

THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA
INSTITUTE OF DISTANCE EDUCATION

STUDY MATERIAL

**MODULE 2: EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENTS IN
THE THIRD REPUBLIC**

COURSE: EDU 1010

EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT IN ZAMBIA

2016

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INTRODUCTION

Welcome to Module Two of the ‘Education and Development in Zambia’ course. This is a continuation from where Module One ended. This module has four units in total. The first unit (Unit Five) will cover topics on education in the Third Republic. In Unit Six we will discuss the major world conferences on Education for All (EFA). Unit Seven will introduce you to some of the financial issues in education. In the final unit (Unit Eight), we will discuss the cross-cutting issues in education; these will include health, HIV/AIDS, gender and globalization among others.

MODULE AIM

The aim of this module is to equip students with knowledge of educational developments in Zambia from the beginning of the Third Republic to modern times.



MODULE OBJECTIVES

Upon completion of this module, you should be able to:

- (i) Explain the major policy developments in Zambia during the Third Republic.
- (ii) Discuss the rationale and aims of the world conferences on Education for All.
- (iii) Analyse financial issues in educational provision.
- (iv) Highlight some of the cross-cutting issues in education.
- (v) Discuss some of the theoretical perspectives in education and development.

MAP

This module is the second of the three modules you will cover in this course (EDU 1010). It will carry on from module one, and will provide you with an in-depth understanding of some of the major educational issues since the Third Republic. It is important that you take time to internalize the contents of this module.



Time Frame

The expected duration of this module is three (3) months.



Study Skills

As a distant student, your approach to learning will be different from your school days as you have to study and at the same time, do other professional or domestic responsibilities. You will therefore, need to take control of your learning environment.



Need Help?

The Institute of Distance Education will be always more than ready to be contacted for routine enquiries and the other services can be found from the University Library or on www.unza.zm.



Assessments

There will be one assignment, one test and one research paper to be done as Continuous Assessment in this module. Other assessments will include self-assessments. At the end of the academic year, you will be required to sit for the final examination.

RESOURCES

- The library
- District Resource Centres
- Books
- Journals
- Videos and DVDs.

UNIT 5: EDUCATION IN THE THIRD REPUBLIC

Introduction

Welcome to the first unit of this module. In this lesson, we will focus on Education in the Third Republic. In particular, we will look at the major Education Policies since the 1990s; the *Focus on Learning* of 1992 and the 1996 *Educating our Future*. We will also discuss education and decentralization, and education and democracy. We will conclude the lesson by looking at Education and Decentralization.

Aim

In this unit we will look at the following:

- *Focus on Learning* Policy Document
- *Educating our Future* Policy Document
- Education and Decentralization.
- Education and Democracy
- Education of the underprivileged



Outcomes

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- (i) Describe the education policies that were introduced in the Third Republic of Zambia.
- (ii) Explain why policies are important in education.
- (iii) Explain the decentralisation process in the education sector in Zambia.
- (iv) Explain the relationship between education and democracy.
- (v) Identify at least five underprivileged groups in education.



Reflection

Before you start this lesson, take time to reflect on some of the education policy documents you have come across. List at least five major educational developments which have taken place in Zambia since 1991?

A. FOCUS ON LEARNING POLICY DOCUMENT

Focus on Learning document is Zambia's second national educational policy document and was published in 1992. It focused on the development of primary education. According to the Ministry of Education (1992: 15) "The basic national policy in the education sector is to provide every eligible child with good quality education in Grades 1-7. From this follows that providing good quality primary education for all school-aged children, within the shortest possible time-span, is the foremost educational priority".

Prioritising the provision of primary education was based on equity, social, economic and educational grounds. The Ministry of Education's focus was to be on infrastructural rehabilitation and development, teacher training and the development of teaching and learning materials in primary schools and of training of education managers.

