic program.

Students' uses of Internet tend to differ from subject to subject or faculty to faculty. Bates (1996)'s investigation on the information-seeking behaviors of arts subjects reveal that students shun using computer Database. On the other hand, as the number of science students using computers rises higher, there are kinds of software packages that necessitate students to refer to the Internet most frequently.

As higher education in Uganda is evolving from the use of traditional to e- media, a study of an examination of students' use of internet is crucial since little research has been done concerning this area. Comparatively few studies have examined perhaps equally important, attributes in the developing world (Makewa, 2008; Callinan, 2004; Ojedokun et al, 2003; Ojedokun, 2001).

From the foregoing literature, it is evident that the Internet has added a new dimension to educational communication and technology throughout the world; a contributory aspect to borderless education. No doubt, the Internet is a powerful addition to the information resources universities have. This study is therefore timely since it assesses Media ownership, previous experience and field of study as impacting factors to students' use of internet.

Study hypothesis

This study also employed the following hypothesis.

H01 There is no significant relationship between Media ownership and students' use of the Internet.

H02 There is no significant relationship between Previous Experience and students' use of the Internet.

H03 There is no significant relationship between Field of study and students' use of Internet.

Methodology

Sample

In this study, final year undergraduate students in KYU were identified as potential members of the sample, and this was because;

- In KYU, it is at the final year level that the curriculum has fully covered tasks requiring use of electronic media (KYU, 2007).
- Final year students have had longer experience working with the electronic media than any other academic years.
- It was evident basing on the university teaching time table that final year students unlike other levels, have more lessons in a week, working with electronic media

A total of three hundred and fifty students (350) who were randomly selected constituted a sample for the entire study.

Questionnaire

A questionnaire was used for all of respondents for data collection in this study. The questionnaire had three sections developed according to the three independent variables as reflected in the objectives of the study, namely; Media ownership, previous experience and field of study. In all, 36 items were used to examine students' use of the Internet.

Independent variables on the questionnaire

1.	Media Ownership	With PC
		Without PC
2.	Previous Experience	With Prior experience
		Without Prior experience
3	Field of study (Faculty)	ICT-based courses
		Non ICT-based courses

Data collection with the questionnaires

To accomplish the objectives, the designed self-administered questionnaire was distributed to students.

Demographic information

The study concerned Media ownership, previous experience and field of study as the independent variables.

Summary of demographic characteristics of the students

Demographic characteristics of the students (N=280)

		N	%
Media Ownership	With PC	152	54%
	Without PC	128	46%
Previous Experience	With Prior experience	75	27%
	Without Prior experience	205	73%
Field of Study	ICT-based courses	140	50%
	Non ICT-based courses	140	50%

Three null hypotheses were employed and tested at the 0.05 α (alpha) levels, to find out if there is significant relationship between the Media ownership, previous experience and field of study and students' use of the Internet. Subsequently, the responses for each section were summed up to create an aggregate score for each respondent. The computation of a composite index emerging from the questionnaire items helped the researcher to establish whether there were significant mean variations in relation to each of the three independent variables.

- There is no significant relationship between Media ownership and students' use of Internet.

- There is no significant relationship between previous experience and students' use of the Internet.
- There is no significant relationship between field of study and students' use of Internet.

Statistical data analysis

Relationships between the independent variables and responses to the items were explored using a t-test. A t-test was regarded most suitable since the study involved an evaluation of differences in means between two groups for each hypothesis. For instance, Media ownership had candidates with and without PCs, while field of study comprised of ICT-based and non ICT-based courses. In such a scenario, a-test was most appropriate for comparing mean (Wong et al, 2007). Inferential statistics were calculated with the aid of SPSS version 12, which reports exact P values; hence a P value of less than 0.05 was interpreted as significant. Higher scores represented greater agreement with each statement. With the variables and the statement responses, a total of thirty six entries were made for each questionnaire. This process was accomplished in order to assess the dimensions of students' use of the Internet.

Findings and discussions

The presentation of data and analysis was organized according to the hypotheses one after the other.

There is no significant relationship between owning a personal computer and students' use of Internet.

To test this hypothesis, data were collected basing on items in section one of the survey tool. This section of the tool contained 12 items concerning the relationship between owning a personal computer and students' use of technology.

Relationship between having a personal computer and use of Internet

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-statistic	df	p-value
Yes	152	24.2500	3.16699	2.817	278	.005
No	128	23.2656	2.57940			

Students who own computers had higher means for all sub-scales than those who do not own computers at home. According to t-test results that were done for having a personal computer among respondents; as indicated above, the p-value is lower than the standard value that is, $0.05 > 0.005$. The results show that respondents who owned personal computers had higher mean score than those without. This therefore, suggests that there was a significant relationship between owning a personal computer and students' use of the Internet. The study therefore rejects the hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between having a personal computer and students' use of e-learning media.

In support of this finding, Olsen, (2000) also contends that owning a personal computer improves on students' of the Internet. Kent at el's (2005) study also reports clear differences among students and ownership of personal computers. Computer ownership among students was reported by Kent's study to be 96%. According to Bandura (1986) the learning environment of students influences their learning outcomes. A good quality learning environment impacts on students' academic achievement and learning effectiveness.

Interviews with students also revealed that students who had personal computers tended to hold more positive attitudes about the Internet facilities at Kyambogo University than those who did not have. These students felt that they were at an advantage because they were able to search information from anywhere Internet was available, using personal laptops without traveling long distances. One student, who lived far from KYU felt that not having a personal computer was a disadvantage and had this to say:

I usually have to travel a long distance from the hostel to the department computer laboratory to access free Internet. At times, I fail when the department lab is out of use, or when lectures are going on. If I had my own laptop, I would be surfing even in night hours when the internet tends to be less congested.

Some students without personal computers are at a disadvantage for Internet-based tasks and miss out on tremendous educational opportunities (Usun, 2003). Students whose families cannot afford personal computer undergo challenges of how to catch up with the technology.

There is no significant relationship between previous experience with computers and attitudes towards use of Internet

To test this hypothesis, data was collected basing on items in section two of the questionnaire. The survey contained 12 items concerning the relationship between having prior computer skills and students' use of Internet. Students' views in relation to the questionnaire items concerning the influence having prior computer skills on use of Internet are shown.

Relationship between prior computer skills and use of Internet

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-statistic	df	p-value
Yes	75	21.2933	5.56964	5.263	278	.000
No	205	17.9073	4.44092			

According to t-test results that were done for having prior computer skills among respondents; as indicated in table above, the p-value is lower than the pre-determined level of significance, (0.05 > 0.000). The results show that respondents who have prior computer skills are having higher mean score in attitudes than those without. This implies significant differences between the means at 0.05 level of significance. There was a significant relationship between having prior computer skills and respondents' use of Internet.

The interviews carried out also do support the findings of the questionnaires where students doing ICT related courses had higher means than those in non ICT related programs. In most cases, the students who were interviewed felt that the importance of subject combination should not be underestimated. Success in utilization in their opinion was due to the nature of subject combination. Some of the students who were interviewed also felt that their syllabus and time table provided more room for use of ICT.

Most students who were interviewed felt that the Internet available at their faculties made their studying at the university more enjoyable, particularly with respect to supplementing lecture notes and accessing information for research project. One student from an ICT related course was quite explicit about the role of Internet in his learning stating:

My course content guides me on how to search and find pretty good sources. It's up to yourself if you can pick and choose. Some of my sources are from famous search engines on the net. They are trustworthy and you know what types of sources they are. A big percentage of the software you find on the ICT is all necessary for my syllabus.

By this study indeed, it is no longer an assumption but the findings have evidently indicated that students' field of study is an impacting element on Internet usage and engagement in Kyambogo University. Interview results of this study further support the argument that ICT experience gained from undergoing a course can affect the user attitudes. The nature of the course impacts on skillfulness and frequency in use of the Media.

The study therefore rejects the null hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between having prior computer skills and students' use of Internet. It is against the above finding that the study concludes that the KYU students' use of Internet is dependent on having prior computer skills. In agreement with the above finding, Luan et al, (2005) and Rugayah et al (2004) also argue that students' use of the internet is highly dependent on having prior computer skills. It is widely assumed that participation of students with the Internet is hampered by their negative attitudes towards computers, which in turn is a consequence of their meager skills in computer use. Accordingly, students who have prior computers skills stand better chances since they can use advanced methods for finding information than those without.

Relationship between field of study and students' use of Internet

To test the third hypothesis, data were collected basing on items in section three of the questionnaire. The survey contained 12 items concerning the relationship between the field of study and students' use of Internet. A t-test was used to determine if there was a significant relationship between field of study and use of Internet. User differences were based on students' field of study which was either humanities or sciences. The findings are presented in table

Relationship between field of study and use of Internet

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-statistic	df	p-value
ICT-based	140	17.9143	3.74259	3.171	278	.002
Non-ICT based	140	16.4929	3.75796			

The means of the responses by the students towards questions based on their fields of study were tested by using a t-test method. One hundred and forty (140) respondents from IB courses and another one hundred and forty (140) respondents from NIB courses had means of 17.9143 and 16.4929 respectively. The t-test revealed a p-value of .002 and a t-value of 3.0171 degrees of freedom. Since the p-value of 0.002 is less than 0.05, the alpha level of significance, the findings show that field of study has a significant effect on students' the use of Internet. According to the data in the table, Internet was more used by IB students than their counterparts in NIB.

The interviews carried out also do support the findings of the questionnaires where students doing ICT related courses had higher means than those in non ICT related programs. In most cases, the students who were interviewed felt that the importance of subject combination should not be underestimated. Success in utilization in their opinion was due to the nature of subject combination. Some of the students who were interviewed also felt that their syllabus and time table provided more room for use of ICT.

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Students' field of study influences their use of the Internet and the methods they use to find the necessary information. In the fields that offer subjects that do give chance of training in computer use; there is a high level of implementation of Internet among students (Hong et al, 2003). To realize the significance of field of study among the undergraduates, research question three was formulated.

This finding rhymes with Hong et al (2003) report of higher measures of Internet use and perceived value among mathematicians. Science related courses tend to give chance of training in computer; and hence different levels of implementation of Internet among students observed. To acknowledge the significance of Internet in higher education academics, students need to regularly use the technology into their academic tasks (Junni, 2007). By this study indeed, it is evident that students' field of study is an impacting element on Internet usage.

Summary of the findings

The following are the findings from the study:

1. There is significant relationship between having a personal computer and students' use of Internet.
2. There is significant relationship between having prior computer skills and students' use of Internet.
3. There is significant relationship between fields of study and students' use of Internet.

Conclusion

- The first hypothesis in this study concerned the relationship between having a personal computer and students' use of the Internet was tested. Here, a significant relationship between having a personal computer and students' use of the Internet was realized. The

hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between having a personal computer and students' use of the Internet was therefore rejected. It can be concluded that owning a personal computer impacts on using the Internet. Having personal computers increase students' access to the Internet; and students with them tend to have positive attitudes towards the technology.

- Relationship between students' previous computer experience and use of Internet was verified. After testing the hypothesis, students who had prior computer skills reported higher confidence in Internet use than their counterparts without prior skills. Students with prior computer skills stand better opportunities; and can use superior techniques for surfing the Net than those without. As Pennanen et al (2003) suggested, it can be concluded that that having prior computer skills significantly impacts on students' use of the Internet.
- Field of study was found to be impacting on students' use of Internet. Students from the science related disciplines were found to be more users of e-technology as opposed to their counterparts from the humanities. For that reason it was concluded that KYU students' use of Internet is dependent on field of study. This could stem from the fact that students from ICT-based courses tend to use Internet to accomplish a wide range of academic tasks more than their counterparts from the non ICT-based courses. According to Kerins et al (2004) and Saunders et al (2004), ICT-based course students tend to prepare course assignments, make study notes, tutor themselves with specialized multimedia, and process data for research projects. Most exchange e-mails with faculty, peers, and remote experts.

Recommendations

This study contributes much to providing a baseline evidence to monitor circumstances surrounding e- media, and in particular the Internet in the developing world. Basing on the findings and conclusions of this study, the following recommendations are made:

1. It is worth noting here that one very important factor in this study is the issue of computer ownership. Computer ownership is one of the variables that many researchers have intensively investigated and found to be a significant factor that influences Electronic media use. For that matter, at higher education there is need to devise a policy in which students are provided with a personal computer at subsidized prices. Students' loan schemes can also be initiated to enable students acquire personal computers.
2. For Internet to be widely used in classrooms, KYU management should first orient students develop positive attitudes toward the e-technology. University students as ardent users of ICT have to meet the challenge of demonstrating more acceptable, useful and affordable ways of integrating ICT into traditional face-to-face courses. The use of ICT based materials by students enhances academic performance and achievement (Mukwa et al, 2008).
3. Further, much of the hesitancy about Internet use among students is due to lack of previous experience with ICT tools. Secondary schools can equip their students with online academic materials or ICT hardware to prepare them for adaptation of ICT at university.
4. A need to protect students should be considered. Much as the Internet can revolutionize education by giving students the opportunity to indulge their intellectual curiosity and explore the academic world, it can also expose them to obscene, violent or inappropriate content. And since the Internet is an unregulated global medium (borderless), it is hard to "censor" in any traditional way. KYU should make great strides in giving students more

control over what they can see and do on the Internet, through filtering software that blocks access to objectionable Web sites.

5. The borderless nature of the Internet compels the resource to disseminate information everywhere. The Uganda government and international bodies would work together to find appropriate ways of protecting the rights to intellectual property and against plagiarism of information around the world. Strong legislation such as the Digital Millennium Copyright Act (DMCA) and cooperation among publishers to ensure strong enforcement of international copyright laws can prevent or impose intellectual property.

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EDUCATION SYSTEM IN ZIMBABWE, 1890 - 2008: VICTIM OF OPPRESSIVE POLITICS OF INEQUALITY

POLITICS OF INEQUALITY IN EDUCATION

Jacob Marriote Ngwaru

(Ph.D.; Associate Professor) [Communicating author]

**Aga Khan University (AKU),
Institute for Educational development (IED), EAST AFRICA (EA)**

Salama House, 344 Urambo Street, P. O. Box 125, Dar-Es-Salaam, Tanzania
Tel: [+255 \(0\) 22 2152293](tel:+2550222152293); Fax: [+255 \(0\) 22 2150575](tel:+2550222150575); Email: marriote.ngwaru@aku.edu

Cathrine Ngwaru

The Great Zimbabwe University

P.O. Box 1235, Masvingo, Zimbabwe
cngwaru@yahoo.com

Abstract

Formal education plays a pivotal role in the dynamics of national and societal advancement. Good education empowers people and strengthens nations, the reason for which it is often manipulated by political establishments. In Zimbabwe, from colonial to post-colonial era, the education system was under colonial politics of discrimination influenced by the conservative elitism ideology. After independence, considerable changes were witnessed based on the ideology of democratic egalitarianism but subtle neo-colonial influences remained. At independence education was declared a universal human right and vehicle for social justice and transformation. About fifteen years into independence the education picture looked rosy on the surface: turning out the highest percentages per capita in Africa of Mathematics, Science and English graduates. This was however more of a political success as the country's economy only had the capacity to absorb ten per cent of the graduates. Not surprisingly social discontent grew leading to the stark unpopularity of the same government. The government responded viciously leading to the implosion of the economic, political and education systems. This paper traces how political influence shaped educational policies in Zimbabwe and concludes that education should be depoliticized and based on genuine long term national interests, growth and development. **Key Words:** education, politics of discrimination social justice, power and oppression, educational reform.

Introduction

This introductory outline of the country's demographic profile serves to situate and give a conceptual perspective to the context of the discussion especially because education is a social service. At the beginning of the twentieth century, the population of Zimbabwe is estimated to have been about six hundred thousand. At independence in 1980 it was estimated at about seven million (Zimbabwe Population and Social Indicators: <http://www.issafrica.org>). About 65 per cent of the population lived in rural areas, and the cities of Harare and Bulawayo account for most of the approximately 35 per cent in urban areas. The largest ethnic group is collectively known as the Shona and consists of the Karanga, Manyika, Zezuru, Korekore, Ndaou groups, which make up about seventy-six per cent of the population. The second largest ethnic group is the Ndebele, consisting of the Ndebele and Kalanga groups, constituting about 18 per cent. In 2003 the population of Zimbabwe was estimated at 12,891,000 (United Nations, 2005) making it number 67 among the 193 nations of the world at that time. In that year approximately 3 per cent of the population was 65 years old while 44 per cent were under 15 years of age. According to the UN the country's annual population growth rate for years 2000 – 2005 was 0.49 per cent with the projected population for the years 2015 at 13,031,000. Large urban settlements include the capital Harare with a population of 1,686,000 in 2001, Bulawayo the second largest with 621,000; Chitungwiza, 274,000; Mutare, 200,000; Gweru, 125,000; Kwekwe, 75,000; Kadoma, 67,000; Masvingo, 52,000. The growth in urban areas was 2.9 per cent (Zimbabwe Population, www.nationsencyclopedia.com/Africa/Zimbabwe-Population). Two factors of most significance here are, first, that 65 per cent of the population is rural and therefore does not ordinarily access most services associated with urban development such as gainful employment and good education and the second is that the largest population age band (44 per cent) is made up of the under -15 year olds – the group with the highest educational needs.

Education and society

Education has always played a pivotal role in national and societal development and has remained an important preoccupation of most functional governments at local and national levels. Ever since the inception of formal education, it has perhaps been one of the most important functions of state and local governments because of its pivotal role in national and societal advancement. It is not surprising that education has been subject to continual social and political scrutiny. Education in general is, in many cases, a major component of both national political party platforms and discussions at the local government levels because economic, bureaucratic and social democratic interests compete for the control of education reform. These three interests are linked to three competing ideologies in public education: liberal meritocracy, conservative elitism and democratic egalitarianism (Humphries, unpublished). In the context of the Zimbabwe colonial state, education became more negatively politicized because successive colonial governments always wanted to consider good quality education the prerogative of the few along racial lines consistent with the ideology of conservative elitism.

Society and education are tightly bound entities that cannot be separated from each other especially in the context of education shaping type of society and national political desires. The education system in Zimbabwe must always be understood within the context of historical colonialism based on the philosophies of oppression and subjugation. It must also be understood in the context that it became one of the major causes of political conflict between the colonial government and the majority population that resorted to armed struggle. While economic and social factors are often solely blamed for educational inequities, other factors also do affect education legislation, including public policy, public funding and local or micro politics. These are the factors that have always influenced the educational inequalities in Zimbabwe, especially the politics of inequality colonial and post-colonial. Public policy often has both positive and negative effects on education depending on the macro politics obtaining in a

country. Public funding for public schools and institutions of higher learning under normal political systems of governance is provided by the national government. In the context of Zimbabwe during colonialism however, education was used as a tool for blatant enduring oppression. This was repugnant, especially looked at after independence from the competing ideology of democratic egalitarianism where a high-quality education is viewed as both a universal right and a necessity for individual welfare.

After independence the education system swung on a pendulum of reforms targeting democratic egalitarianism. This however remained challenged by neo-colonial political influences and the system reflected liberal meritocracy, where only a section of the population derived maximum benefits. The democratization of education succeeded in increasing access but the curriculum remained largely academic and elitist, unable to sustainably benefit the majority of the populations living in rural areas and poor urban areas where schools. The academic curriculum requires adequate resources and well trained teachers to enable pupils to achieve good educational outcomes and these are always the weakest link in the rural areas. This paper discusses the ideologies of political oppression in education based on public policies, unequal sector funding and racial separation that characterized Zimbabwe during and after colonization for over a hundred years. The central theme is colonial and neo-colonial politics of oppression transcending historical political epochs revealing the dominant human propensity for inequality.

Colonization and early separate education

A brief outline of the colonization and education of the Zimbabwean people will start from how the country was subjugated at the close of the nineteenth century. The Shona and Ndebele lost their land and many human rights during the European partition of Africa, as the native groups were separately subjugated by British settlers in the 1890s. Colonial repression was inflicted upon them collectively after their defeat during the 1893 – 94 and 1896 – 97 wars (Parsons, 1993), what have been called the Chimurenga wars (wars of insurrection). The country was occupied first by Cecil John Rhodes' British South Africa Company (BSAC) under a charter from the British government giving the company power to rule and police the country. The BSAC ruled the country supported by the force of its military 'style' police – British South Africa Company Police (BSAP) before full colonial status was decreed. From the beginning colonization was about subjugation and was initially effected through the wily manoeuvrings of Cecil John Rhodes who was interested in the land and mineral wealth of the countries north of the Limpopo River from South Africa. Subsequently, the British settlers named the country Southern Rhodesia, after Rhodes who owned the British South Africa Company and many mineral claims and concessions in South Africa and what is now Zimbabwe. These first settlers introduced a system of separate development for blacks and whites that was enforced through a racist educational system. Missionaries introduced formal education before colonialism in 1867, when they opened the first missionary school mostly to cater for the sons of chiefs.

Missionaries were largely involved in the education of the Africans for utilitarian reasons. Even before the colonial settlers' arrival in 1890, missionaries had found it easier to spread their influence among the indigenous people. The first mission station called Inyati was established to the South West of the country in Matabeleland as early as around 1856 by the London Mission Society (Wallis, 1945). Mission schools were the centres of formal education for Africans with the government providing education primarily to white children. The new exchange economy introduced by the settlers created increasing demand for education among Africans. The colonial government however made sure education for blacks remained poor by stepping in to control the quality to ensure that missionaries would not 'over educate' them (Nherera, 2000). The colonial administrators remained critical of the type of education that missionaries provided the Africans although they did not want to spend public funds for that sector of education. To shape the education for their purposes, they wanted a few Africans to be given an education that was practical in nature; that is, related to agriculture and industry to prepare them for menial labour, but not to the extent where they could compete with Europeans (Atkinson, 1972;

Dorsey, 1975). Industrial training in African schools was limited to elementary knowledge of agriculture, carpentry and building.

Policy of racial discrimination and oppressive education

Zimbabwe's colonial education system was based on institutionalised racial discrimination characterised by glaring inequalities between the provision for European and African education. Budget allocations to the Division of European Education were much higher than those to the African Division and per capita expenditure in European schools was more than twelve times higher than that in African schools. All manner of restrictions and control were put in place to ensure that only a small number of Africans had access to education at all and that even a smaller number accessed secondary education. To ensure that good education remained a prerogative of the small settler population, the curriculum for the black majority population was controlled to remain diluted to ensure that Africans remained out of mainstream economic activities. Africans thus, remained technically unqualified for participation in the country's political and economic enterprise as quality education was only available on the other side of the racial divide. The black population was deliberately subjected to the basic and inferior education consistent with the intent to create a pool of farm labourers and industrial workers in the service of the colonial administration. Public funding for the education sector was disproportionately skewed against the black indigenous children in favour of the white settlers. This naturally resulted in many black people generally lacking basic literacy with only five per cent of the population having access to primary school education and only 12 per cent of these going on to secondary school (Riddell, 1980). The few schools available for African children were established by missionaries rather than the colonial governments. While most of the indigenous Black children had no access to school places at all, their White counterparts had access to quality schools that were comparable, in terms of quality, to grammar schools in England at the time.