1. Priorities for the development of Primary Schools

The Ministry of Education set the following strategies for the quantitative and qualitative development of primary schools:

- a) The necessary human, material and financial resources will be provided for the physical expansion, development and rehabilitation of primary schools and, to the extent necessitated by these developments, of the primary teacher training colleges;
- b) Emphasis will be put on schools as institutions where students are supposed to learn and teachers are supposed to teach. This will entail:
 - (i) providing educational materials, textbooks, supplementary readers and library books to primary schools;
 - (ii) improving the quality of pre-service teacher education and promoting the ongoing professional development of serving teachers;
 - (iii) reforming the secondary selection examination;

- (iv) developing and facilitating the professional and managerial competence of primary school heads, school inspectors and education officers;
- (v) improving the overall management, organisation and planning capacities within the education sector as a whole;
- (vi) promoting the community's demand for the interest in primary education by curriculum improvements and measures designed to respond to the special needs of disadvantaged groups (Ministry of Education, 1992).

2. Priority at the secondary school level

Priority in the allocation of resources was to given to:

- (i) the physical rehabilitation of classrooms, laboratories and specialist rooms;
- (ii) the provision of textbooks, library books, and other educational materials;
- (iii) re-equipping science laboratories and providing consumables;
- (iv) improving the professional and managerial competence of school headteachers;
- (v) facilitating the professional activities of school inspectors (Ministry of Education, 1992).

B. 'EDUCATING OUR FUTURE' POLICY DOCUMENT

1. Introduction

Educating Our Future policy document is the third, and currently the official education policy in Zambia. This policy document was published in 1996. It concentrates on revitalised partnership, democratisation, decentralisation, efficiency, quality, access, equality, and equity in education.

3. The Philosophical rationale for the 1996 National Education Policy

Since Zambia is a liberal democratic society, the values of liberal democracy are supposed to guide the formulation of policies and implementation in the education sector. Liberal democracy encompasses the following key values:

- i) equality
- ii) fairness
- iii) rationality
- iv) moral autonomy

Therefore, the above values are supposed to guide the philosophical rationale for the provision of education in Zambia.

4. What is the role of the Government in Education?

The Government of Zambia acknowledges that education is a right for every person (Ministry of Education, 1996). Since education is regarded as a human right the state is obligated to protect the rights of individuals, foster social well-being and accomplish a good quality of life for every individual. The Government recognises the important role that education plays in improving the lives of individuals and consequently contributing to economic development and improved social cohesion. Hence, the Government plays an important role in educational provision.

Government's role in education is based on the following fundamental principles:

- a) the Government is the custodian of the human rights of every individual, including the right to education;
- b) the demands of national development requires that the Government takes into account the role that education plays in human capital formation, especially in developing the types of knowledge, skills, values and competencies that are necessary for economic development and social welfare;
- c) democratisation of education, with its demands for partnership in the provision of education, requires that Government creates an enabling environment, and establishes rules and regulations, that will protect the right of various educational agencies to full and fair participation in the development of education (Ministry of Education, 1996).

5. Principles for Educational Development in Zambia

Education in Zambia aims to serve individual, social and economic well-being and to improve the quality of life of individuals in society. This aim is informed by the following principles:

- a) liberalisation
- b) decentralisation
- c) equality and equity
- d) quality
- e) partnerships; and

- f) accountability

6. What are the goals of the Education System in Zambia?

- a) producing a learner capable of:
 - (i) being animated by a personally held set of civic, moral and spiritual values;
 - (ii) developing an analytical, innovative, creative and constructive mind;
 - (iii) appreciating the relationship between scientific thought, action and technology on one hand, and sustenance of the quality of life on the other;
 - (iv) demonstrating free expression of one's own ideas and exercising tolerance for the other people's views;
 - (v) cherishing and safeguarding individual liberties and human rights;
 - (vi) appreciating Zambia's ethnic cultures, customs and traditions, and upholding national pride, sovereignty, peace, freedom and independence;
 - (vii) participating in the preservation of the ecosystems in one's immediate and distant environments;
 - (viii) maintaining and observing discipline and hard work as the cornerstones of personal and national development.
- b) increasing access to education and life skills training.
- c) building capacity for the provision of quality education.
- d) creating conditions for effective coordination of policies, plans and programmes.
- e) rationalising resource mobilisation and utilisation.