Although in 1899 the government allocated a small budgetary commitment to the Africans by providing grants-in-aid for mission schools as the result of Education Ordinance 1899 (Richards & Govere, (2003), nothing else changed. Colonial education philosophy, content, structure, and administration for Africans, which began with the enactment of the Native Education Ordinance of 1907, continued until two years before independence in 1978 (a sham political Internal Settlement produced a government that had started cosmetic changes to some of the colonial policies including the Education Act of 1979). This notwithstanding, the 1907 Act had instituted guidelines for establishing four-year private elementary schools accompanied by school construction land grants. The theme of inferior education was maintained through the retention of a very restrictive programme combining religious instruction, basic industrial technical training, and academics. For the first 40 years of colonial rule, the major players in the development of African education remained the missionaries, who operated the schools while the Africans themselves contributed to the building of the schools, providing school supplies, and purchasing textbooks. Other than state policy-making, the government's role entailed extending financial aid just to cover teacher salaries. The education system therefore was not vibrant and only served the social, political and economic designs of the settler community.

Racial segregation under full colonial rule

Zimbabwe, then Southern Rhodesia, was granted colonial status in 1923 (UNESCO, 1993). Soon after, the British government began to transform its role in African education by establishing the Department of Native Education in 1927 and subsequently passing the Education Act of 1929 that:

1. Allowed poor students to work for their tuition after school hours and during vacations
2. Extended grants-in-aid to schools for students with disabilities and

3. Introduced African teacher training.

It is important to note, however, that colonial administrators did not intend to educate the Africans to the extent that they would challenge the oppressive colonial rule and compete with whites (Kawewe, 1986). In pursuance of the policy of racial separation and difference, the government of Godfrey Huggins used the worldwide Great Depression of 1929 as an excuse to oppose and eliminate all other educational facilities for Africans except for elementary education, leading to a drastic decline in enrolment that reached 100,000 fewer students in 1929.

Successive colonial administrators likewise restricted the access of African children to educational facilities as one of the key ways to effect and maintain a racially segregated society, in which the minority people of European stock and origin were regarded as superior over the majority indigenous African population. Apart from being severely restricted, the other key trait of the curriculum in African schools was its academic thrust to cater almost exclusively for the needs of a minute proportion of pupils who continued into higher education (6 per cent). Riddell (1980) remarks that the education system in Rhodesia was elitist, highly selective, economically wasteful, and geared to the needs of the small modern sector economy which was incapable of providing enough jobs for the growing population. Consequently, while the country experienced skill shortages, most of the black school-leavers, even those with secondary school education, remained unemployed. The minority White population and White immigrants provided most of the skilled labour and were mostly trained outside the country. This encouraged the authorities to discriminate against and shun any efforts to develop a sound indigenous skill base (Zimbabwe Annual Review of Manpower, 1983). In effect what this means is that the education system was not designed either to serve the country or its citizens. National manpower needs were met by immigrants while locals were denied education to get into the skilled labour market. At the same time the white settler community children who all received relevant education were always guaranteed of jobs. This society was structured to give the impression that only one sector of the population was able to acquire specialist skills while the other sector was incapable. This was politically deliberate and in the grand scheme of things the indigenous population was to feel inferior and the white settler community positioned to feel superior.

After World War II, a 10-year education plan for the period 1947 to 1956 was established that resulted in a considerable expansion in primary education. Enrolment shot up to 164,000 (<http://education.stateuniversity.com>) when government policies began to change, and during that period, the first secondary school for Africans, named Goromonzi, was actually built near the capital city, now Harare. Previously, Africans had acquired secondary and higher education from South Africa's black mine schools and overseas. Those few graduates of foreign programs then filled the only two positions available to blacks: clergyman or teacher. After Goromonzi opened, various missionary organizations followed suit and opened their own secondary schools, which enrolled approximately 600 students by 1949. The colonial government however refused to reform education to make it an instrument of societal development and advancement. The Kerr Commission, (1952) appointed by the government to reassess the thorny issue of African education made progressive recommendations that were never implemented because of the ideology of conservative elitism that informed all policies and reforms by the different successive governments until 1980 when the country became independent.

Post-independence structural education reforms as priority

Immediately after independence, and buoyed by the democratic egalitarianism ideology, the government prioritized structural and qualitative reforms to redress the imbalances. Initially there was one ministry of education catering for all education from basic to tertiary level and later tertiary education had a ministry created for better focus.. During the 1980s roughly 10% of the Government budget was invested in education, the highest level in the world (UK NARIC,

2007). This was a radical departure from the colonial system where no public funds at all were channelled to the education of the majority. Major reforms were introduced in the first 15 to 20 years following the principle of education for all adopted at independence in 1980. Structural reforms had to be rolled out first to create a national unified system. For example, at tertiary and higher education level in 1980 there were five government teachers colleges, two polytechnic colleges, and one University of Zimbabwe. By 1990, government teachers colleges had increased to 14, technical colleges to eight and there were two vocational training centres (VTCs) established (Zimbabwe National Commission for UNESCO, The Ministry of Education Sport & Culture and The Ministry of Higher Education and Technology, 2001). These reforms led to a phenomenal increase in student enrolment across all sectors demonstrating the success registered in the structural/qualitative reforms aimed at improving access.

A range of qualitative reforms including capacity building to redress imbalances in the infrastructure, administration, teacher training, resource supply and overall quality were then put in place. Reform was so urgent that sometimes the legislative process to regulate changes even followed behind the reforms. The administrative structures in Education were reformed to accommodate the expanding network of schools responding to the new order of compulsory education for all children and the need for literacy among the adult population. Many schools were built in the rural and urban areas. In rural areas the schools doubled up as adult education and community centres. The realisation that most of the adult population had been denied the opportunity to get educated under the colonial regimes prompted the government to embark on an adult literacy campaign programme at independence. In urban areas a comprehensive adult education system based on evening classes was put in place because of the availability of electricity. The adult education centres utilized school facilities and pulled together local teachers and lectures from local colleges of education to teach part-time thereby significantly improving teachers' income. The centres, where efficiently run, delivered a quality that compared favourably with the conventional day-school for children. Adult education administrative structures were created separately in the ministry of Education with officers appointed to run the sector and control standards as systematically as in the mainstream education sector. This proved to be the most effective tool in ensuring a literate population.

The result was that more children and many adults had the opportunity to go to school and obtain a very good academic education. All artificial boundaries between black and white education sectors were lifted and formerly restricted schools were ordered to open up for all children irrespective of colour race, creed or religion. The emerging system became a model that was lauded the world over. It was one of the most ambitious but successful educational reform processes in Sub-Saharan Africa. Fifteen years down the line by 1995 the country had achieved impressive literacy rates, first of 80% and then above 90%, making Zimbabwe's education system by far one of the most effective in Africa and one of the best in the developing world (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2011).

Reforming school and tertiary sectors of education

Although the 1979 Education Act under the infamous Internal Settlement of 1978 originally abolished compulsory education, the government of Zimbabwe reinstated compulsory universal primary education for every school-age child. Even without enforcement, the policy led to large increases in enrolment, increases that were so large, in fact, that at the end of the policy's first six years, the secondary, tertiary and higher educational systems, as well as the labour market, were stretched past capacity. At the primary school level new schools had been established in both urban and rural areas and primary school enrolment increased straight away from 820 000 in 1979 to 1.2 million in 1980, rising to 2.2 million in 1989. In 1996 enrolment reached a peak of 2.5million (Ministry of Education 1996). Access to primary education was open to almost every child and to every adult previously denied. Primary education was nearly free and secondary education was within the reach of almost everyone, in both urban and rural areas. At secondary level the expansion was just as phenomenal. Schools were built in the rural areas and African townships where they had not been before. Restrictions to entry into secondary school were

removed so most children could access secondary education. Secondary school enrolments rose from a mere 12 per cent before independence to 70 per cent after 1980 (Ministry of Education 1996). The remarkable improvement to education access required robust reforms to teacher education.

At tertiary level Teacher Education was equally high priority and heavy investment was channelled to this sector. The government implemented various types of teacher education programmes among them the Zimbabwe Integrated Teacher Education Course (ZINTEC). This model relied on distance education as a mode of training pre-service, non-graduate teachers. This innovation transformed pre-service, non-graduate teacher education in that, for the first time in the country's history distance education played an important role in training teachers. The introduction of the ZINTEC programme was directly related to the positive political decision to make primary education free and compulsory and improve its quality. There was need for a proportionate increase of the number of professionally trained teachers. The country could not rely only on the existing three-year conventional system because it could not cope with the increased demand.

The ZINTEC programme demonstrated the political determination of the government to transform the education of the country and was most highly acclaimed. Students undertook two long periods of study in the colleges at the beginning and end of the course, and shorter periods each year in between. When the students were not in college they were assigned to schools to teach. During this period they were helped with distance teaching materials and supervised by college lecturers, school heads and education officers. The main advantage of the programme was that student teachers were placed in schools after their initial sixteen-week (later twenty-four-week) orientation courses and received the bulk of their training on the job through distance education. At the time, and in the context of the teacher shortage resulting from the expansion of the primary school sector, it was more cost effective than the traditional teacher training college programmes, by having trainees in the classroom teaching a full load. Largely as a result of this innovation the proportion of trained teachers increased dramatically through the 1990s. The Ministry of Education reveals that in 1990, 51.48 per cent of primary school teachers were trained and by 1997 the proportion of trained primary school teachers had jumped to 77.2 per cent. In secondary schools, only 48.1 per cent of the teachers were trained in 1990 but the number increased to 89 per cent by 1996. In year 2000 primary school enrolment was 93 per cent (Ministry of Education, 1996).

Government educational reform instruments

The government enacted laws to consolidate the reform agenda and set out general policies in The Education Act No. 5/1987 as amended in 1991 on education as follows:

- Compulsory primary education for all children of school going age (Section 5). This policy remained the Ministry's long term objective although it is silent on how this provision may be enforced
- Children's fundamental right to education was recognized {Section 4 (1)}.
- Children's entitlement to enrolment at the nearest school was respected (section 10).
- Languages that were to be taught in schools were English and Shona, or English and Ndebele depending on the mother tongue of the majority of people in the area in which the school is located (Section 55).
- Curricula and examinations in schools (Section 57) were to be made relevant to the needs of the country (The Education Act No. 5/1987 as amended in 1991).

At the same time the government also increased its commitment to the educational welfare of children by setting out four objectives on its National Plan of Action for 1994 – 1996.

- Expansion of Early Childhood Education and Care (ECEC) and other community based forms of education (e.g. Adult Education) which had lagged behind the expansion of the primary and secondary education system;
- Provision of universal quality primary education by the year 2000;
- Improvement of the quality and relevance of the education system as a whole and
- The narrowing of the gender disparities in education with particular reference to basic education. (The National Plan of Action (NPA) for 1994 -1996).

As a result, on the out-of-school children in Eastern and Southern Africa Zimbabwe fell below the regional average on the UNICEF/ UNESCO index – behind six countries but ahead of 14 others (UNICEF 2007).

However, the country retained and expanded the educational and socio-political infrastructures inherited from the colonial era. The education philosophy appeared to entail a humanistic approach emphasizing national development; a wider participatory process; socio-political, economic and technological changes on the surface. It is however doubtful that it achieved the perceived and the necessary moral, educational and material advancement of the majority or pacified the view that citizens needed justice equality, dignity and liberty. This was difficult due to the academic curriculum that still left many children failing to pass 'O' Level. According to provisional data made available by UNESCO Institute of Statistics in 2003, the pass rate at 'O' Level was 23% and the transition rate from Form 4 to 5 was 16% (O'Malley, 2007, UNICEF, 2007).

The resultant post-colonial education system

In 1988, the government set up a separate Ministry of Higher Education responsible for tertiary education which included teacher training colleges, universities and vocational colleges. More and more teachers were trained in an effort to reduce the proportion of unqualified teachers and raise the quality of teaching. Different government strategies helped boost the number of teachers from 18,483 in 1979 to 60,886 by end of the decade (Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture, 2001). The resultant system however did not depart qualitatively from the old subjects, the academic curriculum and the exam orientation and thrust inherited. There was a national Grade Seven examination and three more at secondary and high school level – a Junior Certificate examination at the end of the first two years of the secondary level followed by the 'O' Level examination after the fourth year of secondary schooling and then 'A' Level examination at the end of the final two years. The structure is summarized in the table below:

Table 1: Structure of Zimbabwe's education system

Level Type	Age Group in years	Study Period	Academic year	Examination	Certificate
Primary School	6-12	7 years	January-December	Grade Seven	Grade Seven
Lower Secondary	13-14	2 years	January - December	Form Two	Zimbabwe Junior Certificate
Upper Secondary	15-16	2 years	January-December	'O' level	General Certificate of Education
Post 'O' Level	17-18	2 years	January - December	'A' level	Higher Schools Certificate

What happens at these levels?

Most Zimbabwean children begin primary school during the year in which they turn six, with a small number beginning during their sixth or seventh year. Before that, from the age three and four years some children attend pre-school or crèche. In 2005 the Ministry introduced a pre-school class called 'zero' grade for four and five year olds in some pilot schools to spearhead the introduction of a formalized Early Childhood Education and Care (ECEC) programme as part of the school system. By 2006 this had been expanded to cover most schools that had the capacity to offer these reception classes. Grade one classes were required to enrol from the reception classes only (UNICEF (2007)).

The official language of instruction at primary school is English but independence elevated the main local languages Shona and Ndebele to national language status used as languages of instruction from grade one to three. The Primary school curriculum is nationalized with prescribed textbooks, and the curriculum culminates in the nationally set Grade Seven Examination in Mathematics, English, Shona/Ndebele and General Paper (a combination of topics in Science, Religious and Moral Education and Social Sciences). The curriculum was aimed broadly to equip learners with:

- Language skills in either English and Shona or English and Ndebele; the three official languages in the country
- Appreciation of the national and social environment
- Number, science and technology.

For their Secondary Education students start Form one usually aged 12-13, compete for places in the private and mission schools based on their Grade Seven examination results or entrance tests set by the school or both. Government schools take students by zone then allot the rest of the places to those with the best exam results. The state had committed itself to the provision of

accessible secondary education to all children who desired and afforded it. The sub-sector was however not entirely free of tuition fees since independence.

Where schools were properly equipped, a science and technology biased curriculum was offered. Many urban government schools introduced technical and vocational subjects such as Metal and Wood Work, Technical Drawing, Food and Nutrition and Fashion and Fabrics. In addition to subjects started at primary school, the technical and vocational subjects become the fifth skills development area at secondary school. All Examinations from the Grade 7 through to the 'A' Level are set and administered by the Zimbabwe Examination Council (ZIMSEC) a local examining board that took over from the University of Cambridge overseas Examinations Syndicate. ZIMSEC worked closely with Cambridge to ensure quality until the meltdown of the system in the third decade of independence between 2006 and 2008.

Notably there was no shift to any more vocational technical subjects than those which were offered before independence. One would have expected reform in favour of more technical and vocational subjects to prepare school leavers for the non-formal sector of employment that was steadily employing more and more people in the economy. One way of looking at it is Quality Assurance (QA). How did these reforms ensure quality from any perspective the government might have held? The association of African Universities' (AAU) (2007) definition of QA as a "planned and systematic review process of an institution or programme to determine that acceptable standards of education, scholarship, teaching, administration and infrastructure are being maintained and enhanced" would stand betrayed by the approach that was taken to redress the ills of the education system.

Politics of inequality permeate post-independence policies

An obvious example of how colonial political influence has remained intact has been the post-colonial language policy trends in Sub Saharan Africa (SSA) as a whole. It is not a coincidence that most of the SSA countries have chosen the former colonial languages as their official languages and languages in education (LiE). The language question is all about power. The choice of a language of instruction in Africa is a political choice, a choice that may redistribute power in a global context as well as within an African country, between the elites and the masses (Brock-Utne, 2001a). This is the maintenance of colonial control at work and a vestige of the pervasive political influence on the education systems planted through the well-orchestrated subjectivities and imbalances of the colonial era. First was the demonization of the indigenous cultures including the disparaging of their languages? The political influence was inculcated through the determination of what the Black population had to learn. That education ensured inferiority complexes among the Black populations through segregation and restrictions to services and social spaces. The psychological warfare appears to have been part of the education the blacks were being subjected to by proxy. The result is how the colonial language has been embraced as official language and language of education under the guise that they are unifying languages when people do not use them in their daily lives.

It is not surprising that in Zimbabwe the elaborate processes of reform attempts recounted above remained structural qualitative reforms largely removing restrictions along racial lines, improving quality of teaching and learning by increasing the number of qualified teachers and opening up access. This however was without reforming the ideology of inequality in the curriculum implementation, leaving content and thrust inherited at independence intact. This is why in 1989, ten years after independence, a senior government official revealed that it was only possible (or allowed) to reform Early Childhood Education (partly because it was not formal) and not the primary and secondary school. She said, "We can move into a completely new field and plan solutions which are not as constraining as our present primary and secondary scene." She added, "The school system is very constraining because we can't move very far from the models we inherited. If we did we would have a political uproar. . . . In preschool we are in virgin territory" (Chung 1989). Maintaining the status quo was in effect the extension of neocolonial politics of inequality. When the colonized were fighting for their

freedom and human rights including education, they wanted to 'inherit' the colonizer's education that they had been denied – neo-colonialism. Neo-colonialism remained a powerful influence and when the liberated became the educators, the content of the colonial curriculum was regarded as the model and any attempt to reform it could have caused a political uproar as Chung said. The question to ask is why such a radical government would not introduce more momentous reforms but stick to the inherited curriculum?

The neo-colonialist educator

The role of the educator is a particularly powerful one in terms of the capacity for influencing how generations of students and citizens envision themselves, their families, their communities, their country and the relationship of these entities to the world in which they are situated. Control and manipulation of the educational systems and practices in colonized territories became a particularly powerful and enduring means of ensuring that children and their families were inculcated with political, social, and cultural philosophies congruent to the desires and aspirations of the ruling powers. The primary concern of a conquering nation was to preserve and expand its own power over the peoples and territories it controlled. The educational practices and institutions established by colonial powers throughout their periods of domination served the particular function of reinforcing the subjectification of the indigenous peoples upon whom they were imposed (Valerie Braman, 2005). Several themes and recurring practices in the educational programs and policies of the British in their colonies, as recognized and challenged by postcolonial theorists, serve to underscore the particular power that the colonized subject's educational experience played in the maintenance of colonial control. In the English colonies, these include:

1. The establishment of the primacy of the English language, its literature, and scholarly achievements and, by extension, English societal and cultural values
2. The positioning of British-styled education as the only means of bettering oneself or one's family's economic and social situation
3. The creation of the educational hybrid, who is detached and alienated both from his own culture by means of his English education, and from recognition in English society because of his skin colour and nation of origin (Valerie Braman, 2005).

The colonized subject's educational experiences were indelibly printed in their psyche in such a remarkable way that they (experiences) ensured the subject's long term perceptions of the western institutions as models. This has remained an enduring instrument of influence that has ensured the maintenance of neo-colonial control in more spheres than just education. Neo-colonial influence permeates the social cultural ways of the politically independent people. In Zimbabwe the education sector however has been the lasting legacy of neo-colonialism because its stranglehold has not diminished in any way even despite all the anti-West rhetoric by leaders such as Robert Mugabe the president of Zimbabwe. Against all the vitriolic and acerbic anti West attacks which are (ironically or consistently) articulated in typical middle class English accent, after more than thirty years of independence there has hardly been any genuine educational reform to reflect the true needs of an independent modern African state. By design or coincidence, the liberal meritocracy ideology informing the extent of reforms has left the school curriculum hardly changed from being academic and elitist.

Opportunities and challenges from the politics of oppressive education

In summary, the fairy tale of the education system in Zimbabwe can be told thus: when the country gained independence from colonial rule in April 1980, the majority of her people had

lacked the opportunities and facilities for quality schooling, most only finishing at primary level. Over the first 15 to 20 years of independence however, the population of seven million witnessed incredible strides in school expansion, teacher training, and resources. The first decade (1980–1990) saw the most dramatic advances. The number of primary schools grew from 3,161 to 4,504, an increase of 42.48 per cent. Secondary schools increased from 197 in 1980 to 1502 in 1989, a sharp rise of 662 per cent. Enrolments increased by over 200 per cent across the whole system. Primary school enrolments jumped from about 820,000 in 1979 to 2.08 million in 1990, an increase of 154 per cent. The corresponding increase in the size of the teaching force was equally remarkable, from 18,483 in 1979 to 60,886 by the end of the decade, an increase of 229 per cent (UNESCO, 2000). This summary highlights how post-colonial education in Zimbabwe can be described in positive terms although it belies the fact that the system was never perfectly reformed to become synchronized with the employment and economic advancement needs of the nation and the development aspirations of the citizen. The following sections on insider perspectives and education under attack demonstrate how post-independence political influence ended up as blatant as in the colonial leading to the retention of a system that benefitted one section of the population.

The inside perspective

The first insider story comes from an enthusiastic expatriate teacher who came from America to a newly independent country in 1982. He had studied documents of the two liberation movements which formed the government and expected a socialist government pursuing socialist reforms in education.

I expected to find an education system that embraced the “pedagogy of the oppressed (Paulo Freire (1972). Instead I found myself in a typical English colonial school . . . the ethos was straight from Eton: school ties, prefects, an all-powerful headmaster, and course syllabi that valued Shakespeare far more than Kwame Nkrumah. Equally disturbing, expatriate teachers who displayed traditional Rhodesian attitudes were more acceptable to the school authorities than socialists like myself (sic) (John Pape, 1998, p.253).

When Pape goes on to say, “While Zimbabwean political parties had talked about socialism, the country did not have organized grassroots movements of workers, peasants, and women”, he provides insight into one of the layers of the answer to the question why neo-colonial influence remained so strong despite the radical socialist rhetoric.

The second insider perspective comes in 2008, almost 30 years after independence. This was the year when the ruling party since independence, ZANU PF, was defeated in parliamentary and presidential elections and was unable to form a government. A political agreement resulting from what some said was a manipulated poll led to the first coalition government between the defeated ZANU PF and the victorious opposition, the Movement for Democratic Change (MDC). This was the first government with cabinet ministers from both the opposition turned majority party in parliament and ZANU PF. It was possible for the first time to get government ministers who could make critical comments about government policies and provide insider perspectives. Insights from the Minister of Education Sports and Culture are relevant to this discussion. In 2011 the minister of education, David Coltart, revealed that the education system as inherited by the inclusive government of 2008 (28 years after independence) was a tragedy from a career perspective because it had remained almost exclusively academically orientated focusing on academic subjects, such as Maths, English and Science as it had been during the colonial times when it served the specific purpose to create citizens who could not be absorbed into the economy. Similar to the colonial education, the post-colonial education system again, had not been preparing the vast majority of its children for what the country had the capacity to offer in terms of employment. To that extent, the education system had remained deficient. The minister

said that it was intensely frustrating for the vast majority of children who had worked so hard in primary and secondary school because they found that when they got to the end of their secondary education, very limited employment opportunities existed for them. In other words, it was also a shocking waste of national resources.

The question that begs clarification is why the post-colonial government that prioritized educational reforms could have failed to deliver a curriculum capable of transforming its economy and the prospects of its youth? The answer will remain political influence, the subtle negative neo-colonial influence of the politics of the ruler and the ruled. At this stage any critical citizen can begin to realize that controlling education and using it to control society was not just about a white settler government curtailing the potential of the black people. What emerges is the hard fact that well educated people, equipped with appropriate work skills and abilities, do not serve or advance the agendas of undemocratic governments. This is more important than whether a government is colonialist or nationalist. The bottom line is that the colonial government was undemocratic and the post-colonial government degenerated quickly from principles of democracy to become not much different from their colonial predecessors. This was even borne out when the same teachers and schools that drove the Education for Social Transformation agenda at independence in 1980 became the target victims of political violence and brutality by the same political party in 2008.

Education under attack

UNESCO (2007) says targeted violence - which is often for political, military, ideological, sectarian, ethnic or religious reasons - disrupts and undermines the provision of education, access to education and the quality of education in the many ways including:

- pupils and staff stay at home because of fear of further attacks
- pupils and staff flee the area or country for fear of being targeted
- buildings, materials and resources are destroyed or damaged
- forced recruitment or voluntary enlistment of child soldiers prevents children from going to school
- physical removal by abduction, detention or disappearance prevents teachers and students from going to school or university
- murders and assassinations deny students their teacher and they may be irreplaceable in some areas
- psychological trauma, fear and stress, caused by any of the above, hinder learning and teaching, affecting attention, motivation and attendance of both students and staff

Apparently this is what happened in Zimbabwe in 2008 because of political violence. It came as no surprise when, in the controversial 2008 elections, schools in rural areas were shut down as violence was unleashed on teachers and schools as institutions. Teachers who had been polling officers at schools (the role that teachers had performed throughout the independent history of the country) were accused of being the literate leaders of society responsible for the ruling party's massive defeat in the poll. They were targeted and tortured and their schools turned into torture camps. Many teachers fled when thousands were beaten and hundreds hospitalized after their houses had been burnt down (Hungwe, 2008). Hundreds of teachers ended up fleeing the country and the education sector that was achieving hundred per cent trained teacher establishments was drawn back to the era of shortage of trained and competent

teachers. Suddenly teachers' working conditions plummeted and the sector could not attract quality recruits for teacher training. It is important to underline the (AAU, 2007) definition above because education systems rest on the quality of teachers. As the international consulting group, McKinsey and Company proclaimed, (the) 'quality of an education system cannot exceed the quality of its teachers' (Barber and Mourshed, 2007). This is equally the reason why it has become increasingly clear that the quality of teacher education is among the most important factors shaping the learning and growth of students (Cochran-Smith, 2001; Darling-Hammond and Bransford, 2005; Goodwin, 2008). This will be another story to tell, another reform to discuss.

Conclusion

Negative political influence in education can apparently give rise to systems that do not benefit either the state or the citizens. In the Zimbabwe context where 65 per cent of the population lives in rural areas, their lives cannot improve unless they receive a good education. The educational systems based on different ideologies at different points in the history of the country, gave rise to a society replete with inequality. The conservative elitism ideology pursued by successive settler white governments was grossly unfair and gave rise to an education system that left the majority of the people second class citizens in their country. On the other hand, while democratic egalitarianism was pursued after independence as a framework to inform the urgent reforms, the extent of the reforms only ensured structural qualitative changes that only increased access, abolition of racial discrimination and better quality teachers. The system that slowly emerged in the post-colonial era however, was informed by liberal meritocracy where, despite the government using the egalitarian mantra, only structures and appearances changed. What happened illustrated that apparently the education of a nation is so crucial that a more critical reform approach was required at independence to ensure a systematic overhaul of the past and a sustainable approach to skills development for the national economy? It was crucially important that the country's economic development capacity and the trajectory of its secondary, primary and tertiary industrial base should have been factored into the educational policy planning at independence. Democratic egalitarianism should not have only meant access, harmony and appearances but appropriateness or relevance, effectiveness and sustainability. Discrimination along racial lines is repugnant but equally frustrating is discrimination along class lines and requires urgent attention. The Zimbabwean case illustrates how urgently governments need to realize that education systems need to be de-politicized by taking on board broader agency with sustainable future interests of the country. Economists, industrialists, educationalists, labour organizations, teachers' organizations and local education authorities are some of the agencies that need to be involved in the educational policy planning and implementation to ensure safeguarding the country and its citizens' future.

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TOPIC: QUALITY ASSURANCE IN HIGHER EDUCATION: OPPORTUNITIES AND CHALLENGES IN ZIMBABWE

Jacob Marriote Ngwaru

(Ph.D.; Associate Professor)

Aga Khan University (AKU) Institute for Educational Development,

East Africa (IED, EA) Dar-Es-Salaam Tanzania

Mobile +255 756767098

marriote.ngwaru@aku.edu

Abstract

Quality Assurance in Higher Education is an elusive goal in Sub-Saharan Africa where research has already highlighted countless causes of poor performance and high drop-out rates. Quality Assurance is the “planned and systematic review process of an institution or programme to determine that acceptable standards of education, scholarship, teaching, administration and infrastructure are being maintained and enhanced”. Most Sub-Saharan countries use a second language, (English) as the official language and Language in Education (LiE) and research has revealed that there are quality issues that arise from the LiE policy. There is need for better co-ordinated systematic review of the syllabus and implementation process if the levels of performance in the classroom should improve. This paper argues that one reason for the challenges bedevilling policy and implementation at various levels is the lack of critical analysis of the curriculum process. Policy should not be seen as the analysis of documents in their written forms but rather a multifaceted process of continual making and re-making. An in-depth understanding of policy and implementation requires rigorous research into the dynamic and complex generation, implementation and negotiation between relevant social agents or actors in the matrix of social hierarchy in which each has the potential power to exert an influence or effect on the policy. Using examples of quality assurance efforts in higher education in Zimbabwe, this paper illustrates the challenges involved in the implementation of the English language curriculum both in the primary teachers colleges and the primary school. The quality of education ultimately depends on teachers who implement the national language policy at classroom level. In the case of Zimbabwe primary school teachers are trained in teachers colleges and individual universities where quality assurance is the responsibility of individual universities and the University of Zimbabwe respectively. This paper discusses quality assurance and curriculum design and implementation processes in general as the backdrop of the challenges encountered by the universities that are in charge of initial teacher preparation. The paper compares teachers colleges (ESL) English Education syllabus objectives and the ideal effective framework and approaches to ESL pedagogy to illustrate the chasm between class/lecture room practices and effective pedagogy. The paper reaches the conclusion that QA should be approached as an all-encompassing concept that focuses as much on end processes and products (teaching and assessing) as on interpretation of the framing provisions (policy and curriculum).

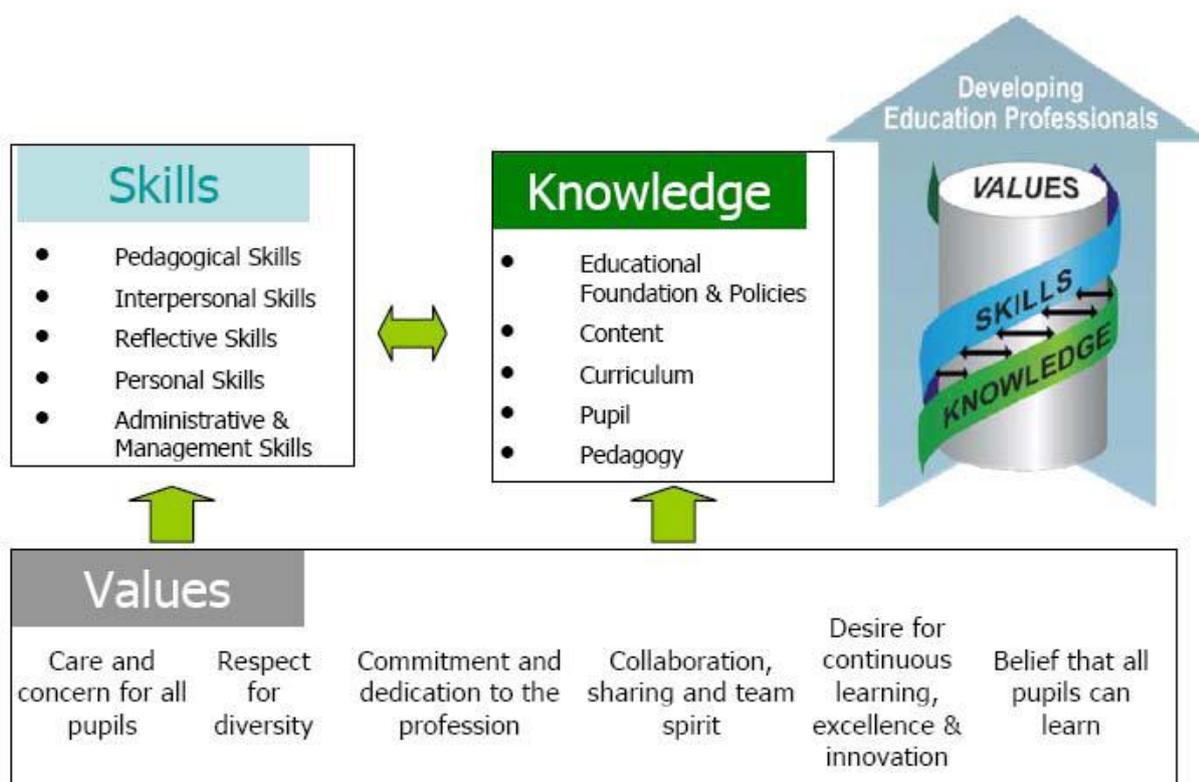
Key words: *quality assurance, language policy, primary school primary, teachers college curriculum, facets of quality*

The theoretical framework

The opportunities and challenges under discussion are informed by the *Values, Knowledge and Skills* (VSK) Framework (National Institute of Education (NIE), Singapore, 2005) and the definition of quality assurance by the Association of African Universities (2007) as a “planned and systematic review process of an institution or programme to determine that acceptable standards of education, scholarship, teaching, administration and infrastructure are being maintained and enhanced”.

The NIE Values Skills and Knowledge (VSK) Framework presents a comprehensive view illustrating how the ultimate goal of developing educational professionals is leveraged by the development of knowledge and skills standards that are driven by the professional values that drive the standards accordingly. (In this discussion I add the disposition standard to top up the framework). It is important to set disposition standards in the preparation of teachers at the same level with skills and knowledge standards because the character and temperament of teachers, including commitment to academic integrity and ethical practice {key in the environment of shortages and inequalities} are important attributes that need to be consciously developed in order for values of care, commitment, dedication and respect to be fully realized. Values of commitment to life-long learning and readiness to take personal responsibility and risks as well as being self-directed should be developed more consciously in teacher development – see Figure 1 below.

Figure 1: The Values Skills and Knowledge Framework



Adopted from: National Institute of Education (Singapore) (2005)

The methodology and structure of the paper

The methodology of analysis used in this paper is descriptive using as background: secondary sources including Association of African Universities (AAU) (2007) Report and other researches on classroom practice in SSA. It also makes use of the author's own experiences as an external examiner and research findings in post colonial Zimbabwe: Ngwaru, (2010); Ngwaru & Opoku-Amankwa, (2010); Ngwaru (2011); and Teachers college ESL Curriculum objectives used for illustration of the extent of challenges. The paper introduces the framework first and moves to methodology and structure before moving on to clarifying its focus. Discussion moves to QA in the context of educational reforms in SSA and teacher education in Zimbabwe centring on key principles of quality, curriculum and instructional objectives in Higher Education (HE). The paper then examines some teachers college syllabus objectives and ends with commentary and conclusion.

Focus and conceptual definitions

This discussion is informed by both the definitions and frameworks by different entities concerned by QA. AAU, 2007 defines QA as a "planned and systematic review process of an institution or programme to determine that acceptable standards of education, scholarship, teaching, administration and infrastructure are being maintained and enhanced". This paper specifically focuses on the effectiveness of structures in place and the processes used to determine and oversee quality in the teacher education institutions regarding the teaching of English as a second language (ESL). This is important because on one hand education systems rest on the quality of teachers and on the other English is the language of instruction on which all pedagogical efficacies depend. The international consulting group McKinsey and Company proclaimed that the 'quality of an education system cannot exceed the quality of its teachers' (Barber and Mourshed, 2007). It has become increasingly clear that the quality of teacher education is among the most important factors shaping the learning and growth of students (Cochran-Smith, 2001; Darling-Hammond and Bransford, 2005; Goodwin, 2008) and it has equally become pertinent to know about what teachers and teacher candidates should know and are able to do in today's 'outcomes' climate (Cochran-Smith, 2001). Cochran-Smith, (2001, p.529) again says that teacher education programmes therefore, need to continually provide evidence that their procedures are 'accountable', 'effective', and/or 'value-added' to be relevant to meet current and future needs. The demand for high-quality teachers cannot be met without high-quality teacher education. Empirical evidence has suggested that inadequate preparation of teachers has a negative impact on student achievement outcomes, teaching effectiveness, teacher attrition rates and school collegiality. For this reason, Quality Assurance in teacher education has received growing interest. On the whole, as Mok (2005) says, education institutions that prepare teachers need to seek ways of continually improving their academic staff, programme design and delivery, administrative procedures and support services.

QA is topical because, as The Organization of Economic Co-Operation and Development (OECD) stresses, the quality of a country's higher education sector and its definition, assessment, and monitoring is not only key to its social and economic well being but also a critical factor for the education system's international positioning. For its part the OECD defined quality assurance as "a planned and systematic pattern of all the actions necessary to provide adequate confidence that a product will conform to established requirements" (OECD, 2004; OECD, 2008). Harvey, (2004; 2007) says Quality Assurance is the "process of establishing stakeholder confidence that provision (input and outcomes) fulfils expectations and measures up to the threshold minimum requirements". In the context of these definitions, my interest in this topic is the pursuance and enhancement of high standards in teacher practice, development and training. The enhancement of the quality of services provided by higher education institutions is the ultimate goal for all processes concerned with quality and is the justification for their existence. This debate is a contribution to the enhancement of the quality of

services provided by higher education institutions especially in the context of teacher development and teacher training in Zimbabwe.

Facets of quality assurance

Often five facets (components concerned with quality are considered in Higher Education) including scopes, frequencies, quality descriptors, and associations. On one hand five scopes: the higher education system as a whole, the institution, programmes, teaching and learning processes and educational outcomes are important while on the other frequencies, are distinguished between current processes and those of a periodic nature (Salame, 2010). Quality descriptors could be distinguished in three groups: audits, where the mission of an institution, its goals, plans, framework, and resources are examined according to set audit standards (as is the case with national commissions that regulate universities such as Zimbabwe Council of Higher Education (Zimche) and Tanzania Commission for Universities (TCU). Measures and criteria, benchmarks used for judging conformity with pre-set criteria; and guiding tools, which include indicators, data, and evidences collected for issuing judgment or suggesting measures and solutions are important instruments in the kit.. Associations concerned with quality are categorized into those working as part of an institution, those working at the national level, regional ones, and international ones. The mechanisms for assessing quality can be categorized into internal mechanisms (such as self-assessment), and external mechanisms. As for the approaches in quality control and assurance, there are four: evaluation, internal control, external control and accreditation. Again, this paper applies these facets in the discussion. This paper only focuses on three scopes, a) programmes, b) teaching and learning processes and c) educational outcomes and the four approaches in quality control: evaluation, internal control, external control and accreditation.

In Zimbabwe the individual universities and the University of Zimbabwe (UZ), for teachers colleges are responsible for the Human and Operational Systems and infrastructure. For the teachers colleges, the UZ first ascertains that individual colleges meet the required standards in terms of Inputs and Processes to guarantee the Product. That is, it certifies college infrastructure, resources and qualifications of professional staff before accreditation and goes on to regulate admission strategies and finally the teaching, learning and assessment to guarantee the quality of the graduands (see fig. 2 above). For the university-based teacher preparation programmes the individual universities have the infrastructure, resources, and qualified staff and all of them have reasonable experience in preparing teachers. This discussion now shifts from the precincts of QA as an academic concept to its application in SSA and Zimbabwe.

Quality assurance in the context of post-colonial ESL pedagogy

Baldauf jnr. & Kaplan (2006) say that language policy and planning is circumscribed by language ideologies which emerge in specific historical and material circumstances. They emerge out of a wider socio-political and historical framework of relationships of power, of forms of discrimination, and of nation building. Language Policy and Planning reflect efforts of reconstruction from colonization, domination and oppression and indicate an important ideological statement made in the advent of decolonization.

The question of quality and reform in education has been looked at from various perspectives in Sub-Saharan Africa. Among others, language, culture and literacy issues have featured prominently because of the national language policies. Most post-colonial governments have designated the former colonial language as the official language and language in Education (LiE). The use of SL as LiE has engendered many negative effects to the quality of pedagogy and requires close attention in any QA process. Studies of pedagogy in multilingual post-colonial contexts in Sub-Sahara African classrooms highlight many of the negative effects of ESL as LiE. (Chick, (1996) and Hornberger and Chick (2004) describe what they call safe talk in

South African classrooms. Safe Talk is a type of chorusing and patterned classroom talk which allows participation without risk of loss of face for the teacher and the learners. Bunyi (1997; 2005) on the other hand, discusses code switching in Kenyan classrooms showing how teachers switch between English and Kiswahili to explain texts, elaborate a point, and provide pupils who have limited knowledge and control over the language of instruction to access the curriculum. Rubagumya (1990; 1993) and Alidou and Brock-Utne (2005) discuss the benefits of mother tongue literacy in classrooms in Tanzania where, when English was used students were silent and grave and teacher talk dominated the lessons. Ngwaru and Opoku-Amankwa, (2010) describe how perceptions of the language of education remained one of the key factors effecting learning outcomes in Zimbabwe and Ghana and Ngwaru (2011) describes an intervention innovation based on the principles of transformative and constructive developmental pedagogy which confirm that quality could be improved by attending to language and culture issues.

On the other hand, Dei & Asgharzadeh (2005) indicate that post-colonial educational policies and practices (curriculum, texts; pedagogies) in Africa fail to 'speak' adequately to the variety of human experiences. They often exclude cultural resources and children's funds of knowledge (culture and language) from classroom work (again see Ngwaru, (2010 & 2011) for the exclusion of children's funds of knowledge from classroom. Children's funds of knowledge are historically accumulated and culturally developed bodies of knowledge and skills essential for households or individuals' functioning and well-being and form a strong basis of conceptualization if they were incorporated into the curriculum. Such research evidence should be the basis of educational and curriculum reforms to conform to the Quality Assurance standard of Knowledge and the Value: '*Belief that all children can learn*'. If this value-informed quality assurance was the norm, educational reforms in SSA would have prioritized language policy implications on the pedagogy of ESL. This paper argues that lack of careful QA processes including critical analysis of the curriculum and instructional policy process from tertiary to primary school has brought about challenges in ensuring the quality of teacher education, the teacher and the education system of the country.

Quality assurance in teacher education in Zimbabwe

Teacher Training programmes and principles of quality

Quality assurance is vital to ensure the continuous improvement of the content, delivery and development of initial teacher preparation in Zimbabwe. The key initial teacher preparation programmes in Zimbabwe are the Bachelor of Arts/Science (Education), Bachelor of Education (Primary /Secondary, Postgraduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) and Diploma in Education (Dip Ed). The objective of these programmes is to prepare and develop student teachers by including values that inform their skills, knowledge and dispositions to enable them to teach competently in the primary and secondary schools.

A way of providing an objective measure of quality should always be found, demonstrating that public funds are spent effectively on quality teaching and learning. Reflecting on this stance, Stamoulas (2006) states that a basic objective of quality assurance is to safeguard and uphold the standards of higher education by publicly providing verified qualitative and quantitative information on programmes. Quality is a complex concept that centres on three main principles, namely, control, accountability and improvement. Control refers to how resources are utilised and maximised for outcomes while accountability seeks ways in which stakeholders' needs are met and improvement refers to how the necessary inputs, processes and outputs interact to meet goals and objectives (Harvey, 1998). The multiple purposes of quality assurance can result in activities that take many forms and cover a wide spectrum of processes to monitor, account for and enhance quality. The key aspect of accountability is that of 'rendering to account' understood by those who have a need or right to the 'account' (e.g. the stakeholders). On the other hand, improvement is based on a formative approach while the quality processes

are to support future performances rather than make judgements on past achievements (Thune, 1996). Quality assurance is seen as a means of improving effectiveness in standardized verifiable ways at present and in the future. In the context of Zimbabwe, the question is how much curriculum and instruction take their cues from QA standards? Curriculum involves the intended learning outcomes – the intended results or ends of instruction and instruction on the other hand, the planning and operation of appropriate strategies for different curricular components. Instruction therefore refers to the *means* used to achieve learning outcomes, intended or otherwise. As a result therefore, curriculum must provide adequate scope to guide instruction while instruction must interpret curriculum efficiently to ensure intended outcomes. QA therefore must focus on the extent to which instructional frameworks ensure effective pedagogical outcomes.

Quality assurance for teacher development in Zimbabwe is regulated at two levels for universities and teachers colleges. First, for both, internally by individual entities that offer either pre-service university-level teacher preparation programmes or Diploma in Education qualification respectively and second, externally for universities by the Zimbabwe Council for Higher Education (Zimche), the national quality assurance body. The second and external level for teachers colleges is the University of Zimbabwe, under the umbrella scheme of association. However, in the context of the precarious language policy situation, the question is whether the University of Zimbabwe and the other universities ensure that the negative effects of the language policy are kept under check? This is an area of a major disharmony and dissonance because the University of Zimbabwe and the other universities do not appear to play a major role in the national institutions that determine policies that inform the curriculum. It does not appear that the Universities are aware that this is an important role for them to play in order to have an overview of the expectations of the system on the teachers they train? The result is not surprising, that theoretical curriculum models are being used to determine teacher training programmes that do not often relate to the real learner and national needs. This is a result of the lack of effective analysis of the curriculum-making process and the near absence of research input that has left the situation of the disadvantaged majority the same so many years after independence. It appears that a combination of the uncritical implementation of the largely inherited colonial curriculum and the lack of far-reaching reforms of the same has led to the perpetuation of low educational standards largely as a result of the alienation of the (ESL) learner and teacher. (one only needs to know the extent of educational wastage due to the English Language failure (not pass) rate at 'O' Level even during the zenith of Zimbabwe's education system in the first fifteen years after independence in 1980. During that time, and worse now, as many candidates used to fail with 'D' grades as those that passed with grades 'A, B, and C put together.) There is nothing to suggest that there could be an improvement but that the situation could be worse given what has happened to the economy in recent years. If the values based on "*The belief that all children can learn*" were to inform the system's quality assurance frameworks, alarm bells could have sounded a long time ago.