7. Policies at various levels of education

a) Early Childhood Education

- i) The Ministry of Education acknowledges the important role of early childhood education in the multi-dimensional development of young children;
- ii) Within the constraints of available resources, the Ministry of Education will encourage and facilitate the establishment of pre-school programmes that would reach out to all children, especially to those living in rural and poor urban areas;
- iii) The provision and funding of early childhood and pre-school education will be the responsibility of Councils, local communities, non-governmental organisations, private individuals and families (Ministry of Education, 1996).

b) Basic Education

- i) The goal of the Ministry of Education is that every child should have access to nine years of good quality education.
- ii) As the first step leading to the attainment of the goal of universal basic education, the Ministry of Education will ensure that every child will have access to a minimum of seven years of good quality schooling in a school of parental choice.
- iii) Attainment of the goal of nine years of good quality education for all will be pursued on a partnership basis between the Ministry of Education on one hand, and local communities and other providers of education on the other.
- iv) In cooperation with relevant partner ministries, and with communities, non-governmental organisations and religious groups, the Ministry of Education will explore ways of establishing out-reach learning programmes that will bring the benefits of school education to children who for valid reasons are not able to attend school in the conventional way.
- v) Local communities will participate in the development, maintenance and repair of basic schools. As District Education Boards are established they will be mandated to promote such participation.
- vi) The Ministry of Education will negotiate with local authorities, church groups and other bodies for the resumption by these bodies of some of the responsibility they had in the past for the management of schools (Ministry of Education, 1996).
- vii) In order to enhance the effectiveness and quality of basic education, the Ministry of Education will:
 - promote the development of a curriculum that is comprehensive, balanced, integrated, diversified and relevant to the real needs of both the pupil and society;
 - take steps to ensure that it is well understood and taught; and
 - seek evidence that it has been well learned.
- viii) The philosophy of the Ministry of Education is that the education process centres on the pupil who has an active role to play in developing his or her intellectual and other qualities.

ix) The overall goal of basic education is to provide each pupil with a solid intellectual, practical and moral foundation that will serve as a basis for a fulfilling life. Hence it will seek to provide a comprehensive programme of study and school activities that will:

- promote the full and harmonious development of every pupil;
- give some preparation for adult working life;
- serve as a basis for further training; and
- lead to the level of competence necessary for proceeding to high school.

x) The Ministry of Education attaches high priority to improvement in the quality of educational provision in basic schools (Ministry of Education, 1996).

c) High School Education

- i) The goal of high school education is to enable every pupil to become a well-educated person who is useful to society and who is adequately prepared for the furtherance of his or her education or for becoming a self-supporting worker.
- ii) High schools will be required to intensify the preparation they give to pupils for the conclusion of life in school and the commencement of adult life.
- iii) The education provided in high schools should respond to the needs of the country for individuals who are soundly grounded in communication, mathematics, science and problem-solving skills. It should also respond to the needs of individuals for a range of post-school vocational choices.
- iv) The inspectorate, in cooperation with the Examinations Council of Zambia, will determine how school-based assessment can be better conducted in Grades 10-12 so that it can become a component of the final grading for the School Certificate Examinations.
- v) The Ministry of Education will support private and non-governmental participation in the provision of high school education and in the improvement of its quality (Ministry of Education, 1996).

d) Higher Education

- i) The Ministry of Education will promote the coordination and harmonisation of higher education and policy.