Assumptions and expectations for teacher training institutions in Zimbabwe

In Zimbabwe teachers colleges design their own curricula ideally to feed into the school curriculum. The University of Zimbabwe and the individual universities that prepare teachers regulate quality of curriculum because they have research and oversight capacity. The assumption is that the universities set the language curriculum benchmarks consistent with the policy that informs the school ESL curriculum. Further, the assumption is that QA is to ensure synchrony of policy, curriculum and instructional objectives. According to the *Values, Skills, Knowledge and Disposition* perspective, guidelines documents for teacher education in Zimbabwe, such as the TERC Report (University of Zimbabwe (1986) and the University guidelines reference ACC/AB/3/89 (Associate College Centre (1989) which currently regulate teacher education internal processes should always act as the blue print for quality assurance. These should articulate the Values that inform the skills, knowledge and dispositions that are

supposed to be inculcated to teachers during their training. The Teachers Colleges' autonomy with regards to curriculum and examinations, as with the individual programmes by different universities, suggests that the Quality Assurance Framework in place is unambiguous and forms the basis of the standards that obtain in all the institutions. The assumption is that the University of Zimbabwe and the individual universities measure compliance and quality using well known QA frameworks based on well articulated and "universally" acknowledged *Values, Skills, Knowledge and Disposition standards*. This should be the basis of the assumption that all same level trained teachers in Zimbabwe are holders of the same standards irrespective of the institution they come from. If such a situation existed, QA structures at teachers college level, individual university level and the University of Zimbabwe could be more transparent and standards more cohesive, equivalent and enforceable. If all teachers came from such a technically quality-regulated system, they would have reason to feel equal and more confident while education stakeholders would equally be more confident with the system. What exactly obtains in the schools regarding the language standards needs to be revisited to contextualize the last sections of this discussion.

Language proficiency levels and constructs for schools

In the context of tables 1 and 2 above, the ESL curriculum is expected to make reference to the national language policy. In the context of SSA, this should always be grounded on real issues of language proficiency to improve quality because of the challenges around the use of a second language as the language of education. The ESL curriculum must become more specific about the need for proficiency in language of schooling for ESL learners to succeed academically (Cummins 2000, p.59). The curriculum should in turn underpin instructional strategies that will be employed in ESL classrooms, again in a way that QA can be executed effectively. Cummins (2000, p. 59) points out that native speakers of any language come to school at the age of five or so virtually fully competent users of their own language. They have acquired the core grammar of their language and many of the sociolinguistic rules for using it appropriately in familiar social contexts. Significantly however, schools spend another 12 years attempting to extend this basic linguistic repertoire into more specialized domains and functions of language. Academic language proficiency is what the schools focus on with these otherwise proficient functional speakers of their language. The registers that children need to acquire and use effectively in school to progress successfully through the grades are based on academic conventions of different genres of writing such as science reports and persuasive writing. Developing the ability to use these forms of expression effectively is the essential ingredient of academic success. This basically is what should inform the framework of the ESL curriculum in the SSA context where L2 speakers of the LiE come to school at age five to meet the LiE for the first time. It should be imperative that the curriculum contains clearly set out language content and instructional objectives for such learners to succeed in the social practices of schooling.

If this perspective informed the ESL curriculum in SSA, the content could derive a lot and benefit from utilizing related theoretical constructs, what Cummins (p. 1981a) called two intersecting continua highlighting the range of cognitive demands and contextual support involved in particular language tasks or activities based on context-embedded/ context-reduced and cognitively undemanding/ cognitively demanding distinctions of academic and social writing. This is the way benchmarking of the quality of writing, content and context could have an objectified starting premise. Language proficiency and cognitive functioning must be seen as discourses imbedded in particular contexts of use (Perez 1998b, p.23) which are not content or context-free. The constructs of academic language proficiency should refer to access to and expertise in using specific language in educational contexts for academic tasks (Cummins 2000, p.66) which should be reflected in the curriculum.

The key is Academic Language Proficiency which means that language knowledge must be associated with knowledge of the world and Meta cognitive strategies necessary to function effectively in the discourse domain of the school (Chapelle, 1998). This is consistent with the interactionist perspective on language ability as 'the capacity for language use' (Bachman &

Cohen, 1998: 18) in Cummins 2000: 67). Quality assurance for ESL therefore, should largely be based on quality of instructional objectives to develop the oral and written registers of schooling based on the academic framework above. And yet, this is not new at all since distinction between academic (context reduced and cognitively demanding) and conversational (context embedded and cognitively undemanding) proficiency is related to the theoretical distinctions of other theorists who use different terms but refer to the extent to which meaning is either strongly supported by contextual or interpersonal cues (such as gestures, facial expressions, and intonation present in face to face interaction) or supported primarily by linguistic cues that are largely independent of immediate communicative contexts. Here are some of the examples highlighting the linkages between conversational and academic proficiency and similar distinctions.

Cummins (2000, p.60) points out that the Conversational/ academic language distinction (Cummins, 1979b) addresses similar phenomena to distinctions made by theorists such as Vygotsky (1962) (Spontaneous and scientific concepts), Bruner (1975) (Communicative/ analytical competence), Canale (1983a) (Communicative/ autonomous proficiencies), Donaldson (1978) (imbedded and disembedded thought and language, Olson (1997) (utterance and text), Bereiter and Scardamalia (1981) (Conversation / composition), Snow, Cancino, De Temple, and Schley, (1991) (Contextualized and decontextualized language) and Mohan (1986) (Practical and theoretical discourse). As a matter of fact, these related constructs could be utilized to form the basis of curriculum content and instructional objectives and strategies. The question to ask is how much the ESL curriculum in Zimbabwe could be said to relate to or reflect that the conversational/ academic proficiency distinctions informs some aspects of its content and instructional objectives?

Using these constructs will, at least, ensure that the syllabus does not rely on the Functional Approach only but on Communicative and Grammatical-based Approaches that can ensure focus on using specific language for educational contexts and academic tasks. It is such approaches that can ensure that language proficiency and cognitive functioning become discourses imbedded in particular contexts of use (Perez, 1998b: 23) which are not content or context-free (but have specific content in specific contexts). Unfortunately the Zimbabwe primary school syllabus focuses on the development of the conversational and not academic language proficiency and hence the first technical challenge facing the teachers and learners. The primary school syllabus is based on a list of "functional objectives, skills and structures". For example, in the syllabus rubrics, the teacher is reminded to: "remember that the functional objectives of the syllabus are biased towards spoken uses of English" (Ministry of Education Zimbabwe Primary English Syllabus Grade 3; 1986: 3.40). Clearly the focus is to teach English in order to develop learners' functional communicative skills (conversational proficiency). There is no reference to any specific kind of language employed in educational contexts for academic purposes and this leaves no doubt the assumption that language learning can be content and context-free. The reason for this oversight on the part of curriculum developers can be attributed to, among other reasons, a generalized interpretation of CLT and the lack of critical research-based interpretation of the language policy and implications for educational outcomes. The shortcomings of this perspective can be summarized by Gurnulu's (2005) critique of the functional approach to teaching ESL.

Gurnulu says that the Functional Approach represents a simplistic view of communicative competence and fails to address the processes of communication (registers, genres and styles). They often lead to a phase-book approach to teaching that concentrates on teaching expressions and idioms used for different functions (conversational). He continues that students learning from a functional course may have considerable gaps in their grammatical competence because some important grammatical structures may not be elicited by the functions that are taught in the syllabus. In this context this paper advocates the improvement of ESL instructional objectives for better educational outcomes. One way to do this is taking a closer look at CLT to allow explicit structural grammar and grammatical aspects of texts to be taught as suggested by a number of recent studies.

Recent Research studies have highlighted the fact that grammar instruction enables learners to attain high levels of proficiency, both in accuracy and fluency. It was claimed that teacher should provide learners with authentic discourse samples to illustrate all the contextually dependent grammatical rules (Ellis & Celce-Murcia, 2002). This is because students in academic programmes need to perform various academic tasks that require a number of language functions such as explaining, informing, debating, classifying, persuading and evaluating. Academic language has been defined as “the language that is used by teachers and students for the purpose of acquiring new knowledge and skills” (Chamot & O’Malley, as cited in Stewart, 2004, p. 9).

Inside the ESL teachers college syllabus

Sample teachers colleges ESL instructional objectives

Meanwhile in the teachers colleges instructional objectives do not reflect the imagined quality assurance capacity of the universities that regulate colleges’ curricula. A combination of the colleges’ ESL syllabus objectives and the *Functional Syllabus* rubrics will help illustrate the source of the challenges that teachers encounter right from their training programmes to their practising classrooms. Here are the ESL objectives from two colleges training primary school teachers.

College A: Snapshots of ESL objectives

By the end of the course students will be able to:

- Teach English in a variety of stimulating and effective ways
- Develop a positive attitude to the communicative teaching of English and
- Devise and develop language resources

College B

By the end of the course students will be able to:

- Translate theoretical principles of teaching English (L1 and L2) into practice during a lesson
- Adapt theory to suit the needs of the Zimbabwean child in English and language uses
- Teach English effectively
- Evaluate or assess the effectiveness of learning materials, methods and approaches used in classroom teaching
- Appreciate works of literature in teaching language etc.

In the context of QA, what can be said about these as university approved objectives?

All objectives in college A assume that school/ college language is content and context-free – no mention of any knowledge or skill standards, academic writing or expected outcomes through the development of specific skills in the context of schooling to peg quality. Objectives

in college B are largely implicit but although innovative tutors could translate them and produce effective content and strategies otherwise they also make similar assumptions as A. These are examples of curricula that do not clearly guide instructional frameworks. This clearly illustrates how, without systematic curriculum and policy analysis and implementation, effective pedagogy will remain a pipe dream. As these examples illustrate, there is no viable measure of quality that has been used to approve any of these objectives. In terms of what the curriculum should focus on for sustainable quality, their approval does not reflect that “a planned and systematic review process of an institution or programme to determine acceptable standards of education, scholarship and teaching are in force” (AAU (2007).

The two syllabi do not make any specific reference to academic or professional criteria for language of training or schooling. In College B the reference made to the interpretation of existing primary school English syllabus remains muted on the fundamental question of synchrony between curriculum and language policy. In preparing language teachers there is need to expose student teachers to subject knowledge as well as pedagogic content knowledge. Pedagogic content knowledge assists student teachers to transform subject matter into learnable material (Shulman 1986). The colleges syllabi do not seem to contain items that focus on specific subject knowledge or strategies needed to facilitate language teaching and learning. Therefore although the college syllabi generally contain material related to communicative language teaching it would appear that the content items are cast to develop declarative and conversational knowledge rather than the ability to teach ESL in what could translate into effective pedagogy.

Almost all the objectives reflect the autonomous model of literacy (Street 1984, 1995). The autonomous model assumes that literacy consists of a distinct set of skills or cognitive processes that are relatively stable across situations, and social and cultural contexts. Ordinarily the autonomous model of literacy views literacy in terms of reading and writing and studies in this tradition tend to be concerned with the processes which constitute reading and writing (e.g. Cunningham, 1999); and the classroom and environmental factors involved in reading and writing (e.g. Santa, 1999; Bond, 1964). There is a strong argument for proposing that we switch over the ESL curriculum framework from the autonomous to the ideological model which is consistent with both critical curricula and transformative pedagogies. The ideological model asserts that literacy is inherently multiple (‘multiple literacies’) and is informed by social, cultural, political, economic and psychological processes that vary across situations (Bloome & Katz, 2003). Emphasis is therefore placed on the diversity of literacy practices, their connection to social institutions, and their use as agents of social, cultural and political socialization (Luke, 1997). The curriculum should underpin the strategies that can develop Academic Writing more deliberately than currently constituted. This kind of perception is overdue in Zimbabwe since the ecology of language is now more important than the “functional objectives of the syllabus that are biased towards spoken uses of English” (Ministry of Education, Zimbabwe Primary English Syllabus Grade 3 1986:3.40). The present curriculum does not appear to take cognisance of the learners’ social institutions, where the majority of students are rural with social institutions that do not seem to be represented or reflected in the mainstream ESL curriculum. It can be said that there is no adequate emphasis on the development of Academic Writing and the language of schooling as a discrete literacy register that learners will need to acquire in order to succeed in school. Teachers under training are not developed to appreciate the big gap between Conversational and Academic Writing, let alone the existence of a continuum of literacies according to the ideological model. The outlook of the curriculum needs to become genuinely plurilingual or bilingual, underlining the fact that most students have different literacy practices that need to be developed to become validated in the primary domain of literacy; the school. According to Council of Europe 2006, p.5, Plurilingual Education promotes, among others, an awareness of why and how one learns the language one has chosen, the ability to use transferable skills in language learning, a respect for the plurilingualism of others and the value of languages and varieties irrespective of their perceived status in society.

Conclusion

This paper arrives at the conclusion that Quality Assurance will remain an elusive goal in SSA because of the intricate relationship between the language policy matrixes and desired educational outcomes. QA cannot be dealt with outside the purview of the socio-political context because some of the facets of quality are socially and politically contagious and therefore universities and teachers colleges that prepare teachers need to become more inclusive with regards to curriculum implementation. It is important for institutions that prepare teachers to appreciate the SSA context of LiE and learners' proficiency levels that have to be developed to academic levels able to accomplish school tasks successfully after coming to school with no knowledge of that language. Understanding the proficiency standards that learners require against the standards they bring with them to school will be the basis of the institutions' understanding of the language ecology views necessary to promote 21st century trends in ESL teaching. This is the understanding that will determine their choice of language content and instructional objectives for successful ESL teaching. This indicates that Quality Assurance structures and processes should necessarily be more focused while they are made more visible and systematic at all levels. All institutions that run educational programmes should always have well articulated standards of knowledge, skills and dispositions that are informed by long established values of educational development. The Values-based framework above, underpinning care and concern for all pupils, respect for diversity, commitment and dedication to the profession, collaboration, sharing and team spirit, desire for continuous learning, excellence and innovation and above all, the belief that all children can learn is a good starting point. Quality assurance in higher education and in the primary school classroom therefore, must be based on the Knowledge, Skills and Dispositions that ensure that educational outcomes will relate to national social goals that can be sustained into the future.

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THE GENESIS OF QUALITY ASSURANCE SYSTEMS IN HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS IN UGANDA

Proscovia Namubiru Ssentamu (PhD)

Uganda Management Institute, Kampala, Uganda

psnamubiru@umi.ac.ug

Micheal Mawa (PhD)

Nkumba University, Entebbe

mawamike@yahoo.co.uk

Abstract

This paper traces the genesis of Quality Assurance (QA) systems in Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) in Uganda during the pre-liberal, liberal and neo-liberal periods. It also documents good practices and challenges in the institutionalization of QA practices in HEIs in Uganda. Findings show that before the mid1980s, QA systems were based on institutional affiliations following the University of London Model (Materu, 2007; Kasozi, 2003, Musisi, 2003), the Inter-University Council, and later on with the collapse of the University of East Africa in 1970, a strong state control. After the mid1980s, liberalization led to the establishment of HEIs, especially in the private sector which attracted more students. However, this development led to a perennial mismatch between students' numbers and facilities causing a quality crisis in public universities (Report of the Visitation Committee to Public Universities, 2008; Kasozi, 2003). The situation in private universities was not any better.

With the promulgation of the Universities and Other Tertiary Institutions Act (2001) an institutionalized QA system gradually took form. This marked a move from affiliation to accreditation, collegial model to national benchmarks, and a strong mix of external and internal QA systems. Despite the robust QA system provided by the National QA Framework (2006a) of the Uganda National Council for Higher Education, there are variations in the practice of QA in Uganda HEIs with older public HEIs having more robust QA systems, and younger HEIs showing greater commitment to QA practices. However, challenges in the institutionalization of QA systems are evident in HEIs. For instance, staff in HEIs have not fully embraced the culture of QA, and QA officers are not formally trained for the job, since there is currently no provision for such a program in mainstream HEIs. Consequently, QA coordinators have formed a national network as learning and nurturing space in the catalytic process of establishing and maintaining quality standards in HEIs. Future trends point towards a more harmonized QA system in HEIs as taking precedence over many university preoccupations, especially with the strengthening of national and regional HE systems, increased institutional self assessment and auditing, market forces, and mobility of staff and students.

Key words: quality assurance systems, affiliation, accreditation, higher education

Introduction

Higher education is the heart of education, the core of national innovation and development systems and an instrument for poverty eradication (National Development Plan, Republic of Uganda, 2010; Liang, 2004; Republic of Uganda - Poverty Eradication Action Plan, 1999;). As a result of the value attached to higher education, there has been a growth and expansion of Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) in Uganda, as it is the world over. In 1960, Africa had six universities mainly preparing graduates for employment as civil servants. Up to 1987, Makerere University was the only university in Uganda with about 10,000 students. By 2007, Uganda boasted of 145 HEIs, of these 32 were universities with over 155,000 students (Republic of Uganda, NDP, 2010).

The content and delivery of higher education have been transformed in the last decade by a number of global and domestic forces. The major forces include globalization, new technologies, liberalization of education, increased enrolments, cross-border education, market forces in higher education delivery and financing challenges (Uganda Government White Paper on Education, 2008; NCHE, 2008; Mamdani, 2007; NCHE, 2006a; Musisi, 2003). In addition to the above global forces, Uganda HE is faced with a multiplicity of challenges including rapid expansion, high costs in its provision, subvention from public universities, limited staff qualifications and experience, inability to attract the best academic and administrative staff, 47% part time academic staff, low staff salaries, little incentive for research, limited funding for educational inputs, meager education facilities, weak governance, weak management of finances, mushrooming of many for-profit HEIs, overcrowded study areas, lack of infrastructural maintenance, and outdated curricula amidst expanding student enrolment (Republic of Uganda-NDP, 2010; NCHE, 2008; Kasozi, 2003; Musisi, 2003).

The rapid enrolment of students in HEIs and mushrooming of private for-profit higher education providers are perhaps the major compelling factors for the need for a comprehensive QA system in Uganda. A recent study has revealed that enrolment in Uganda's HEIs increased annually between 2000 and 2006, growing by 129% over the period (Wisdom, 2010). Although there has been rapid growth in the number of universities in Uganda from 1 in 1987 to over 30 today, the mismatch between rapid enrolment and capacity of the institutions to provide quality education presents a real challenge. The NCHE acknowledged this challenge in its 2006 Quality Assurance Framework for Uganda Universities lamenting thus:

The increase in enrolments has created many problems, foremost among them is a drop in quality. A survey of institutions of higher learning...indicate that In many institutions, staff qualifications and experience are declining. There is little money for educational inputs. Study areas (classrooms, laboratories, libraries) are overcrowded because of a mismatch between student numbers and facilities. Staff salaries are low and there is little incentive for research. There is little money for the maintenance of infrastructure and few institutions have comprehensive internal quality assurance mechanisms. (NCHE, 2006a: p. 1-2)

The challenges observed by NCHE above not only point to the national challenges in the education system but also to the institutional challenges in providing quality higher education. HEIs in Uganda are grossly underdeveloped, diverse and characterized by a weak culture of quality promotion. There are varying levels in the establishment of structured QA processes within HEIs. Some older HEIs like Makerere University have fully fledged QA Directorates; others like Nkumba University have moderate QA Units, while some others like Kumi University are thinking of establishing an office to coordinate the QA process. What is common in all universities however, is the fact that there is silent resistance from staff towards formal QA mechanisms. Moreover, the capacity of Ugandan HEIs to promote a culture that accepts and

cultivates QA practices is still weak owing to limited qualified staff, funds and other resources necessary for organizing training in QA and for establishing functional QA systems and structures. However, the growing competition for quality graduates who meet the standards of the national, regional and international job markets is impacting greatly on education policy and institutional practices to either formulate or adopt appropriate systems and mechanisms that ensure quality.

Today, Uganda's HEIs is regulated and guided by the Universities and Other Tertiary Institutions Act (UOTIA) which was enacted in 2001, and amended in 2006. With the establishment of the National Council for Higher Education (NCHE) a National QA Framework was set up to guide the quality assurance system in Uganda HEIs. The Framework defines quality assurance as the mechanism put in place to guarantee that education is 'fit for purpose', i.e. is good (NCHE, 2008).

This study explores the genesis of QA systems in HEIs in Uganda, and the policy framework and practices that enhance quality education in these institutions. In the current study, the genesis of QA has been divided into three phases, i.e. the pre-liberal, liberal and the neo-liberal periods. This is because as documented elsewhere, the implementation of quality assurance systems is a consequence of demand for accountability (Mora, 2001), by the state, the market (Mamdani, 2007) and society in general.

Specifically, this study sets out to:

1. trace the QA systems and practices in Uganda from past to present with focus on the following periods:
 - a. the pre-liberal period
 - b. liberal period
 - c. the neo-liberal period
2. document current good practices and challenges in the enhancement of QA in HEIs in Uganda.

Methodology

This study is located within the interpretivist view of understanding meaning and lived reality. The study reviews a variety of key documents including policy documents such as the Universities and Other Tertiary Institutions Act (2001), National Framework for QA entrenched in statutory instruments (2006) and relevant secondary literature. To analyze current QA good practices and challenges at institutional level, the authors reviewed minutes of meetings of the Ugandan Universities Quality Assurance Forum (UUQAF) since its inception in 2010.

The advantage of reviewing written documents is that text material is easily accessible and durable, thereby giving a historical insight. However, unlike speech, text requires more contextualized interpretation (Hodder, 1994). Meaning does not reside in the text, but in the writing and reading. Therefore, prior to analysis, data responses to the same research objectives were organized manually in sets of related themes, ideas and concepts. Data was then analyzed using content analysis, objective by objective. The process involved reading, re-reading, reflection, writing and re-writing to enable the transformation of the lived experiences into a textual of its essence (Morse & Richards, 2002: 147) and bring utterance to the text (Manning & Cullum-Swan, 1994:464). The process assisted the researchers to appreciate emerging patterns and themes in the data, and to give insight and understanding of the QA systems and cultures in HEIs. Triangulation of findings was taken into consideration by

reviewing a variety of policy documents and secondary literature at a local and international level, and by reviewing all the minutes of UUQAF since its inception in 2010.

Hodder (1994) defines document interpretation as interpretation of mute evidence, since there is no interaction with the 'insider'. Once spoken words have been transformed into written text, the gap between the author and the reader widens and the possibility of multiple re-interpretations increases. However, as Hodder (1994:394) notes:

...the writing down of words often allows language and meanings to be controlled more effectively, and to be linked to strategies of centralization and codification...can transcend context and gather through time extended symbolic connotation.

Therefore, in the analysis of written text, the contexts of the written text and the context of the analyst enter into a dialectical relationship (Hodder, *ibid*). Since this is a potential weakness to the validity of qualitative data, follow-up interviews were held with quality assurance coordinators so that the biases inherent in the review of documents could be controlled.

Findings and discussion

The presentation and discussion of the findings is divided into three sections, i.e. pre-liberal, liberal and neo-liberal periods, current QA good practices and challenges facing present-day Uganda HEIs.

HEIs QA systems and practices during the pre-liberal period

The pre-liberal period in this study spans from 1921 to mid 1980s defining higher education QA systems and practices in Uganda. By the mid 1920s when the colonial government, through the recommendations of the Phelps-Stokes Commission (1924), accepted the responsibility to direct and finance education, Uganda's education system was in the hands of missionaries. In 1921, when Makerere was started as a technical college, the colonial government had assumed direct control over education. The technical college, renamed Makerere College in 1922 had 14 day students, offering vocational training in carpentry, building and mechanics. By 1929 Makerere College served the three British colonies, i.e. Kenya, Tanganyika and Uganda (Sicherman, 2005; Ssekamwa, 1997). According to Musisi (2003) and Kasozi, (2003) the curriculum of the technical college accommodated the interests of the colonial government, i.e. to supply government with skilled manpower in various fields. The Uganda Legislative Council passed the 1927 Education Ordinance which spelt out the powers and procedures in the education system by the government (Ssekamwa, 1997), marking the beginning of quality control of education. In 1930s, the College started developing into an institution of higher learning, offering post-school certificate courses. However to ensure quality, students who applied to join Makerere had to undertake a three-year Cambridge School Certificate (CSC) course inaugurated in 1933 as the minimum requirement. Pursuit of meritocracy through a series of Cambridge School Certificate Examinations was detrimental to access and equality of opportunity to, as well as relevance of higher education to majority of students. By 1941, there were only 20 candidates for the CSC in Uganda, and the 10 who passed were the only ones admitted to Makerere (Bell, 1985 in Sicherman, 2005).

The de La War Commission, which in 1937 was assigned to examine the state of higher education in East Africa by the Colonial Office in London recommended the transformation of Makerere Technical College into a university serving East Africa (Ssekamwa, 1997). In the Asquith Report (1945) post World War II recommendations for the development of higher education in British colonies were made to preserve post-colonial influence. The report also recommended the establishment of the Inter-University Council for Higher Education in East

Africa (1946) to facilitate cooperation between British universities and the colonial colleges, especially with regard to staffing and other personnel (Sicherman, 2005:20). Staff on the 'Asquith' colleges enjoyed the same rights as their counterparts at the University of London; however, London had veto power over final examination papers and grading as illustrated below:

Throughout the British sphere of influence, there persisted 'a certain implicit conspiracy to resist major adaptations and to preserve the overall pattern of higher education...found in England (Ashby, 1966, cited in Sicherman, 2005:50).

In 1949, the Makerere College Act was passed which transformed it into a university college enjoying special relationship with University of London. The same Act made provision for government control and administration of the College (Magara, 2009). The University College started offering higher studies courses (Ssekamwa, 1997) that were later transformed into the preliminary course (a two-year A' level) qualifying students to matriculate for University of London degrees. According to Sicherman, (2005) this special relationship represented an international gold standard. As an affiliate, Makerere abode by the quality assurance systems governing the University of London then. At local level, authority over the quality of university education was a function of the governing board and faculty (Materu, 2007). Therefore, whatever was perceived as lowering standards could not be allowed during this 'Special Relationship.' Similar standards were required of Makerere's affiliated schools and field stations such as Serere (Agriculture), Mulago (Medicine), and Entebbe (Veterinary Medicine).

Further examples of QA practices then included recruitment of expatriate teachers experienced in university teaching and institution of stringent student admission standards through pre-entrance examinations written after a two-year course leading to a High School Certificate or A' level examination. Students were required to take English, Mathematics and Social Studies as compulsory subjects. The graduation standards were even more stringent. According to Sicherman (2005), Makerere University College staff drafted examinations that were approved and modified by University of London. University of London also reviewed the scripts marked by the local staff. Although this flexibility gave allowance for the contextualization of the curriculum, anxiety of the local staff '*not to compromise standards kept changes to a minimum*' (p.28). Sicherman adds that there were irregular and minimum visits by examiners and visitors from London. In addition, certain fields were excluded from the 'Special Relationship' for certain arguments advanced by the University of London. Therefore, the quality of the disciplines of Medicine, Veterinary Medicine, Education and Fine Art was distinctively *Makererean*. Insistence on quality rather than quantity perturbed politicians during independence, kept the output low, widened the bridge between graduates and the rest of the community and retarded Africanization (Sicherman, *op cit.*). In addition, apart from Social Studies, which was not examinable by London, there was almost nothing African in the formal curriculum. In essence, there were attempts to manage Makerere following the London model (administrative and intellectual input) and Oxbridge model architectural and social features), none of which was adapted to the local culture and circumstances (Sicherman, 2005).

The Binns Study Group (1951) and the de Bunsen Education Committee (1952) enhanced the co-ordination and supervision of the education system in Uganda (Magara, 2009) and laid emphasis on the Africanization of the civil service structure through modernization and development of education (Sicherman, 2005; Musisi, 2003) increase in schools to enroll more students and raising of the level and of quality of education (Ssekamwa, 1997). Another QA system in pre-liberal Uganda was the establishment of the Makerere Council from 1951.

Despite these and other efforts, some quality issues that were brought to question included the recruitment of British clergy to teach academic subjects and act in administrative positions in which they were incompetent, and inadequate teaching facilities (cited in Sicherman, 2005).

This defeated the notion of 'fit for purpose' typical in QA systems. However, the two major quality assurance pre-occupations of the colonial government were accessibility and relevance. This was because at that time, there was need to prepare students with academic qualifications to fill the gap in government departments as independence was drawing near and expatriates were planning to leave. The question of relevance remains largely un-answered to date (Kasozi, 2003:11).

Ethnicity, nationalism and pan-Africanism accelerated the founding of the Royal Technical College in Nairobi in 1956 and the University College of Dar es Salaam in 1961. Consequently, Makerere College lost its primacy as the sole provider of HE in East Africa. It became one of the three constituent colleges of the Federal University of East Africa (UEA) in 1963 (Musisi, 2003) which marked the end of affiliation to the University of London. The 'Special Relationship' left a legacy of external examiners and a continuation of the Inter-University Council (IUC) currently known as the Inter-University Council for East Africa (IUCEA) as a regulatory and coordinating body of the UEA formally established by the East African Legislative Assembly as a statutory corporate body of the East African Community (Sicherman, 2005:73). The IUC maintained common standards, coordinated academic calendars, arranged external examiners, and exchange programs for staff and students. For the next seven years, in addition to the IUC mandate, the UEA had a single senate, each college specialized in certain professional faculties to avoid duplication, the existing degree structure and curriculum were reviewed, and there were staff exchange programs among the colleges to bring in different skills, interests and outlooks (Sicherman, *op cit.*). Despite these landmarks, the UAE central administration was weak, riddled with clashing aspirations and conflicting educational philosophies. In addition, 40% of the staff establishment in 1965 was expatriates, and there were huge expenses on an elitist tertiary education heavily reliant on donor funding, which funds were mismanaged. Amidst this was increasing enrolment in each of the three countries, which preempted the duplication of courses of study. According to Mamdani (2007) by 1962, educational reform focused on the need to Africanize the academic staff and make the teaching programs relevant. There was hardly any agenda on reforming university finances and governance.

At the dawn of independence, Makerere College had embarked on the journey of nation building through the drive to modernize and develop the newly independent state largely influenced by the Castle Education Commission of 1963 (Musisi, 2003). National planning structures and systems such as the Ministry of Education were established upon the realization of the growing importance of HE in the provision of human capital for economic and social development. Further, the curriculum was diversified and expanded to include among others librarianship, forestry, commerce, law, which in turn led to the growth of other higher education institutions such as the Uganda Technical Colleges (Musisi, 2003). According to Sicherman (2005) by the mid 1960s Makerere University graduates did not look for jobs, rather jobs looked for them. Despite these changes, the teaching and learning process was characterized by top-down pedagogy (Sicherman, *op cit.*) as opposed to inquiry or research-based teaching and learning, which promoted independent thinking.

The Castle Education Commission continued to provide policy guidelines for the education system in Uganda until 1987. In 1969, UNESCO carried out a study to establish priorities in educational development in Uganda, which guided the drafting of the 1970 Education Act. In the same year, with the dissolution of the University of East Africa, the Makerere University Act established Makerere University as an independent national university of the Republic of Uganda, awarding undergraduate and postgraduate degrees. The same Act subordinated the university to full-fledged government control under the Ministry of Education for 'national interest' (Mamdani, 2007:12). However, government control of education was perceived pessimistically by some scholars. For instance, according to Materu (2007);

...in some cases, the increased role of the state in university education contributed to a decline in the quality of higher education as a desire for political control of education,

appointments to management and governing bodies were made largely on political, rather than on merit basis (p.16).

From 1971 to 1985, Uganda had political and economic crises, which marred further developments including higher education. Among the dents left by crises was the flight of expatriates and highly qualified Africans to greener pastures, leaving a professional gap at Makerere University and in all other social service sectors. With the dissolution of the East African Community in 1977, the IUC went into limbo and was rekindled in the late 1990s (Sicherman, 2005). Therefore, this pre-liberal period ended with a sad state of higher education, where the fairly strong quality assurance systems established by the University of London and the Inter-University Council relapsed into the worst ever conditions.

HEIs QA systems and practices during the liberal period

The liberal period in this study is a very brief one starting in 1986 to 2000 with a number of major landmarks, which changed the face of higher education and the new government's economic recovery programs. Among these landmarks was the rehabilitation and expansion of educational infrastructure, reduction in government funding in higher education, and the deregulation of education through liberalization of the sector (Liang, 2004). These moves had both positive and negative impact on the quality of education.

Some scholars have noted that after 1986, education policy was influenced to a large extent by the World Bank Study of education in sub-Saharan Africa (Mamdani, 2007; Musisi, 2003). The World Bank commissioned a study, which proposed the diversification of funding sources, mobilization of revenues from the private sector and through cost sharing, and rigorous control of public funds (Musisi, 2003). In addition, the study recommended a reduction of the role of the state in higher education, the establishment of income-generating units within the university, and shift of state funds from higher education to primary education, (Mamdani, 2007; Musisi, 2003), in the face of increased demand for higher education (Kasozi, 2003). According to Liang (2004) by 2001, about 65% of the total education budget was devoted to primary education. In 1987, the Government set up the Uganda National Education Policy Review Commission, to review the entire education system and recommend new steps. These recommendations formed the basis of the Government White Paper on Education 1992, which has guided the reform and development of the education system in Uganda to date.

Despite the efforts towards recovery, student and staff riots and protests in 1989, led to the closure of Makerere, the only University by then. According to Musisi (2003) the near collapse of higher education resulted due to underfunding, quality and relevance of education, and relations between the education sector and the state. Citing the Report of the Makerere University Visitation Committee (1990-1991), Musisi reports:

...the direct consequences of underfunding were a depleted infrastructure, bare laboratories, empty library shelves, serious shortages in scholastic materials, an impoverished and demoralized teaching staff and a sharp deterioration in the quality of student life (p.616).

In addition to this, there was a rapid increase in student enrolment amidst un-expanded infrastructure. The 1970 University Act had given too much political control over university administration and constrained the university's ability to raise or spend money without government's approval (MUASA 1990-1991; Makerere University Visiting Committee 1990-1991 cited in Musisi 2003). This also undermined stakeholder involvement in the affairs of the university thereby heightening friction and mistrust between the university and the state.

The 1990s onwards witnessed a rapid growth of HEIs in general and private HE in particular. According to Materu (2007), the lack of robust mechanisms to regulate private tertiary providers, problems of educational quality set in including unlicensed private institutions, unqualified academic staff, sub-standard curricula, and lack of essential facilities. He adds;

...calls for a higher quality of graduates from employers, together with governments' recognition of the need to be competitive internationally and to meet the demands of knowledge societies...fueled a ...debate on the need to set national benchmarks linked to world-class standards (p. 18).

In 1993, there was a re-evaluation of the role of government from planning and control towards self regulation and autonomy through decentralization of the governance of HE. This was a result of the IMF-sponsored Structural Adjustment Programs, which advocated budget cuts and replacement of the role of the state by that of the private sector (Musisi, 2003). There was shift away from focus on education towards focus on the production sector, which led to further decline of government funding for higher education. Coupled with this, Musisi (2003) observes a higher education curriculum divorced from the economic and social realities of Uganda, inadequate staff due to brain drain, and low salaries, leading to lack of attraction to take up teaching jobs at the university.

With the gradual deregulation of HE, private universities were licensed by government including the Islamic University in Uganda (1988), Uganda Martyrs University, Nkozi (1992), Nkumba University (1996), Bugema University (1997), Uganda Christian University, Mukono (1997), Busoga University (1998), Mbarara University of Science and Technology (1989), Namasagali University (1999), Ndejje University (1999), Kampala University (2000) and Kampala International University (2001) (Musisi, 2003; Kasozi, 2003). By 2003, the total enrolment in private universities was 25% of the total university registered students (Kasozi, 2003). Currently, there are 27 private and five public universities in Uganda. This not only relieved government as the sole player in the field of higher education, but also created competition for students. Due to demand, HEIs strove after tailoring their curricula to market and societal orientations and shifting away from the traditional university curricula. In addition, HEIs started inclining towards international cooperation than dependence, and encouraging mobility of staff and students. In regard to this shift, Kasozi (2003:6) notes:

The proliferation of private universities in Uganda is significant in that these institutions constitute part of the transformation of Uganda's political system from a highly centralized, regulated and dictatorial one to one that is decentralized, inclusive and partly market-driven.

Despite the political, social and economic advantages the liberal period brought to HE, a number of challenges have been documented including very low tertiary level coverage, outmoded higher education curriculum irrelevant to the needs of the economy, unqualified and demotivated academic staff, absence of policy framework and strategic plan for higher education, weak governance and accountability structures, and weak financial management systems (Liang, 2004, Kasozi, 2003).

It is worthwhile to note that by 1987, higher education in Uganda was largely state-controlled and funded with Makerere as the sole university. The aim of control was to have a standardized education system that was accessible to all and to which government was accountable. However, there was no functioning quality assurance mechanisms (save for the traditional academic controls in the institutions), which contributed to lack of accountability throughout the system. Liang (2004) notes that lack of quality assurance mechanisms and management

systems could be primarily attributed to the unbalanced power structure at the central government and within individual institutions. At institutional level, most HEIs had governing boards and senates, although the governance system differed greatly by the kind of institution, and most board members did not have the power or the capability to voice their opinions (Liang, 2004). Hence, most decisions were made directly by the heads of the institutions. Liang (*op cit.*) further notes that institutional governance was lacking flexibility for reform due to either too much complexity or autonomy in some public universities or too direct government controls and regulations in other tertiary institutions.

HEIs QA systems and practices during the neo-liberal period: The Legal and Policy Regime for QA Systems in Uganda

The neo-liberal period for HE in this study stems from 2001 to date. The major landmark initiating this phase was the promulgation of the Universities and Other Tertiary Institutions Act, 2001. A significant characteristic of the neo-liberal period in Uganda's HE system is the liberalization legacy of rapid growth of HEIs and increased student enrolment. This was a result of Government public-sector reforms of liberalization, deregulation, and decentralization that created opportunities for the establishment of privately owned HEIs (Musisi, 2003). As Kasozi (2003:6) states;

The Universities and Other Tertiary Institutions Act (2001) gives the merging private and public universities the needed general parameters within which to operate. Through this legal framework, government is expected to guide rather than control universities.

Rapid growth of higher education has, according to Kasozi (*op cit.*), coincided with rapid increase in knowledge '*based on digital methods of data creation, storage and transmission*' (2003:8). This gave birth to a diversified HE system and transfer of HE from the elite to the masses (massification). According to the Government Paper on Education (2008), total enrolment in Uganda's tertiary institutions in 2006 was 137,190 of whom 79,469 (55.3%) were male and 57,721 (44.7%) were female. Of these, 124,260 (91%) were Ugandans and 12,950 (9%) were foreign students. This expansion has implications on the administration and academic affairs of HEIs, as well as funding and student welfare and management.

According to the report of the Visitation Committee to Public Universities (2008) and the Uganda Government White Paper on Education, (2008:22) the current mismatch of students numbers and facilities is the major cause of the developing quality crisis in public universities. Accordingly, Kasozi (2003:43) advises that our higher education system needs massive additional educational facilities in order to cope with the swarming numbers of eligible applicants and at the same time deliver quality education. The system must mobilize the resources to satisfy demand and to make the curriculum emphasize subject that are key to economic development (*op cit*, 49).

By 2000, it was apparent that the quality of higher education in Uganda had declined owing to numerous problems. According to Materu (2007), the problems of educational quality stemming from the rapid growth of private higher education in the 1990s included unlicensed private institutions, unqualified academic staff, sub-standard curricula, and lack of essential facilities. Consequently, the pressure from all stakeholders (government, labour market, academics and the general society) to establish national quality assurance mechanisms to regulate higher education became unbearable.

In 2001, the Government of Uganda passed the Universities and Other Tertiary Institutions Act in response to the need to regulate the higher education sector. The main objects of the Act are to:

establish and develop a system governing institutions of higher education in order to equate qualifications of the same or similar courses offered by different institutions of higher education while at the same time respecting the autonomy and academic freedom of the Institutions and to widen the accessibility of high quality standard institutions to students wishing to pursue higher education courses by:

- (a) regulating and guiding the establishment and management of those institutions;
- (b) equating the same professional or other qualifications as well as the award of degrees, diplomas, certificates and other awards by the different institutions (p.2).

The enactment of this act set the process for the actual establishment of a National Regulatory Agency: The National Council for Higher Education (NCHE), to regulate the quality of higher education in Uganda. The regulatory mandate of the Council is derived from two major roles provided by the Act, as cited above. In effect, the Act has given the National Council for Higher Education powers to monitor, evaluate and regulate the quality of higher education in Uganda. To achieve this important task, the NCHE has now put in place a Quality Assurance Framework, consisting of the following components:

1. The regulatory components which cover: (a) institutional accreditation, (b) accreditation of programmes, (c) merit-based admission of students to institutions of higher learning, (d) credit accumulation and transfer system, (e) research and publications, (f) staff development, (g) minimum requirements for courses and programmes, (h) examination regulations and awards standardization, (i) students' assessment of their academic staff and (j) physical infrastructures.
2. Measures for Quality Assurance at the level of the institutions consist of institutional audits and their criteria. These criteria concern: (a) institutional governance, (b) the quality of teaching and learning, (c) the quality of the academic staff , (d) the sufficiency of education facilities, (e) research and publication, (f) the quality of outputs, (g) the institutions' financial management, (h) the university and the community. (NCHE, 2006)

To bring all the above quality measures into play, relevant statutory instruments including statutory instrument 84 of 2005 have now been adopted by the Council to guide institutions and to provide clear indicators of capacity for the HEIs. The framework for institutional and program accreditations provide for a comprehensive process of quality assurance. The process for institutional accreditation entails a detailed assessment of the capacity of the institution to provide higher education. It covers all aspects of quality including governance, facilities, financial health, staffing among others and they are measured by the indicators already developed. As far as academic programs are concerned, the Council has published minimum standards for courses of study, a foundation for Credit Accumulation and Transfer (CAT) in the country and the East African higher education region. The minimum standards are indeed, basic standards to measure the quality of academic programs in terms of aims, learning outcomes, content, delivery and assessment of students. The Council's minimum standards are the basis for academic program accreditation in accordance with the Act which provides in section 119A that *"no person shall operate a University, other Degree Awarding or a Tertiary Institution without the prior accreditation of its academic and professional programmes by the National Council for Higher Education."*

Another critical area of quality measure for regulation by NCHE is the capacity of the academic staff. As Materu rightly observed, *“a tertiary institution is only as good as the quality of its teaching staff - they are the heart of the institution who produce its graduates, its research products, and its service to the institution, community and nation”* (Materu, 2007: 3). In recognition of this critical input to the quality of higher education, the NCHE Quality Assurance Framework has developed a qualification framework for academic staff in universities for various academic and research positions with their entry qualifications and promotion requirements. Accordingly, the quality of academic staff of any HEI in Uganda can now be measured for adequacy, relevance and suitability based on the indicators published.

To establish whether or not an institution has complied with the requirements set by the NCHE Quality Assurance Framework, a process of internal and external institutional and program assessment or evaluation has been established. The framework provides for regular cycle of audits and as and when it is necessary to do such an audit. Because of the inadequacy of trained and experienced peer evaluators in the country and the cost prohibiting invitation of external experts, the Council depends largely on a pool of local experts drawn from the very institutions whose staff capacity is limited.

It can be observed from the analysis above that the regulatory component of the Quality Assurance Framework pays great attention to quality of inputs and less on the process and output. Indeed, the Quality Assurance Framework is clear on this when it states *“[t]he responsibility of the National Council for Higher Education is to establish value-adding systems of external evaluation, which can validate institutional information on effectiveness of internal quality arrangements.”* Consequently, the *“institutions are primarily responsible for quality and quality management”* (NCHE, 2006: 17). This clear assignment of responsibility for quality and quality management to the institution sets the tone for the second level of the quality assurance framework. The most basic of the requirements at this level is for each *“university institution [to] have an independent quality assurance unit that sets quality assurance control guidelines in a university and that continuously reviews all programmes, teaching and assessments”* (op. cit.).

It is worth noting that the institutionalization and operationalization of the Quality Assurance Framework in Uganda has taken two major directions. First, the traditional structures and mechanisms of institutional governance continue to play a dominant role in ensuring quality of the education provided. The management structures provide the legal and organizational framework within which administrative decisions are made; they set the extent and limits of power of various players in the administration of the institution including councils, the senate, the academic boards, and student and staff unions, among others (Kasozi, 2003, 101).

In nearly all universities, the University Council is the supreme body of the university. The Council is responsible for the administration and proper and efficient conduct of the University under its charge. It oversees University policy formulation and implementation, with the duties of supervising University budgets, reviewing education performance, overseeing student and staff discipline, and making plans for school facilities. The Council executes its duties through various committees, including Finance and Planning, the Appointments Board and Senate (Magara, 2009:26). The senate is the academic powerhouse of a university. Its role is to design and regulate academic policy including research, transmission of knowledge, admissions, examinations, the conferment of degrees, rules pertaining to academic standards, among others (Kasozi, 2003, 104). The Senate also conducts its business through a committee system. These committees include those for Admissions, Ceremonies and Honorary Degrees, Staff Development, Research and Higher degrees (Magara, 2009:26).

A central traditional organ in the management of quality education is the faculty or school with its academic departments. As Kasozi (2003, 105) has rightly observed, the departments are to universities what families are to a social organization. They are the basic organizational units whose health determines the health and credibility of a university. They are the initiators of academic policies in the university, thus bringing changes in academic programmes, teaching

methods, examinations, and admissions. In the end, the academic units are the initiators, implementers, and primary self-evaluators of the quality of education in HEIs. Hence, the institutionalization and operationalisation of the national QA Framework must not relegate but strengthen the role of the traditional structures of institutional management as well as the new QA units in order to achieve total quality management.