- ii) The Ministry of Education's policy framework for publicly funded universities is that:
- their teaching and research programmes be responsive to the real needs of society;
 - their teaching, research and service be of such high standard that, on merit, they will win the respect of the university world;
 - they establish suitable quality assurance and public accountability systems.
- iii) The financing of higher education will be on a shared basis between the Government, the institutions themselves, and students.
- iv) Higher education institutions will develop strategies for widening their resource base and diversifying their sources of revenue.
- v) Government support for students in higher education institutions will be in the form of loans that will be recovered during the students' subsequent working life.
- vi) Higher education institutions will be given equal opportunity of access to government consultancies for which they will compete on an equal footing with other applicants (Ministry of Education, 1996).



Self-Assessment

Test your understanding by answering the following questions:

1. Why is education policy important in Zambia?
2. What were the major themes in the *Focus on Learning* policy document?
3. State the education levels that the *Educating Our Future* document focussed on?

C. EDUCATION AND DECENTRALISATION

Reflection



Before you start this lesson, write down at least five areas in which the Ministry of General Education has decentralized its operations.

Introduction

Decentralisation was introduced in Zambia as a way bringing about effective administration and management of educational institutions. It was envisaged that through decentralisation, there would be an enhancement of community participation in the running of schools, colleges and other educational institutions.

When the Movement for the Multi-Party Democracy (MMD) came to power in 1991, education came to be defined in the context of liberalisation (Lungwangwa, e tal, 1995). In 1995, in line with the democratic and liberal philosophy the country had embraced, the Ministry of Education started to decentralise the education delivery systems which had to be implemented through education boards at the district, college and school levels. In 2006, the Ministry of Education outlined as follows: “Education boards have been established as part of the decentralisation programme. They are the vehicles through which communities are enabled to participate in educational planning and decision making” (Ministry of Education, 2006:20).

It is vital that at this point we get to learn what decentralisation is and what it involves.

1. What is decentralisation?

Decentralisation according to Cole (1986:156) is “the extent to which authority to commit the organisation’s resources is dispersed throughout the organisation”. And Bray (1984:5) defines decentralisation as “the process in which subordinate levels of a hierarchy are authorised by a higher body to take decisions about the organisation’s resources”. Basically, decentralisation is the transfer of power or responsibilities from a central level to the points of delivery. Transferring of power from a central level to the points of delivery is meant to make the organisation more responsive to the needs of the clients.

2. What decentralisation involves

Decentralisation among others entails:

- granting legal and financial powers over to education units. Central authorities will normally exercise indirect supervisory control over such units.
- entrusting local units with administrative responsibility and allowing them to plan and implement programmes and projects or to adjust central directives to local conditions, within guidelines set by the Ministry of Education headquarters.

3. The Implementation of decentralisation in the Education Sector in Zambia

The first steps of decentralisation in the Education Sector in Zambia were seen with the introduction of Education Boards in 1995. Education Boards were first established as pilot programmes in the Copperbelt province in 1995. Phase two of the implementation of Education Boards was done in 2001 in Lusaka, Southern, Northern and Western provinces. In 2002, under phase three the Education Boards were established in the following remaining provinces: Eastern, Central, Luapula and North Western Provinces. Additionally, the schools for Continuing Education Boards were established in 2003.

4. What are the advantages of decentralisation?

- i) It encourages participation in decision-making.
- ii) It encourages a sense of ownership at the points of delivery.
- iii) It is more responsive to local needs.
- iv) It promotes creativity and innovativeness.
- v) It reduces unnecessary delays.



Self-Assessment

Test your understanding by answering the following questions:

1. In your own words, what do you understand by the term ‘decentralisation’?
2. What are the advantages of decentralisation?
3. What are the disadvantages of decentralisation?

D. EDUCATION AND DEMOCRACY

Reflection



Before you start this lesson, take time to reflect on the possible relationship that exists between education and democracy.

Introduction

Democracy, in all of its historic and contemporary forms, has played a pivotal role in shaping

conceptions of public education. How public education is imagined, scripted, and enacted is contested along philosophic, programmatic, and pedagogic dimensions in relation to competing conceptions of democracy. Classic contributors to modern political thought and commentary, as well as those who framed modern arguments, have dealt specifically with the educational necessities of establishing and maintaining a democratic polity. They have generally reflected on the tensions between the socialization of a democratic nation's subjects (i.e. as acculturated, law abiding members) and the education of its citizens (i.e. critically thinking, active participants).

1. Education for Democracy

Democracy, in all of its forms, is a continuing project. The development of its necessary elements, including public education, is uneven. Competitive individualism as the exclusive method for achievement in learning and life restricts both instructional and civic practice. The dominant result has been a shallow democracy with voter indifference, elite-dominated public discourse, and growing citizen disengagement. With some situational differences, shallow democracy reinforces voters as passive consumers of candidates, parties, and policies that are advanced in ways indistinguishable from those used in the retail marketplace. Public education that emphasizes market-centered learning results in low intensity citizenship with personal civic responsibilities that can be discharged by preferred ignorance, fragmentary complaints, and episodic votes. A real democracy is radically social, persistently exploratory, and compellingly aesthetic. These distinguishing criteria are recognizable in many versions of the good society. There are longstanding aspirations for a social order that supports the establishment of justice, the pursuit of truth, and the experience of beauty.

A deep democracy is radically social when it is broadly inclusive and authentically collaborative. Politics and education, at all levels and in all venues, involve dominant elites and a limited set of special interest groups. Reliance on these established patterns supports isolation, drives alienation, structures a narrowed discourse, and solidifies established forms of opposition in schools and society.

Developing a deeper set of democratic processes would expand the number of active participants across their life span and at all stages of social inquiry, decision-making, and implementation. Such movement requires broad engagement of school age youth, adult citizens, and disadvantaged groups to support border crossings between disparate positions and expectations. In finding such

pathways, difficult encounters and negotiations will occur. These are necessary to engage and possibly integrate what may appear to be sharply conflicting goals, values, and behavioral styles.

This challenge is approachable when democratic processes are persistently exploratory. Shallow democracy offers a sense of certainty with minimal effort by students and adult citizens. Yet the realities of constant change flowing from the dynamics of our experienced world, signal pervasive uncertainty. Deep democracy requires persistent collaboration in teaching/learning to maintain openness, support principled risk-taking, and yield adaptive response. Deep social inquiry requires creativity over caution, vision over constraint, and deliberation over the convenience of closure. It is difficult, but necessary, to encourage and sustain conceptual divergence and multiplicity in adapting both to the turbulent and to the subtle changes in our multi-leveled lives. In education for deep democracy, there are no easy answers.

Deep democracy is compellingly aesthetic as it engages the emotions and energies necessary to persevere through the challenges of change. Intuition and inspiration, prophecy and poetry, enchantment and emotion, mystery and movement, silence and spirit are concepts seldom associated with problem solving in education, politics, or governance. Teaching, learning, and decision-making for public purposes require much more than objective analysis and linear problem solving. Inseparable, rather than distinct from highly individualized cognitive processes, are human capacities for social empathy and intuition. Emotions shape our thinking, often focusing attention, sometimes exerting decisive influence. Empathy, a feeling-based capacity, makes it possible to establish meaningful connections. Its continuing development allows us to sustain collaborative relationships not only with like-minded others, but even more importantly, with those whose experiences and commitments are quite different from our own.

Fulfillment of Democracy's transformative purpose requires continuing innovation in civic education. Civic education must emphasize pedagogies that support movement beyond illusions of certainty, convenience, convergence, and control. Civic education for a deeper democracy must engage diversely valid meanings, perspectives, possibilities, and plans.

Such pedagogies must:

- a) Extend collective wisdom concerning significant social issues;
- b) Expand possibilities for thought and action beyond those initially brought by

individuals;

- c) Enrich relationships by increasing the number and variety of meaningful connections among diverse participants; and
- d) Enhance capacities for continued engagement in civic learning and public life that narrow the gap between democratic aspirations and real-world accomplishments.