The second direction in the institutionalization of quality assurance systems in HEIs in Uganda is evidenced by the establishment of independent quality assurance units (as recommended by the NCHE Quality Assurance Framework) and the formation of relevant quality assurance committees to guide the operations of these units. These QA Units have taken the form of directorates or Coordinating Offices depending on the organizational structure of each HEI. It is generally accepted that the role of quality assurance units is to monitor, control, evaluate, assess, and coordinate quality assurance processes and practices in the HEI. The NCHE Quality Assurance Framework provides that each university institution shall have an independent quality assurance unit that sets quality assurance control guidelines in a university and that continuously review all programmes, teaching and assessments (NCHE, 2006, 17). In addition to being the initiator and monitor of quality standards, the quality assurance unit is the technical unit of a university providing technical guidance and advice to implementing centers to ensure compliance to set quality standards adopted and approved by the relevant structures/organs of the institution including the Quality Assurance Committees of senate.

Today, most universities have established quality assurance committees. The roles of quality assurance committees vary widely from institution to institution but they relate to establishing, monitoring, assessing and promoting quality standards in the institution. For Makerere University, the quality assurance committee was established to perform four major roles:

- i) To promote a quality culture at the University;
- ii) To establish and monitor quality standards and practices;
- iii) To review and evaluate quality assurance system and procedures;
- iv) To attend to specific recommendations as required from time to time by Council and Senate on Quality Assurance Issues. (Makerere University Quality Assurance Policy Framework, 2007)

To a large extent, the contemporary quality assurance structures (QA Units and Committees) at the institutional level have taken up the quality assurance functions of the traditional organs in the university but with much focus to their quality role as guided by established quality standards. These internal quality mechanisms are complimented with external quality indicators set by the NCHE, IUCEA, local and international agencies for professional fields. The external agencies are critical on governance, land, financial health, programs offered in the HEIs, the quality of students and graduates, the quality of academic staff, the library, laboratories, infrastructure and cross cutting issues such as gender. Compliance to the set standards of the national regulatory agency and other professional bodies is unfortunately mandatory on the basis of their regulatory mandate. However, one strong theme that emerges from international experience is that quality assurance systems that overly rely on compliance to externally-imposed regulation may work against the interest of quality development in universities. This is partly because academics are intrinsically motivated, accustomed to autonomy and oriented towards a tradition of collegial peer evaluation. It is also because of the drain that compliance systems place on participating institutions; it has been argued that these sorts of quality assurance regimes require an unacceptable sacrifice of time by academic staff who would otherwise be conducting the primary functions of teaching and research (Hall, 2005).

A new development has however occurred in the national quality assurance systems marked with the establishment of a voluntary agency, the Ugandan Universities Quality Assurance Forum (UUQAF), to nurture rather than regulate quality in HEIs in Uganda. The generic object of this quality assurance networks is to facilitate exchange of information and disseminate best practice in quality assurance and to provide a platform for discussion and exchange of experiences among QA Coordinators and other stakeholders in quality assurance in higher education. UUQAF was established on these very generic objects. We now turn our discussion to UUQAF in our exploration on the genesis of quality assurance in Uganda.

The Ugandan Universities Quality Assurance Forum (UUQAF): Documenting the Good Practice in Quality Assurance

UUQAF is a network of active QA coordinators/directors established as an outcome of training workshops organized by the Inter-university Council for East Africa (IUCEA) and the German Academic Exchange Program (DAAD) in 2007 and 2008. Following the successful training of 15 quality assurance officers in the University of Oldenburge - Germany and within East Africa, a group of six of these officers met in Kampala in 2010 and agreed to establish a national QA network of all QA Coordinators in HEIs. After a series of meetings and documentation, it was agreed that the network be called Ugandan Universities Quality Assurance Forum and membership opened to all HEIs recognized by the NCHE as Degree Awarding Institutions. Currently, the Network has members from about 21 HEIs. The Network is gradually moving from an informal to a formally registered organization.

The birth of UUQAF as a voluntary organization for quality assurance is a significant milestone in the genesis of QA in Uganda. The Forum has set its goal and objectives clear in order to guide its efforts in establishing and maintaining quality in Ugandan Universities and other degree awarding institutions in line with national, regional and international regulations. It is envisaged that this will be achieved through sharing of experiences on QA among QA officers; Promotion of awareness on the relevance of QA matters in institutions of higher learning; training of QA Officers on practical skills in managing QA Units; sharing of expertise; mentoring of QA officers and undertaking of research on immersing QA issues; among others.

At the time of undertaking the current study, seven meetings had been held by UUQAF. These meetings have provided the members with significant opportunities for sharing experiences, creating awareness on QA issues, garnering support from member institutions and for document development. It is evident that the purposes of such meetings have progressively moved from establishing rapport to more official agenda.

During the sharing of experiences in the meetings, individual members were invited to give an account of the status, achievements and challenges of QA in their respective institutions. Below, we provide an analysis of the status of institutionalizing quality assurance and quality management in some universities in Uganda. The analysis pays particular attention to QA structures and units, capacity of the QA units in terms of space, personnel and funding, policy frameworks and QA activities being carried out in HEIs in Uganda while highlighting the daunting challenges of enhancing quality at the institutional level.

i) QA structures and units:

From the experience sharing, it is revealing that most HEIs in Uganda have established the new forms of QA structures and systems. These QA structures have varying sizes, from QA Boards, through QA Committees to QA working teams with deferring mandates depending on the size of the institution. At Kyambogo University, for instance, there is a QA Board in place while Makerere University, Nkumba University and Busoga University have QA Committees of Senate. Uganda Martyrs University has a QA core team that works in collaboration with the curriculum review committee. In some institutions, QA Committees are entrenched in the

various faculties, schools, institutes and centers while in other institutions such QA structures are being established.

A core requirement of the NCHE Quality Assurance Framework is the establishment of Quality Assurance Units responsible for quality control and coordination at the institutional level. Our study has revealed that most institutions have established QA units but of varying sizes. Three kinds of QA units are noticeable: Quality Assurance Directorates, Quality Assurance Units and Quality Assurance Offices. The choice of the kind of unit to establish is largely determined by the size of the institution, resource availability and the institutional organizational structure in place. So far, Makerere University is the only institution with a fully fledged Quality Assurance Directorate. Other universities like Nkumba University are yet to transform their existing QA units into directorates. Most institutions surveyed have quality assurance units and offices in place.

ii) Capacity of QA units:

The capacity of QA Units in Ugandan Institutions is generally weak owing to limited resources, skills and work overload. Some institutions are run by one person while others are managed by an average of three persons. There is office space allocated to QA Units with the necessary furniture and equipment in most institutions. Funding support to the QA Units was found to vary from institution to institution. Some institutions run approved QA budgets while others have no separate budgetary allocations for QA Units. Most QA Units however, are found to receive considerable support from the top leadership of the respective institution.

iii) QA policies:

The role of policies in the promotion of quality education in HEIs cannot be underestimated. Quality assurance policy frameworks help to establish in an institution a more structured and harmonized quality assurance system. In our survey of the HEIs in Uganda, attention was paid to the status of formulation, adoption and implementation of quality assurance policies. The data shows that quality assurance policies in HEIs in Uganda are in various breath of coverage of quality assurance aspects. Some institutions have adopted more comprehensive policy framework while other institutions have developed specific policies for specific education standards. Moreover, quality assurance policies in Uganda are at different stages of development, adoption and implementation.

iv) QA activities in HEIs in Uganda:

With or without the quality assurance policies in place, HEIs in Uganda are today actively involved in quality assurance activities of standards setting, monitoring and evaluation of educational standards as well as promoting the quality culture among staff. With the assistance of IUCEA and DAAD and continued technical guidance from NCHE, some fifteen universities in Uganda participated actively in self-assessment of programmes in 2007 and 2008. These programmes were latter peer assessed by experts drawn from East Africa, southern Africa as well as Europe. Although most institutions would wish to continue with this positive QA practice, the costs of undertaking such exercises are prohibitive. Similarly, QA trainings, which have generally been recognized as central to the promotion of quality culture and for developing specific skills in quality assurance, are found to be costly. Owing to this challenge of funding QA processes and activities, some universities in Uganda have relied on the use of local experts to provide training. It is this good practice that UQAF hopes to build on in enhancing the capacity of QA Coordinators in Uganda.

Conclusion

The genesis of QA in Uganda's higher education cannot be divorced from the growth and development of higher education itself. From the foregone discussion, the quality assurance system in Uganda HE has gone through tumultuous periods from external quality assurance at international and regional levels, tight state control, market forces, institutional controls, and eventually to a hybrid of institutional autonomy under state and market regulation. It is therefore evident that quality assurance systems are determined by the politics at the institutional, national, regional and global levels. Changes in the governance, content and delivery of programs, as well as changes in the demand on higher education lead to changes in QA systems and practices. Whatever the changes, these present with them both strengths and limitations to quality assurance at each level.

The pre-liberal period was primarily external through the special relationship between Makerere College and the University of London until independence. University of London played a significant role in ensuring quality education through control of the curriculum, selection of academic and administrative staff, specifying student admission criteria and regulating the assessment and examination system in the pursuit of golden international standards. Although the two major preoccupations of education at the time were accessibility and relevance, such control limited student admission and brought to question the relevance of the curriculum to an African. Among the quality assurance legacies the pre-liberal period left was the establishment of the Inter-University Council as a regulatory and coordinating body of the University of East Africa. The Council maintained common standards, coordinated academic calendars, arranged external examiners and staff and student exchange programs. The post-independence period witnessed strong state control of education as provided for by the 1970 Education/Makerere Act. With the political and economic crises of 1971-1985, the quality assurance system collapsed due to the flight of expatriates and highly qualified Africans, breakdown of the social services sector and dilapidation of infrastructure.

The liberal period saw the gradual recovery of the economy, and with the recommendations of the World Bank and the IMF-funded Structural Adjustment Program in Sub-Saharan Africa, which were cemented in the Government White Paper on Education (1992), there were key policy shifts which led to the deregulation of government control of education, reduction of funding higher education, and the ushering in of the private sector as a key player in education. Although the shifts responded to the question of accessibility to education, limited government subvention and the poor relationships between education institutes and the government in the absence of a policy framework and strategy for higher education grossly affected the provision of quality education.

In the neo-liberal period, there is the emergency of legal and policy regime to regulate a mix of institution and government-led quality assurance systems given the heavy presence of the private sector as a key player in higher education. As stated in the Quality Assurance Framework of the NCHE (2006), the responsibility for assuring quality lies with each individual institution in partnership with the NCHE, the statutory regulatory authority for higher education in Uganda. The internal QA model is encouraged to give individual HEI context and specialization, and at the same time nurture differentiation. Therefore, QA Units are engaged in a continuous negotiation and dialogue between the internal and external QA mechanisms, taking into account the internal strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats. QA therefore takes the form of vertical and horizontal accountability.

UUQAF provides learning and nurturing spaces for HEIs QA Officers and Directors, a forum to access updates on QA policies and practices, and interface with HEIs administrators and staff, the NCHE, and other players at the regional and international levels. Among the codes of practice for the UUQAF members is one common voice, togetherness, unity, mutual understanding and common ideology for enhanced capacity for quality assurance in Uganda.

Despite these developments, majority of the HEIs do not have fully fledged QA structures in place, QA officers, directors, and coordinators do part time work in the Unit. This implies that the ToR for the establishment of a QA structure are largely unclear in majority of HEIs whether public, private. However, the impact is much more felt in younger HEIs.

Two conjectures can be formed about the future of QA in Uganda's HEI. The first is a move towards a blurring of the internal and external QA mechanisms with the internal mechanisms moving towards a more integrated and better coordinated model driven by the QA Units. However, this depends on how well universities comply and are at the same time flexible. When this is nurtured, it will lead to diversity of standardized QA systems. The second conjecture is likely to apply when HEIs fail to comply leading towards strongly centralized and standardized forms of QA.

Considering the observed and documented challenges of weak skills capacity, limited funding, and lack of convincing evidence of the direct impact of QA on educational quality and relevance of graduates (Materu, 2007: 58), there is need to mount short training programs on QA at certificate and diploma levels. Skills in monitoring and evaluation, planning negotiation, conflict management and resolution, communication, analysis etc. could be emphasized in these programs. Since history has proved that limited funding affects the quality of educational services, there is need for education service providers (public and private) to increase the budget for quality assurance activities both at the National Council for Higher Education and at institutional levels. The National Council for Higher Education and individual institutional need to conduct tracer studies as well as involve a cross section of stakeholders in curriculum development and revision. The current move by government to strengthen the public-private sector partnership should also be encouraged to grow naturally. Voluntary QA networks such as UUQAF must continue to organize and mobilize the necessary efforts, resources, expertise and commitment to promote quality assurance practices in HEIs in Uganda. Only this way, can we truly celebrate the achievement of quality higher education in Uganda.

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THE INTERNATIONAL ACADEMIC PROFESSION: PICTURE EMERGING FROM THE CAP SURVEY

Prof. C.C. Wolhuter

Faculty of Educational Sciences
North-West University, Potchefstroom Campus, South Africa

Charl.Wolhuter@nwu.ac.za

Abstract

The aim of this research is to report on the state of the international academic profession, as the picture emerges from the international CAP (Changing Academic Profession) survey of the academic profession in 18 countries. The following facets of the academic profession are focused upon:

- *their teaching activities*
- *their research activities*
- *their relationship with institutional governance, and*
- *their job satisfaction*

Introduction

To the nascent knowledge society – that is a society where the axial principle of economic organization is the production of new knowledge *cf.* World Bank, 2002 (taking over from the service sector, which in turn took over from manufacturing, before that agriculture, and before agriculture, hunting and gathering, the higher education sector, and with that the academic profession as one of the key components, is assuming ever bigger importance. During the past two decades, higher education worldwide has been subject to an array of changes. These changes have been driven by the following societal trends: demographical trends (especially the population explosion still playing out itself in the developing countries) the protracted international economic upswing which commenced in 1990 and carried on for almost two decades, the information and communications technology revolution, the neo-liberal economic revolution, and democratization (*cf.* Wolhuter *et al.*, 2010). These societal trends resulted in an international higher education revolution characterized by the following: massification, competition and differentiation, shifts from state funding to students and industry, changing state-university relations, managerialism, democratization, internationalization, changed content of teaching and learning, and changed methods of teaching and learning (*cf.* Wolhuter, 2011). It is against the backdrop that the international CAP (Changing Academic Profession) survey of the academic profession has just been completed in 18 countries: Argentina, Brazil, Mexico, the United States of America (USA), Canada, The United Kingdom (UK), Germany, Finland, Norway, Portugal, Italy, China, Hong Kong, Japan, South Korea, Malaysia, Australia and South

Africa. Samples of the academic profession in these countries have completed the questionnaire of the CAP survey (2007). The results have been weighed to account by institutional type, gender, academic field and institutional type so as to ensure generalizability to national academic profession populations. The results were released in 2011; and the paper report on the following aspects of the academic profession: teaching, research, relations with institutional management and job satisfaction.

Teaching activities

Respondents of the eighteen countries' answers to questions as to the hours per week they spend on teaching activities, and the mean number of students in undergraduate programmes, are presented in table 1.

Table 1 Teaching activities of academics

Country	Mean number of hours per week on teaching activities during academic year, when classes are in session (these include preparation of lecturers, actual lecturing, assessing student work and counseling students)	Average number of students taught in undergraduate study programmes
Canada	19.6	59.0
USA	20.9	37.2
Finland	16.3	40.3
Germany	12.7	68.6
Italy	18.1	59.6
Norway	11.4	62.8
Portugal	20.1	57.0
UK	16.1	81.6
Australia	12.5	219.3
Japan	19.4	71.2
Argentina	13.8	125.3
Brazil	20.1	49.7
Mexico	21.3	26.8
South Africa	20.3	243.6
China	19.6	99.2
Hong Kong	20.2	55.9
South Korea	20.4	46.4
Malaysia	17.4	86.4

Research activities

The number of hours per week which respondents of the various countries spend conducting research, and their research outputs, are presented in table 2.

Table 2 Research activities of academics

Country	Hours per week which respondents spend doing research during academic year, i.e. when classes are in session	Number of journal articles published in the three year period up to the survey
Canada	16.0	6.4
USA	11.9	4.1
Finland	16.6	4.6
Germany	16.9	6.2
Italy	17.3	9.1
Norway	14.3	4.8
Portugal	11.6	4.2
UK	13.4	5.4
Australia	13.9	7.0
Japan	16.4	8.9
Argentina	15.9	4.8
Brazil	9.0	4.4
Mexico	9.1	2.8
South Africa	8.8	3.0
China	12.4	7.3
Hong Kong	14.2	8.7
South Korea	18.3	11.3
Malaysia	7.5	5.0

Relations with institutional management

Respondents' responses to questions pertaining to relations with institutional management are presented in table 3.

Table 3 Academics' relations with institutional management

Country	Mean answer on 5 point scale ranging from 1: strongly agree to 5: strongly disagree (In brackets: percentages of respondents who indicated agreement i.e. who chose options 1 or 2)					
Canada	2.4	(44)	2.2	(65)	2.4	(60)
USA	2.2	(65)	2.4	(56)	2.4	(61)
Finland	2.4	(56)	2.3	(59)	3.3	(22)
Germany	2.8	(43)	2.1	(69)	2.9	(34)
Italy	2.05	(52)	2.4	(53)	2.6	(47)
Norway	3.3	(28)	2.4	(55)	3.0	(31)
Portugal	2.6	(48)	2.3	(58)	2.9	(36)
UK	2.1	(68)	1.9	(73)	2.9	(39)
Australia	1.9	(74)	1.9	(76)	3.0	(38)
Japan	2.4	(57)	2.1	(69)	2.4	(55)
Argentina	2.8	(42)	2.5	(51)	2.2	(63)
Brazil	2.4	(55)	2.7	(44)	2.7	(47)
Mexico	2.5	(54)	2.8	(44)	1.9	(76)
South Africa	2.1	(68)	2.2	(61)	3.3	(26)
China	2.6	(45)	2.4	(53)	2.5	(54)
Hong Kong	2.0	(72)	2.2	(60)	2.5	(53)
South Korea	2.4	(54)	2.5	(50)	2.5	(50)
Malaysia	2.3	(60)	2.7	(41)	2.8	(41)

Job satisfaction

Respondents' answers to questions pertaining to job satisfaction are presented in table 4.

Table 4 Academics' job satisfaction

Country	Average response to question : "How would you rate your overall satisfaction with your current job? On 5 point scale ranging from 1: very high – 5: very low (in brackets percentage of respondents who indicated high) very high (i.e. options 1 or 2)		Average response to question : "How would you rate your overall satisfaction with your current job? On 5 point scale ranging from 1: very high – 5: very low (in brackets percentage of respondents who indicated high) very high (i.e. options 1 or 2)	
Canada	2.1	(74)	4.2	(11)
USA	2.3	(64)	4.1	(10)
Finland	2.3	(67)	3.8	(16)
Germany	2.5	(57)	3.9	(18)
Italy	2.2	(64)	4.2	(11)
Norway	2.2	(68)	3.8	(16)
Portugal	2.7	(50)	3.6	(23)
UK	2.7	(45)	3.4	(25)
Australia	2.6	(55)	3.6	(21)
Japan	2.4	(68)	3.7	(12)
Argentina	2.3	(64)	4.5	(7)
Brazil	2.3	(64)	4.0	(15)
Mexico	1.8	(87)	4.5	(10)
South Africa	2.6	(51)	3.6	(23)
China	2.5	(57)	3.7	(21)
Hong Kong	2.4	(63)	3.8	(16)
South Korea	2.1	(76)	4.0	(8)
Malaysia	2.3	(66)	4.2	(10)

Discussion

The teaching-research symbiosis which has historically defined the nature of the university and its functions, persists in the activities of contemporary academics. They spend substantial parts of their working time teaching (and attendant activities) and conducting research. The same, unfortunately, does not apply to the autonomy and freedom which the academic profession has traditionally enjoyed. They now find themselves in an environment characterized by managerialism. This is having a very detrimental effect on their job satisfaction.

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QUALITY ASSURANCE IN UGANDAN PUBLIC HIGHER EDUCATION; THE FUNDING QUESTION

Tuyizere Alice Peace

**Department of Humanities and Language Education;
College of Education and External Studies, Makerere University,
Kampala, Uganda.**

peacetuyizere@yahoo.com

Abstract

The purpose of the study was to establish a baseline on the status of quality assurance in higher education in Uganda in the context of funding. In Uganda ,rapid growth in enrollments amidst declining budgets during the 1970's-1990's, the proliferation of private provision of higher education and pressure from a rapidly transforming labor market have combined to raise new concerns about quality in institutions of higher learning. Higher education witnessed a long period of relative neglect and stagnation, due to political upheavals; collapse of economic structure and systems and government reduction on expenditure on higher education. Unfortunately, all these factors resulted in a gross decline in the quality of higher education in Ugandan universities. This decline came up at a time when higher education was experiencing inadequate funding amidst escalating enrolments, declining resources, academic brain-drain among others. The World Bank (2001) and Kasozi (2009) noted that fiscal constraints, faced by many countries, coupled with increasing demand, has led to overcrowding, deteriorating infrastructure, poor remuneration for staff; lack of resources for non-salary expenditures, such as textbooks and laboratory equipment and a decline in the quality of teaching and research activities, in many universities. Quality assurance in higher education is the planned and systematic review process of an institution or programme to determine that acceptable standards of education, scholarship, teaching, research, administration and infrastructure are being maintained and enhanced. It was identified as an issue that needed urgent attention for the revitalization of higher education in Uganda. The increase in enrollment of students and commercialization of higher education has led to the public perception that private universities are profit driven and therefore the education offered by these institutions is inferior, leading to universities becoming more oriented to profit making. Mechanisms for assuring the quality of education, quality delivery methods, quality assessments of examinations, quality research outputs and quality of graduates remains a question of the day, amidst underfunding of higher education, underpayment of the teaching staff and the high demand for higher education rising from Universal Primary Education (UPE) and Universal Secondary Education (USE), needed to be put in place to address problems of deteriorating standards in higher education.

Introduction

Globally, the demand for higher education is on the increase; more than 80 million tertiary students pursue their studies and pay their tuition fees .Annual income from tuition fees is estimated to be over US\$30 billion, increasingly from private sources. In South Korea, for

example, 75 percent of tertiary education is privately funded. In Australia, tuition fees contribute more than US\$4 billion annually to Gross Domestic Product. (GDP), surpassing the earnings of the country's main agricultural products (wool and wheat). The USA presently hosts about 586,000 international students, most of whom pay tuition and fees. Global annual spending on tertiary education amounts to about US\$300 billion or 1 percent of global economic output. However, many higher education institutions lack a system to ensure that programs offered are relevant to the socioeconomic needs of the societies they serve. Rapid growth of tertiary enrollment without a matching increase in funding is a global trend which is also reflected on the African continent (Materu 2006). International concerns about how to maintain quality control in an environment that increasingly puts acute pressure on the traditional modes of teaching, research, learning and management have forced developed countries to adopt a formal, transparent and credible systems of quality assurance with external verification of outcomes and processes (Makerere University, 2007).