Democracy is a dynamic, multifaceted social composition. It can be shaped to create sites for the expression of strategic intuition, imaginative policy, and artistic advocacy. A more inclusive, more widely exploratory, and more aesthetically informed public education broadens opportunities for richer experiences of democratic life.

2. The Connection Between Democracy and Education

The connections between democracy and education have to do with their common interest in a particular moral view of human life and human agency. The purposes of education are essentially moral, being based on attempts to realize certain ideals about human beings. Insofar as schools are places of education, they need to be centrally concerned with what humans should know, do, and be. Gary Fenstermacher (1990) has been among the most eloquent proponents of this view. There are, of course, skills involved in education, such as reading. They are important. But all technical considerations fall within an overarching moral viewpoint. We don't simply want students to be good readers, competent writers, and able calculators. Much more importantly, we want them to have these skills in order to contribute to the betterment of human life. Most teachers understand this even if only intuitively, which is why they give more weight in their evaluations of students to effort and behavior than they do to test results and other academic measures (CTF, 1992). There is a danger here, it might be added, that teachers stress only some behaviors and come to prefer conformity, obedience and passivity to activism and curiosity (Wentzel, 1991).

Schools also embody a particular point of view as to how the capacity to live a worthwhile life is to be acquired - through learning about ideas and skills. Other routes are clearly possible, but they are not a major part of western schooling. Our schools do not attempt to embody the idea of coming to terms with life through meditation, or through contemplation of the great mysteries, or through physical experience and a great quest, or even, except to a very limited extent, through the arts. All of these are ways of living, which have their own legitimacy, and impressive pedigree, but they are something different from schooling. Instead, schools are concerned with the habits of reason

and rationality, with the acquisition of information, with the empirical world.

The idea of democracy has the same characteristics. It is a moral conception of how people ought to live together, driven not by considerations of efficiency, but by a powerful vision of what is right and proper. Although arguments of efficiency can be made (and have been made) in defense of democracy, in the end the idea that people should all have a share in political power has to stand on its own merit is an idea - because it appeals to our deep sense of what is right. Churchill's too-famous quote about democracy expresses the deep moral yearning, which lies behind the idea of equal participation in political life.

3. Conclusion

In conclusion, democracy as an ideal rests on a concept of people as reasonable, sufficiently so if not ideally so. If everyone has an entitlement to take part in political life, then it can only be because everyone has the capacity to come to make informed and reasonable judgments about what a society ought to do. If we believed that people were essentially unreasonable, and that appeals to evidence or to reasons for actions were largely useless, then we could not defend democracy. Precisely the same comment could be made about education, which is a sensible undertaking only if one presumes that people have the capacity to grow in understanding through reason. The ideas of democracy and of education are inextricably connected, and should be thought of as parts of the same vision.



Self-Assessment

Test your understanding by answering the following questions:

1. What is democracy?
2. How does democracy affect education and vice versa?

E. EDUCATION OF THE UNDERPRIVILEGED

Reflection



Before you start this lesson, write down at least four groups of people that have traditionally been excluded from enjoying their rights to education. What should be done to ensure their full participation?

1. Introduction

The Under-privileged constitutes about 82% of the households in Zambia. These are the disadvantaged groups of people who do not have sufficient resources to provide for their basic requirements, including education. These are the people in education who need special attention and protection from the policies which are designed. Among the children, the underprivileged groups would include the poor and vulnerable children, the rural children, the orphans, the street-kids and the SEN or challenged children and also the girl child. These groups of children tend to have limited access to social services and household assets.