In Africa, most governments still fund higher education in public universities, but the funding is inadequate for realization of quality education. Knowledge has become a key driver of growth and development. Countries with quality higher education are well funded and produce higher skill levels which are better equipped to face new challenges and master technological discoveries for example developed countries such as USA, European countries, china, India. A major challenge faced by governments throughout the world, in both industrialized and developing countries, is how to reform the financing of higher education in response to the pressures of rising public and private demand for admission to higher and heavily constrained public budgets. Between 1985 and 2002, the number of tertiary students increased by 3.6 times (from 800 thousand to about 3 million), on average by about 15 percent yearly. This trend was led by Rwanda (55 percent), Namibia (46 percent), Uganda (37 percent), Tanzania (32 percent), Cote d'Ivoire (28 percent), Kenya (27 percent), Chad (27 percent), Botswana (22 percent) and Cameroon (22 percent).

Because public investment has not been able to keep up with this frantic pace, private investment in tertiary education is also on the rise in Africa. Out of roughly 300 universities operating today in Sub-Saharan Africa, about one-third are privately funded. The majority of these have been established since the year 2000 (Materu 2007, Ministry of Education and Sports, 2008). Private participation in tertiary education has undoubtedly made a significant contribution to easing the social demand for higher education, accounting for up to 20 percent of enrollments in some countries. However, in many instances, there is a perception that the private institutions are profit-driven and therefore education offered by these institutions is inferior to that offered by public higher education institutions. In most public tertiary institutions, staffing, methods of teaching and state of facilities, raise major doubts about the quality of education offered. It is in this context that quality assurance systems have been put in place to serve as a basis for enhancing the quality of higher education offered in public and private institutions. However, quality assurance systems have been hampered by under funding especially in public universities (Appleton, 2001; Liu and Cheng, 2005; Hanushek and Wossmann, 2007).

Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), with about 740 million people, some 200 public universities, a fast increasing number of private higher education institutions and the lowest tertiary gross enrollment ratio in the world (about 5 percent), is now paying greater attention to issues of quality at the tertiary level. Rapid growth in enrollments amidst declining budgets during the 1980s and 1990s, the proliferation of private provision of higher education and pressure from a rapidly transforming labor market have combined to raise new concerns about quality. Countries are becoming conscious of the need for effective quality assurance and quality improvement (Woodhall, 2007; Makerere University, 2011). World Bank (2007) expressed concern about improving the quality of tertiary institutions in Africa and the need to reassure the public about the quality of private providers and the importance of ensuring that tertiary education offered in both public and private tertiary institutions meets acceptable local and international standards.

Several factors have contributed to the decline in quality of higher education in Africa. Underfunding of higher education; decline in per unit cost; poor staff remunerations ;brain drain; high staff-student ratio; lack of facilities; inadequate infrastructure; low research and publications; irrelevant curricula; poor management of internally generated funds; increasing enrollments ;few professors and Ph D holders; lack skills by staff and students in information communication technology ; politics of fees retirements and HIV/AIDS ;low internal and external efficiency and poor governance. These factors, along with the rapid emergence of private providers in response to the increasing social demand for higher education, have prompted institutions and governments to put in place various forms of quality assurance mechanisms in an attempt to reverse the decline in quality and to regulate the new providers (Appleton, 2001; Materu, 2007).

In African countries, within public higher education institutions, student fees are becoming a significant contribution to recurrent budgets. At the University of Nairobi, student cost-sharing was 37 percent of the institution's recurrent budget in 2002 .In Ghana; student fees contributed 31 percent of university budgets in 2005. At the recently established University of Gambia, student fees represented about 70 percent of overall expenditure in 2003/04(Kiamba 2003). Countries such as Tanzania, Uganda and Zimbabwe are following suite. Although these cost-sharing schemes have often been met with student resistance, they have brought in needed funding to supplement insufficient government subventions. Resistance to cost-sharing is due in part to the lack of adequate mechanisms to ensure transparency in the use of resources and the relationship of these resources to the quality of outputs of higher institutions. An effective quality assurance system promotes transparency and accountability as institutions are required to open up to external scrutiny by peers, professional associations and national Quality Assurance agencies where they exist. A good quality rating by external bodies is also likely to boost students' morale and commitment to their institution, possibly leading to increased readiness to contribute to the costs of their education (Mamdani, 2007; Kasozi, 2009).

Quality is context bound and the question which needs to be raised is; Do universities offer to the stakeholders, the consumer, the parents/guardians what they are supposed to offer? Do they achieve their mission or goals and objectives? However, although quality is context bound, all universities play their role on the international stage .This means that an institution has to meet at least the basic standards that are applied to higher education institutions (Mbwete, 2011).What are the measurements for quality assurance? What are the standards for measuring quality? What are the standards against which criteria is assessed? For example in Ugandan higher education sector, the criteria and standards for achieving quality education are based on objectives, mission and vision; academic orientation ;governance; quality teaching and learning; quality of research and publications; quality of out put; academic freedom ;facilities; institutional financial management and strategic plan; qualified staff; duration of the programme ;content of the programme; admission of students; assessment of process; infrastructure; academic resources and quality control systems. These are measurements of quality assurance because they assure the stakeholders that quality education is in place. The internationally accepted standards for quality education are ;goals and objectives and expected learning outcomes; financial resources; content; teaching/learning strategy; student assessment; quality teaching and support staff; quality facilities and infrastructure; relevant curricula design and evaluation; staff development activities; quality methodologies ; governing structure; quality research ; bench marking; achievements/graduates and satisfaction of the stakeholders. There are many factors that influence quality but with regard to higher education there should be quality of the in puts; quality of the process and quality of the output (World Bank, 2007; Mbwete, 2011).

Quality assurance is a planned and systematic review process of an institution or program to determine whether or not acceptable standards of education, scholarship, and infrastructure are being met, maintained and enhanced (AH,Consulting,2011). Quality assurance refers to a range of review procedures designed to safeguard academic standards and promote learning opportunities for students of acceptable quality. Quality Assurance is the mechanism in higher

education put in place to guarantee that education is fitness for purpose and that it is good (National Council for Higher Education, 2011). Quality Assurance System is the means by which an institution confirms to itself to the stakeholders that conditions are in place for students to achieve the standards that the institution has set. The World Bank (2000) task force on developing countries defined quality higher education in terms of the ability of graduates to have the knowledge of and benefit from the global knowledge based economy.

The realities facing higher education mean that traditional ways of running higher educational systems are becoming less relevant. The computer, internet and the web are gradually replacing, chalk and chalkboard; ink and paper as instruments of learning. The quality of higher education is increasingly being judged on the ability of the student to benefit from the new technologies of the knowledge revolution (World Bank, 2001; Kasozi, 2005). Students and staff who cannot use the computer and other information transmitting technologies will be treated like illiterates of the modern times. In Uganda, any university institution that does not use the new technologies is not a quality university. Lecturers must be able to use computers, access web and the net and teach students using power point. Quality Assurance came into existence to address the fear from the public that the new mushrooming higher institutions of learning were unable to deliver quality education. Uganda has licensed more than ten new universities since 1988. Many of these universities have meager facilities to warrant them recognition as universities at international level. A number of education policy makers and the general population feared that the speed at which institutions of higher learning have opened up and proceeded to award degrees and other certificates did not match the quality of education desired in Uganda. Makerere university was one of the institutions whose quality was doubted because of large enrollments at undergraduate students that overcrowded the lecture rooms; over used the facilities; lacked infrastructure and staff-student ratio was high. Quality of Makerere university was also of concern because it admitted students for post graduate studies from institutions whose quality standards was doubted such as Nkumba University, Uganda Martyrs University, Kampala International University and Mbale Islamic University (Kasozi, 2005). National Council for Higher Education (2011) pointed out that the measurements for Quality Assurance within Uganda's Higher Education are;

- a) institutional accreditation and audits (Institutional management taking into account the university mission, goals and objectives ;financial management, sufficiency of facilities and institutional infrastructure) ;
- b) quality of students admitted (merit-based admissions into higher education institutions) and outputs;
- c) quality of teaching staff;
- d) streamlining of examination regulations (encourage external examiners);
- e) self-evaluation (accreditation of individual programme) and;
- f) Students' assessment of academic staff.

According to National Council for Higher Education (2011) the terms mostly used to describe quality are quality assurance;

- a) Quality Control is the process of ensuring compliance with standards and procedures set to maintain and enhance quality.
- b) Quality Audit ,in the context of Higher Education ,is a process of checking or examining what goes on in an institution to ensure that it is compliant with quality assurance procedures ,integrity ,standards and outcomes;

- c) Quality Assessment entails external assessment by peers of the quality of teaching and learning through scrutiny of institutional documentation and student work by direct observation, interview, as well as reference to performance indicators;
- d) Academic Standards are explicit levels of academic attainment used to describe and measure academic requirements and achievements of individual or groups of students.

Collaboration with professional bodies and academic audits are the most common forms of quality assurance processes. Institutions readily accept self-assessment because it empowers them and their staff to take charge of the quality of their performance without the pressure usually associated with an external review. Self-assessment (accreditation) also helps institutions to identify their own strengths and weaknesses, while generating awareness of key performance indicators. As discussed, it is the process of accreditation or self-assessment that is widely seen as the most valuable aspect of quality assurance processes (Basheka, 2008, Makerere University, 2008, National Council for Higher Education, 2011).

The capacity-building function of self-assessment is particularly important in the countries of Sub-Saharan Africa where capacity remains very weak. Accreditation is also used in this study to imply a process of self-study and external quality review used in higher education to scrutinize an institution and/or its programs for quality standards and need for quality improvement. The process is designed to determine whether or not an institution has met or exceeded the published standards (set by an external body such as a government, national quality assurance agency, or a professional association) for accreditation and is achieving its mission and stated purpose. The process usually includes a self-evaluation, peer reviews and site visits. Success results in accreditation of a program or an institution (Materu , 2007;Basheka ,2008). The confidence of students and other stake holders in higher education is established and maintained through effective and efficient Quality Assurance activities which ensure that programmes are well designed, regularly monitored and periodically reviewed, thereby securing their continuing relevance and currency. A well functioning quality assurance mechanism has student evaluation; curriculum design; staff development activities and bench marking (World Bank, 2007; Mbwete, 2011).

Higher Education in Uganda is comprised of education in universities and other tertiary institutions after six years of study of secondary education. University education offers programmes of study that lead to the award of certificates, diplomas, undergraduate and post graduate degrees in addition to research and outreach programmes. Uganda has 5 public universities which are Makerere University founded in 1922; Mbarara University, 1989; Kyambogo University, 1998; Busitema University, 2007 and Gulu University founded in 2002. There are also 22 private universities; 2 private university colleges; 2 public degree awarding tertiary institutions and 1 public university college registered to operate in Uganda (AH, Consulting, 2010).Until 1990's Uganda had only one public university which was Makerere University and was 100 percent reliant on funding from the government .Now government funding is spread out to other four public universities as cited above (Makerere University, 2006).

In Uganda, the major crisis of higher education is lack of adequate funding which has paralyzed most of the activities in public universities. Whereas the numbers of public university programmes and students have increased since the 1970's to date, this growth has not been matched by provision of sufficient financial resources to provide adequate learning facilities for the learners. The existing educational facilities and infrastructure have been overstretched by large numbers of students , lack of attention ,mismanagement and failure of the administrators to replace the obsolete facilities due to lack of funds. Public funding from the state to higher education in general, has been decreasing steadily in relation to the cost of producing a graduate (Kasozi, 2009). Educational facilities; infrastructure, academic staff, consumable

inputs, equipment and research facilities have not matched the expanding student numbers. From 1970 during Amin's regime; 1980's during Obote 11 and NRM regime, financing of higher education, by the Uganda government and other Stakeholders began to decline until the current period. This decline led to a mismatch of students and facilities and infrastructure as more students were admitted to the existing institutions, while new ones opened before the necessary facilities were put in place to match the increasing enrollments, which drastically affected the quality of education (Mamdani, 2007; National Council for Higher Education, 2006; Kasozi, 2009).

Funding higher education is very strategic to the states; because nations whose economies are entirely driven by market forces have enormously increased funding higher education. For example in 2008, the United Kingdom ;Singapore; Israel; Finland; Norway; Sweden; Denmark; South Korea and Hong Kong all increased funding higher education and most of these countries targeted science ,technology and Information Communication Technology which are needed by the economy. According to Kasozi (2005) as for now the government needs few historians and sociologists because there are too many of them in the wider sector. Every nation needs quality universities because they are factories where knowledge is created and skilled workers manufactured. The intellectual resources of the university are needed to keep economics working and to generate new ideas for more production. The wealth of the nations depends on the quality of the universities and their linkages to the market. Much of today's global wealth is tied to technology and most of the technologies have been created in well funded universities (Kiamba, 2003; Hall, 2005; Kasozi, 2009).Public universities need funding to be more productive. Failing to fund higher education sufficiently is more costly than not funding it adequately as it leads drastic consequences to the nation such as low productivity; low tax base because uneducated workers earn less to pay tax; nations import skilled labor; spend more on health services and weak defense systems.

In Uganda, the challenge of higher education remains budgetary constraints to enhance salaries of university lecturers and supporting of other demands. Government funds allocated to higher education do not match costs of training graduates, infrastructural and staff development, recruitment and promotion of staff in public universities. National Council for Higher Education which implements quality assurance in tertiary institutions is poorly funded .Most of the science units in various higher institutions of learning are poorly equipped. Higher education budgetary constraints have been exacerbated by the fact that non wage provision of universities has remained constant while prices of goods and fuel have gone up reducing the value of staff salaries and allowances(Ministry of Education and Sports,2008;2009).Higher education has continued to face the budgetary cuts whenever the government is faced with unexpected budgetary problem For example ,when the exchange rate for the dollar rose from 200 to 400 Uganda Shillings over a year , the government responded to the general rise in prices with a 25% cut in all budgeted non-salary expenditures in 1984 ,higher education was not spared. Drastic reduction in state funding since the 1980's to date was translated in financial crisis which was the main driving force behind the quality crisis in higher education

The factors that contributed to the decline in quality in higher education were the civil wars that almost led to the collapse of Uganda in the period between 1970 and 1986;the increasing enrollments of students amidst underfunding of higher education; the imposition of the market – oriented structural adjustment policies on the already collapsing state; the subsequent sidelining of higher education by the state from the early 1990's onwards on the advice of the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and World Bank; the Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs) with the perception that private entry scheme into public universities could replace or meet a bigger provision of higher education to citizens; the failure of African leaders to change and align higher education policy with global changes regarding higher education as a catalyst for knowledge economies; the politics of fees which undermine university incomes (World Bank 2001; Kasozi,2009). The increase in enrollment created many problems, among them was a drop in quality due to under funding. In the 1990's there was a fundamental shift from funding higher education to Universal Primary Education which affected the quality of higher education.

Funding Higher education in Uganda has been declining over the years because it was considered a priority development issue unlike Universal Primary Education(UPE);improving agricultural research; enhancing skills in micro small and medium –scale enterprises; improving meteorological data collection; improving capacity in tourism ;export promotion and trade policy negotiations (Mamdani, 2007;Kasozi, 2009).In higher institutions of learning ,the public recurrent contribution per student declined from \$2532 in 1970 to \$1113 in 1980 and to\$ 639 in 1985 (Carrol,2005). As the funding to other levels of education such as primary education which increased by 200% and secondary 130%, that of higher education declined. In other words, expenditure per university student fell by 30%(Appleton,2001).Since 1995-to date the state did not substantially put up buildings to cater for the increasing numbers from Universal Primary Education and now Universal Secondary Education. Most of the structures in higher education were built during the colonial period although some faculties have put up some structures through donations. Although new public universities such as Mbarara, Gulu,Kyambogo and Busitema have opened ,they use the existing structures of the institutions that had been closed or transformed to make way for the newly created universities .For example Makerere university has so many dilapidated lecture rooms and halls of residence. A number of structures in Kyambogo are roofed with asbestos sheets that are known to be dangerous to health. Since Gulu and Busitema universities were upgraded to university status, no buildings for academic purposes have been put up to benefit the changed status and function of these universities (Kasozi, 2009).

Whereas the government has not increased its funding to higher education, it does also not permit universities to charge student fees equal to the market rates because increment in fees would create political problems. Thus, any attempt to increase fees to unit costs has always met political resistance, most of it coming from officials of the government who often have family members enrolled as students or are themselves registered as continuing students of the university. The gap between the unit cost and fees paid cannot be bridged. Private students in public universities paid less than the unit cost or what the government paid per student(Kasozi, 2009; AH,Consulting, 2011).Due to little money for educational inputs, in many institutions of higher learning, staff publications and research output are declining due to lack of morale; poor remunerations lack of facilities ,congestion in offices ;teaching large numbers with little pay; intrigues from administration and management leadership. Study areas such as lecture rooms, laboratories and libraries are overcrowded because of mismatch between student numbers and facilities. Staff salaries are too low and there is little incentive for research .There is little money for maintenance of the infrastructure and few institutions have comprehensive internal quality assurance mechanisms (National Council for Higher Education, 2011).

Studies by National Council for Higher Education (2006; 2011) and Kasozi (2005) have indicated that most institutions in Uganda have outdated curricula that encourages memorization but not problem solving .Institutions have continued to expand enrollment despite lack of adequate facilities. The management of most institutions is very weak, particularly financial management. The average contribution of the student to his or her education as per unit cost is on average 29%.Students ,parents and politicians have not embraced the wisdom of cost sharing ,thus institutions cut down on educational inputs to balance their budgets. The result of this is reduced quality of Higher education .The situation has been complicated by the mushrooming of many pro-profit institutions which regard education as a product of sale (National Council for Higher Education, 2011).The state budgetary cuts led to cost sharing in Makerere university in 1990/91 the only public university by then, leading to abolition of student allowances which included pocket money; text book allowance, dependants and personal allowances. The book allowance was replaced by book bank system where students borrowed reference materials to supplement lecture notes. Every newly admitted student was required to pay 50,000 shillings. From 1984-1994, Makerere university was rocked by a spate of strikes by staff and students. Whereas the staff organized for a living wage, students marched in resistance to the introduction of cost sharing measures which were introduced by the government. Low remuneration led to low morale among staff and search for greener pastures in other countries that offered better salaries than Uganda's higher education (Mamdani, 2007).

The National Council for Higher Education was established under the universities and other tertiary institutions Act of 2001 to improve regulate and guide the establishment and management of institutions of higher learning; improve the quality of higher education; equate qualifications and advise government on higher education issues. The National Council for Higher Education (2011) determines quality assurance of higher education by;

- a) Carrying out institutional accreditation or permitting institutions to exist and deliver higher education which is the key tool for quality assurance .These include land, infrastructure ,staffing, facilities, governance and financial resources;
- b) Assessing the quality of inputs which invariably affects outputs. Higher institutions are required to meet minimum entry requirements;
- c) Asses the quality of staff ,thus universities employ staff that meet the standards that are set by national council regulations
- d) Assesses research and publications which are indicative of quality and productivity of the academic staff;
- e) Assesses staff development and the number of beneficiaries in each discipline of programme;
- f) Ensures that all courses in institutions meet minimum standards and requirements;
- g) Ensures examinations regulations and awards and standardization;
- h) Enhances students assessments of their academic staff

Universities and tertiary institutions in Uganda are regulated by the ministry of education and Sports assisted by the National Council for Higher Education (AH Consultancy, 2011). Quality of higher education and the need for effective quality assurance mechanisms beyond those of institutions themselves are becoming priority themes in national strategies. The emergence of private tertiary institutions and the need to regulate their activities appears to have been the main trigger for the establishment of formal Quality Assurance agencies in most countries. According to Materu (2007) perhaps because of this historical fact, the main purpose of Assurance agencies in Africa has been regulation of the development of the sector rather than to enhance accountability and quality improvement. Several countries have now changed their laws to make accreditation of public institutions mandatory. As of now, national agencies of Ethiopia, Ghana, Mauritius, Nigeria, South Africa, Tanzania and Uganda are directed to oversee quality assurance in both public and private institutions. Tanzania and Uganda amended their laws within the last two years to extend the mandate to public universities while Ethiopia's mandate included all types of HEIs right from its inception in 2003. Mozambique and Madagascar are developing their systems aiming at a similar approach (Carrol, 2005; Materu, 2007).

Methodology;

The effect of underfunding on quality assurance was determined through analysis of AH, Consultancy figures (2011) which was given to the researcher by National Council for Higher Education, Kyambogo and other relevant documents from Ministry of Education and Sports. The study used 5 public universities which were funded by the government and these included Makerere; Mbarara; Gulu;Busitema and Makerere University Business School. The instruments for data collection were interviews, observation and documentary analysis. The researcher approached individual personnel in the areas of quality assurance and finance departments in

each of these universities but the authorities found it difficult to release financial statements regarding internally generated income and tuition fees raised from private students. Makerere University Intranet and other sources from Interviews were also examined. Different administrators availed the researcher documents which were used in this study.

Results and discussion

This section presented and discussed the results in detailed form, made conclusions and recommendations.

Table 1 National Council for Higher Education Standards

Standards Category	Level of Standards		
	Acceptable Standards	Good Standards	Ideal Standards
Infrastructure			
Classroom Space	1m ² per student	2m ² per student	2.5 m ² per student
Library Space	1m ² per student	2m ² per student	2.5 m ² per student
Science Laboratories	1m ² per student	2.5m ² per student	3 m ² per student
Computer Laboratories	1m ² per student	2.5m ² per student	3 m ² per student
Administrative Staff	3 m ² per staff	4m ² per staff	5 m ² per staff
Academic Staff	3 m ² per staff	4m ² per staff	5 m ² per staff
Academic Staff			
Staff-Student Ratio			
General disciplines	1:25	1:20	1:15
Arts/Social Sciences	1:30	1:25	1:15
Medicine, Veterinary, Pharmacy and Dental medicine	1:20	1:15	1:8
Agriculture ,Forestry, Technology	1:20	1:16	1:10
Law, Statistics, Education	1:25	1:20	1:15
Qualifications (Staff Development)			
PH holders	15+% of staff	50% of staff	60% of staff
Masters holders	50% of staff	60% of staff	70% of staff
Contact Hours for Academic Staff			

Contact hours for academic staff	20 hrs per week	15 hrs per week	10 hrs per week
Percentage of part-timers			
Percentage of part-timers	0.35	0.3	0.2
Education facilities			
Student –Library Book Ratio	1:20	1:30	1:40
Computer-Student Ratio	1:20	1:10	1:5
Access to internet per 1 student	1:5 hours	1:10 hours	1:20 hours

Source; AH Consultancy,2010.

Table 1 shows the standards for Quality Assurance in the university education as set by National Council for Higher Education for infrastructure, academic staff, and contact hours for academic staff, part-timers and education facilities. Based on National Council for Higher Education standards for provision of education as indicated above, the study identified a number of gaps in space, computers and academic staff which are discussed in Table 2 due to funding gaps. Teaching materials such as laboratory chemicals; stationary and other forms of specimens were found lacking in different faculties of the universities offering science and technology. Results from the study revealed that the highest institution of learning such as Makerere university, of the 1, 327 academic staff, in the entire university system, there were only 53(3%) professors and 80(4.6%) associate professors. The revelations on university staffing have added a new twist to growing concerns about declining quality of learning and casting doubt of teaching and servicing units of the institution. Although the number of qualified lecturers has been growing, it lags far behind the student enrolment rate, forcing many universities to hire under qualified part-time staff. Lecturers did not go as often to supervise students on internship or teaching practice because the money paid to them was not enough which affected the quality of students on internship. Studies revealed that Uganda's public universities were largely teaching based universities ,with low levels of applied research and publications due to lack of funds and morale, yet in countries where development was in line with the Millennium Development Goals and where the economy was driven by technology, teaching is research driven and well funded.

Relevant to the study were the studies carried out by World Bank, (2000) and Kasozi (2005) which stressed that the core components of teaching of a university are the academic staff, education facilities and students. Teaching; research and staff constitute the inner core of the academic content of a university institution. Levels of training and achievement of academic degrees (Bachelors; Masters; PHD and Professor) have been used as well as publications to assess the quality of staff. Unfortunately, efforts by governments to save money on higher education especially in developing counties have resulted in severe damage to the most central element of teaching, learning and the professoriate. The pressures of higher mass education combined with the unwillingness or inability of the state to support academia adequately, the rise of the private sector and the increasing differentiation of the academic system all contribute to confusion about the roles and functions of universities in a new environment. Developing countries are particularly caught in the contradiction. Faced with demands to enroll ever greater numbers of students and at the same time wanting to create

high quality universities, the pressure for mass access always trumps the quality of education .The professoriate is the most important resource for building quality education, yet it is understaffed and is being squeezed from all directions. University administration is rationalized, usually weakening the autonomy of the academic profession .Staff remuneration is inadequate, seldom keeps up with inflation, leading to the need for faculty members to supplement their incomes by additional employment .Given the circumstances in which staff members operate, it is impossible to improve the basic work of the university as far as quality teaching and learning are concerned. Kruss,Glenda and Andre Kraak (2002) and Altbach (2005) also concurred with the study findings that budget cutting and marketization have consequences among them a profound change in the role of the academic profession.

Table 2 Gaps in Quality Standards and facilities

University	KEY ABSOLUTE GAPS								
	Acceptable Standards			Good Standards			Ideal Standards		
	Space	Computers	Academic Staff	Space	Computers	Academic Staff	Space	Computer	Academic Staff
	Sq.Mts	No.	No.	Sq.Mts	No.	No.	Sq.Mts	No.	No.
Makerere University	19,387	212	621	44,292	1,162	849	64,562	3,646	1,528
Kyambogo University	2,864	299	266	8,505	843	453	15,657	1,830	852
Mbarara University Of Science and Technology	1,014	84	6	5,217	170	10	7,141	342	74
Gulu Univesity	2,192	90	146	7,193	218	206	9,632	537	456
Busitema University	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	38	-
Makerere University Business School	13,273	739	338	30,453	1,598	515	39,043	3,316	810
Total	38,730	1,424	1,377	95,660	3,991	2,033	136,035	9,709	3,720

Source; AH Consultancy, 2010, National Council for High Education, Uganda

Basing on the standards set by National Council for higher Education in Table 1, Results from Table 2 as reported by AH Consultancy (2010) revealed that with the current under funding of Higher education, there were significant gaps in;

- a) space;
- b) computers for students and academic staff for all public universities were few because most staff members lacked these facilities and computer student ratio was over 1;40, but for Busitema University it had gaps only in computers;

- c) sizeable gaps were also found in laboratory equipment for the science based faculties of medicine, technology, agriculture, science and education ;
- d) Infrastructure across all faculties was in dire state of disrepair, dilapidated and needed renovation;
- e) Mismatch of facilities with increasing enrollment was quite evident;
- f) Staff-student ratio was higher using NCHE Standards of 1;15 for humanities and 1;5 for sciences;
- g) Staff qualifications and development was still wanting because of few professors and PHD holders;
- h) Contact hours ;in some cases lectures had less than 10 hrs ,yet the ideal is 15 ,while in other cases some lectures had over 30 hrs even 40 hrs per week;
- i) Percentage of part-timers; universities such as Makerere relied heavily on part-timers and had over 500 but were drastically reduced to around 50 to ensure quality;
- j) Gaps were found in facilities-student ratio as lecture rooms were still crowded -computer – Student ratio was 1; 40; even more. Students were found studying in dining halls which interfered with students having their meals. This also inconvenienced lecturers and students studying;
- k) Few students accessed internet as others monopolized it through paying petty cash to the laboratory attendants to allow them stay for longer hours than the stipulated 30 minutes or 1 hour.

In the context of this study and the gaps pointed out, AH Consultancy,(2010) emphasized that the quality of university education that was currently being provided by high education in public universities fell short of minimum standards set by National Council for Higher Education. With the projected growth in enrollment levels as a result of Universal Secondary Education (USE), the gaps identified in facility quality standards in Table 2 were bound to become worse, if the current gaps are not addressed immediately and if the government does not increase it's funding for public universities. Studies carried out by AH Consultancy (2010) further emphasized that the gaps in quality standards were more pronounced in Makerere University; Makerere University Business School and Kyambogo University, universities which were the pinnacle of public education in Uganda. Surprisingly newly established universities such as Mbarara University of Science and Technology, Gulu University and Busitema University already had significant funding gaps. Reports from National Council for Higher Education (2006) found out that financial managers of universities did not calculate unit costs to know the gap between received income and the cost which created financial gaps in infrastructure, facilities, research and staff development. Due to inadequate funds, lecture rooms; halls of residence; staff houses and other infrastructure in public universities are dilapidated and had gone unmaintained and unrepaired years. In Makerere University, interviews from academic staff revealed that although the university took steps to reduce intake in 2008 to date, staff- student ratio was still alarming especially in faculties that offered humanity; sanitation was in appalling state.

It was found out that for the last 10 years, public universities in Uganda had not received significant funds to run the institutions which drastically affected the quality of inputs, processes and outputs. Interviews from teaching staff revealed that teaching staff had lost interest in teaching and publication due to low payments that did not match the increasing food, commodities and fuel prices. This made monitoring and evaluation of staff by administration

weak since they did not meet their financial demands. It was found out that some lecturers had not yet submitted the students' examination marks for Semester 1 and had not even started marking the second semesters' examinations. Relevant to this study, Makerere University (2010), indicated she had in place quality assurance policy to enhance her core activities of learning teaching, research performance, research training and management to enhance quality education but they were limited by funding to realize their goals and mission.

Kasozi (2005) concurred with the study findings when he pointed out that the impact of underfunding was reflected in inadequate infrastructure; insufficient educational facilities; high Staff to student ratio; inadequately trained academic and managerial staff; use of outmoded technology in teaching and learning and the delivery of low quality education, yet these were the measures for quality assurance. Due to inadequate funding, the educational facilities that were meant to serve a few people were being used by thousands of students, academic, staff, support staff, administrators and managers of higher education. For example, the main library at university which could formally sit only 800, is currently hosting over 40,000 students. Although study findings indicated that it had been expanded; still it was too small to accommodate the increasing numbers of students. The ideal student- book ratio, according National Council for Higher Education Standards was 1;5 but no single university had attained the ideal due to little funds to purchase books; Makerere student –book ratio was 1;10 and Mbarara 1;34 and most of the books were out dated and not relevant for the current needs of the society. Space, for lecture rooms, staff offices, seminar halls, common rooms for students and staff were all inadequate to assure the public of the quality of education that was delivered in such circumstances.

Table 3 Weighted Unit Costs of providing public university education in Uganda

University	Actual Unit Cost based on Current enrollment in	Unit Costs Based on NCHE Standards		
		Acceptable	Good	Ideal
	Uganda shillings	Uganda shillings	Uganda shillings	Uganda shillings
Makerere University	3,232,577	4,523,040	4,960,384	5,579,598
Kyambogo University	3,132,968	3,696,116	4,093,272	5,187,782
Gulu University	3,944,297	3,947,029	4,174,803	4,372,729
Mbarara University of Science and Technology	5,132,466,999	5,466,999	5,710,063,	5,912,318
Busitema University	18,986,481	19,818,037	19,967,815	20,422,593
Makerere University Business School	2,377,659	3,001,312	3,533,178	4,250,970
Weighted Average	3,519,918	4,528,747	4,931,396	5,592,932

Source; AH Consultancy, 2010

Table 3 revealed that the Unit Costs of providing public University education for each public university in Uganda determined by the National Council for Higher Education standards for acceptable, good and ideal levels of standards' based on current enrollment. The study found out that the cost of university education based on current enrollment was lower than the Unit Cost at acceptable, good and ideal standards as set by the National Council for Higher Education. Makerere University Business School had the lowest Unit Cost at 2, 377, 659, followed by Kyambogo university at 3,132,968 and Makerere University at 3,232,577. Gulu university and Mbarara University of Science and Technology followed at 3,944,297 and 5,132,687 respectively. Busitema University had the highest actual Unit Cost at 18,986,481, largely because of a higher administration cost and low numbers of students. The weighted average actual cost as reported by AH Consultancy (2010) for all public universities in Uganda was 3,519,918. At National Council for higher education standards, the weighted average unit costs were much higher at Uganda shillings 4,528,747 at the acceptable level; shs 4,931,396 at the good level and 5,592,932 at the ideal level. Furthermore, the study revealed that the fees that private students paid was far lower than the unit cost and government funding was also low which affected standards of education. It was found out that higher education was accountable to the students, public and the government, given the conditions in which universities operated with little resources; the way they managed and spent internally generated funds on the programmes that affected the individual, national and the international communities. National Council for Higher Education (2006) and Kasozi (2009) also agree with the study that there was a frightening gap between fees paid and unit cost which affected quality of education delivered. Denying institutions of higher learning the amount of money they need to produce skilled personnel would not only choke institutions of higher learning but would also slow the pace of the country's development.

Table 4 Annual Funding Gaps

Universities	National Council Standards		
	Acceptable	Good	Ideal
	Uganda shillings Bn	Uganda shillings Bn	Uganda shillings Bn
Makerere University	43.50	58.24	79.11
Kyambogo University	5.52	9.42	20.16
Gulu University	0.90	1.55	2.09
Mbarara University of Science and Technology	0.41	0.49	1.45
Busitema University	0.42	0.94	0.72
Makerere University Business School	6.77	12.55	20.35
Average	57.52	83.19	123.88

Source; AH Consultancy, 2010

Table 4 shows the funding gaps based on the enrollment as per 2010; space; computer; academic staff gaps as in Table 3, from which the recurrent and capital funding gaps were determined for each university at acceptable, good and ideal standards as set by National

Council for Higher Education. Inadequate funding was found to be a major challenge to the delivery of quality higher education. Whereas, innovations had taken place in most universities such as Makerere University, implementation of the programmes was hampered by financial constraints .In support of this study finding, National Council for higher education (2006 and 2011) pointed out that bad governance, outdated curricula ; institutional inability to recruit and retain qualified staff ; the lack of adequate and appropriate institutional materials and inadequate physical facilities were major hindering constraints exacerbating these gaps. Programmes that required practical training lacked laboratory materials and equipment .Most Science and technology students found it difficult to complete their programmes .It was found out that unless the financial question is answered the quality of higher education will continue to deteriorate.

Still in connection with funding gaps, Makerere university (2010) pointed out that higher education receives little funding from the government because government priority in education sector is Universal Education which takes 65% of the allocated budget to the Education Sector .The declining funding to higher education institutions, coupled with the increased demanded for higher education prompted universities to start income generating activities one of which was the self sponsorship scheme. It was found out that universities increased enrollment of students on private scheme without commensurate growth in university resources, which affected the quality of education. In a bid to overcome these funding constraints , Kasozi (2005) challenged universities in Uganda to diversify their funding avenues by emulating world universities such as Harvard, Oxford,Al-Azhar and Cambridge which have built their own mechanisms for raising funds to run their institutions.

Table 5 Sources of revenue available to the universities in relation to the cost of structures

Universities	Grants	Government Subventions	Internally generated Revenue
Makerere University	8.62%	38.21%	53.17%
Kyambogo University	3.75%	47.57%	48.68%
Gulu University	4.43%	68.04%	27.53%
Mbarara University of Science and Technology	4.00%	71.70%	24.30%
Busitema University	0.00	94.62	5.38%
Makerere University Business School	0.00	27.51%	72.49%
Average	4.16	64.03%	31.81%

Source; AH Consultancy, 2010

Table 5 indicates that public universities get funding from three sources namely;

- a) Grants with Makerere university (8.62%) taking the lead ,followed by Gulu university (4.43); Mbarara University of Science and Technology (4.00%);Kyambogo University (3.75%)and Busitema and Makerere University Business School (0.00) taking the same position

- b) Government Subventions with Busitema (94.62) taking more grants, followed by Mbarara University of Science and Technology (71.70%);Gulu University (68.57%) ;Kyambogo University(47.57%);Makerere university(38.21%) and Makerere university Business School (38.21%).

Two theories explained why Busitema (94.62) ;Mbarara University of Science and Technology (71.70%) ; Gulu University (68.57%) and Kyambogo University(47.57%) got more funds from the government than their old counter parts Makerere University (38.21%) and Makerere University Business School; firstly, the former were newly established and the latter were more science based;

- c) Internally generated funds with Makerere University Business School (72.49%) taking the lead followed by Kyambogo University(48.68%);Gulu University (27.53%);Mbarara University of Science and Technology(24.30%); and Busitema (5.38%).

Results from Table 5 revealed that while public universities supplemented the funds received from the government with internally generated funds in form of fees, grants and donations, it relied exclusively on fees and donations. Data from AH,Consultancy (2010) revealed that ,for over the past 10 years public universities had not received significant funds to run the university programmes which affected the quality of education. AH,Consultancy (2010) further reported that higher education in India is primarily funded by the government and households and the cost of higher education varies across institutions ,being influenced mainly by discipline and subject of study.

Table 7 Financing of Makerere University 2000/01- 2008/09

Year	Gov't Recurrent Funding	Private Funding	Donor Operational Budget	Total Funding	Total expenditure
2000/01	23,228,971,654	14,014,545,258	7,308,450,000	44,551,966,912	
2001/02	27,542,569,313	19,030,438,782	18,644,013,000	65,217,021,095	
2002/03	27,526,750,819	29,438,099,323	60,013,999,800	116,978,849,942	
2003/04	26,590,262,050	31,915,900,197	22,959,122,400	81,465,284,647	
2004/05	36,653,142,917	37,411,816,460	12,693,974,400	86,758,933,777	
2005/06	35,102,426,787	53,589,637,625	17,082,388,800	105,774,453,212	
2006/07	36,399,715,724	57,237,857,370	15,165,665,241	108,803,238,335	124,010,954,031
2007/08	44,147,434,819	55,701,794,772	15,903,651,997	115,752,881,588	121,188,243,709
2008/09	43,726,764,110	64,414,263,337	8,366,188,185	116,507,215,632	131,328,510,741

Source; Makerere University, 2010

Whereas Tables 6 and 7 indicate that universities get funding from three sources, it was found out that universities such as Makerere University, over the last ten years , quality of standards at

the university in terms of facilities, infrastructure, equipment and staff remuneration has not improved greatly. It was found out that budget allocations were not in harmony with the institutions mission and strategic plan. This study was supported by the similar findings from Kasozi (2005 and 2009) that public universities in Uganda were underfunded which affected quality of delivery.

Results from interviews from staff revealed that top management misused internally generated funds to pay themselves and other few lucky ones who were close to them. Disparities in payments in faculties and units and mismanagement of funds by top administration led to low morale among teaching and support staff. Related studies carried out by Mamdani (2007) pointed out that internally generated funds in universities such as Makerere University were not properly managed by administration. Disparities in payments within and between units existed. Some units within the university were able to pay good teaching and top up allowances to every body, whereas other units in the university were unable to pay everybody. The top administration paid themselves good allowances, while in other units which made a lot of money such as faculty of Arts, Economics, Women Studies, Education and Institute of Adult and Continuing Education paid only some people. The highest internal disparities in payment of staff were in units that flushed with funds which was the finance department, where the lowest was paid 60,000 Uganda shillings and the highest 3,900,00 Uganda; the academic registrar’s office (60,000 the lowest and 3,400,000 the highest),the central pool (60,000 and 3,900,000),Makerere University Business School (130,000 and 5,000,000) and law (112,000 and 1,072,714).Mamdani (2007), also pointed out that there was corruption and malpractice in handling the internally generated funds and some administrators favored some individuals and paid them extra allowances. Kasozi (2005) also concurred with the study findings that there was wastage of funds by the top management and administration which needed to be controlled and also be equitably distributed.

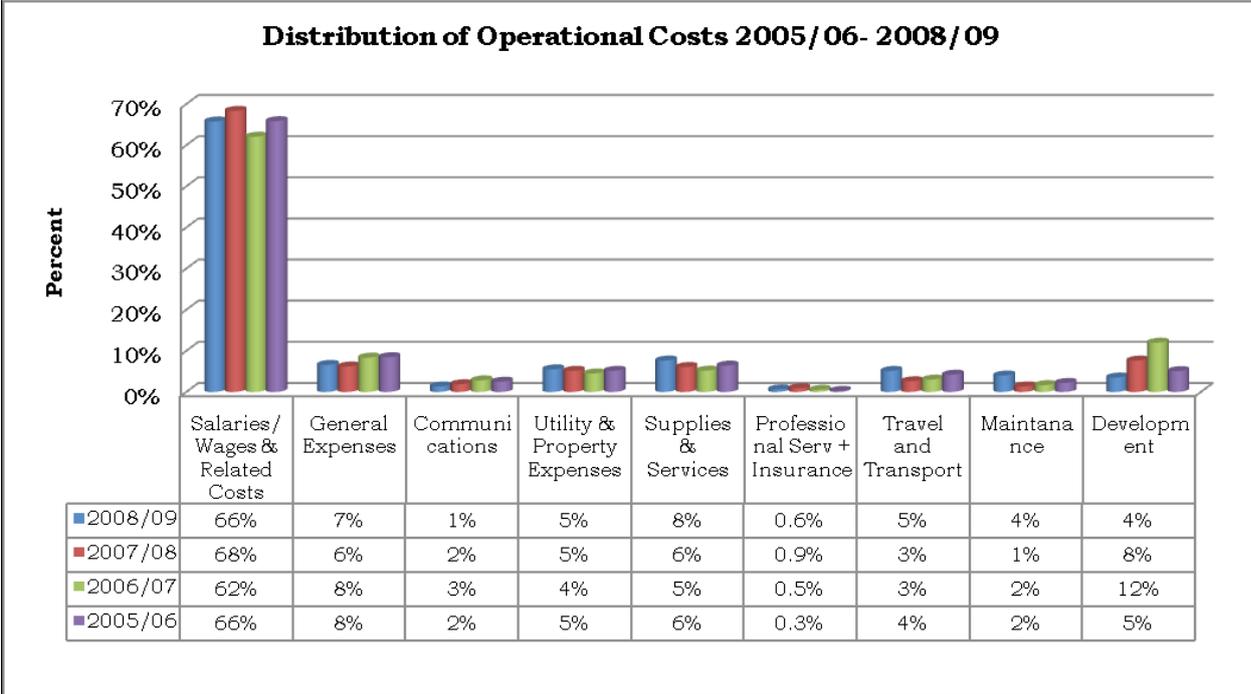


Figure showing distribution of operational costs for Makerere University;Source Makerere University, 2010.

Findings of the study as shown in the above figure also indicated that that most of the funds generated through self sponsorship scheme were used to enhance staff salaries as shown by 66% for 2008/2009 academic year; 68% for 2007/2008 academic year; 62% for 2006/2007 academic year and 66%for 2005/2006 leaving a small portion for infrastructure and other

development. Despite this, interviews from Makerere University staff indicated that they were underpaid. One staff member who was interviewed and preferred anonymity commented:

A lot of money is generated from private sponsored students, but the major problem is the university management and administration that is corrupt and greedy. Most of the funds ended in the hands of the top management and the former deans especially in Humanities where a lot of money was generated. Sometimes they drained faculty accounts and channeled the university money for paying staff to their personal projects. Even the little the administration is supposed to pay staff also delays and it is paid in bits so that it does not benefit staff. The government salary delays and we incur debts which quite often we fail to pay due to the rising inflation. With College formation, it is now the top management and the principals of the colleges who are swindling all the money but pay peanuts to teaching staff which also comes late after accumulation of debts. Colleges were formed to create empires for making money for the top management and these will sink the quality of education the more unless the university cake is equally shared.

In addition to data generated by this study, Makerere University (2006) pointed out most of the funding to Makerere is spent on employee costs. Consequently, other expenditure lines had been decreased or eliminated and in some cases there were budgetary reallocations. In other instances the university had differed payments for supplies of goods and services thereby accumulating arrears. For example due to limited resources, expenditure on maintenance was on average 2 percent of the total expenditure over the period 2002/2003-2004/2005 which partly explains the continued deterioration of the existing physical infrastructure. It was found out that over the years, higher education institutions such as Makerere University had been grappling with inadequate funding of its activities, rising student enrollment with associated costs and physical infrastructure which is in a state of disrepair. Studies indicated that to reverse this state of affairs, Makerere University looked for other ways of enhancing its financial resource base, thus it put in place the investment policy to improve university's revenue generation; modernize existing facilities; fund research activities and improve the general service provision.

Conclusion

Quality Assurance mechanisms provide standards or criteria that serve as benchmarks to maintain higher standards of quality teaching-learning. The confidence of students and other stakeholders in higher education is established and maintained through effective and efficient quality assurance activities which ensures that programmes are well designed, regularly monitored, reviewed and evaluated, thereby securing their continuing relevance and currency. However, funding higher education is a critical area that the government should address to redeem institutions of higher learning from the deteriorating quality of education. The main problem that higher education is experiencing is inadequate funding leading to poor quality education. Due to inadequate funds, higher education staffs are poorly paid; there is a mismatch of the increasing numbers of students from Universal Primary Education and Universal Secondary Education and the facilities for these future clients of the university; most teaching staff have no PHD's and there are few professors to mentor the junior staff because the higher the ladder, the higher the payment, thus universities lack funds to pay many professors. The infrastructure in most public universities is dilapidated and has neither been renovated nor have new structures been put in place to accommodate the increasing numbers. Management of internally generated funds by top administration is not democratic and transparent which leads to low morale among the teaching staff. Delays in paying the staff their monthly salaries, supervision and teaching allowances affects quality of teaching, supervision of students dissertation and marking course works and examination scripts. To raise quality of education at public universities in Uganda to the required standards, it is critical that the identified gaps in this study are met and the management and administration of internally generated funds are improved.

Recommendations

- a) The government should;
 - i) Consider injecting more funds in Higher Education to achieve quality standards at national and International levels;
 - ii) Shelving government sponsorship since it favors only children with urban and rich background;
 - iii) Support students only in key priority programmes;
 - iv) introduce a loan scheme as a measure to help needy students to access higher education;
 - v) Monitor public universities on how they manage internally generated funds
- b) Higher education institutions should;
 - i) Be democratic, transparent and strictly accountable to the staff, council, the general public, the government and funding bodies;
 - ii) Encourage universities to diversify their funding activities;
 - iii) Enhance and support research and curricula for development and employment of its graduates

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