2. Current Situational Analysis of the Underprivileged in Zambia

a. The Poor and the Vulnerable Children

The majority of these are found in rural and in peril-urban areas, more especially in Shanty Compounds. Most of these children are discouraged to obtain education because of the costs that are attached to education. Not only that, they are also discouraged because the schools are not designed for meeting their needs but instead they are fashioned to meet the needs of the middle class. The general perception is that schools that promote the middle class needs and values are likely to alienate them from real life situation. It should be noted however, that the poor and vulnerable desire for more education of academic type, that enhance their upward social mobility.

b. The Rural Children

Majority of the rural children do not perceive formal education as a necessary part of their life. The rural children usually question the value of their education, especially if they remain in the rural area after school. Educational provision in rural areas is generally poorer than in urban areas, both in terms of infrastructure and staffing. Majority of the untrained teachers are in rural schools.

c. The Orphans

Due to the advent of HIV/AIDS, the number of Orphans has increased. These usually depend on the extended family members for their educational attainment. With the development of money economies in modern societies, the extended family system is slowly diminishing, turning these orphans into a new social group known as street kids.

d. The SEN Children

Children with Special Educational needs (formally known as the Handicapped) constitute about 10% of the children. Many of these children are not enrolled in school due to the tendency of many families to conceal children with severe physical or mental handicaps. The few who are enrolled, they are integrated in ordinary classes where facilities are not suitable for them.

e. The Girls

Almost half the school-aged girls are not in school. Girls have a lower gross enrolment ratio at all levels of education than the boys. They have also lower completion rate but higher dropout rate. Girls also under perform in all public examinations in general, particularly in Mathematics and Science subjects.

The Underprivileged children, regardless of the group they may belong, need education and the policies in education should address some of the concerns that they face in education.

3. Educational Policy Response to the Plight of the Under-Privileged

- a. The government of Zambia is aware that there is need to improve the human capital of the Under-privileged, through better quality and more universal education. It is important first and foremost that every child has access to education of good quality.
- b. The Ministry of Education shall ensure that the under privileged are enable to draw maximum profit from the education system. They must not be denied access because of their inability to meet school related costs.
- c. Their continuation in school and their completion of various levels of education must be fostered through a varied, interesting and relevant curriculum.

- d. There is need to enhance their in-school performance by providing a well-resourced school environment, good teaching and an active network of relationship between the school and the community.
- e. In the distribution and use of limited resources Zambia has, the utilitarian Principle of bringing the greatest benefits to the Under- privileged shall be over-riding.
- f. The Ministry of Education has established bursary and scholarship schemes for the Under-privileged. It is working with the Ministry of Community Development and Social Services to identify the needy, and special attention is being given to the plight of the girl-child and to the Orphans.



Self-Assessment

Test your understanding by answering the following questions:

1. Who are the underprivileged in society?
2. Identify at least three underprivileged groups and show how they are less privileged than their counterparts in terms of education provision.



Unit Summary

We have come to the end of this unit. We started by discussing the Focus on Learning and the Educating our Future policy documents. *Focus on Learning* document is Zambia's second national educational policy document and was published in 1992. It focused on the development of primary education. Prioritising the provision of primary education was based on equity, social, economic and educational grounds. *Educating our Future* policy document is the third, and currently the official education policy in Zambia. This policy document was published in 1996. It concentrates on revitalised partnership, democratisation, decentralisation, efficiency, quality, access, equality, and equity in education.

In this unit, we have also discussed Education and Decentralization, Education and Democracy, before concluding with Education of the underprivileged. Decentralisation was introduced in Zambia as a way bringing about effective administration and management of educational

institutions. It was envisaged that through decentralisation, there would be an enhancement of community participation in the running of schools, colleges and other educational institutions. We have learned that the ideas of democracy and of education are inextricably connected, and should be thought of as parts of the same vision. If everyone has an entitlement to take part in political life, then it can only be because everyone has the capacity to come to make informed and reasonable judgments about what a society ought to do.

Finally, we have discussed that the underprivileged constitutes about 82% of the households in Zambia. These are the disadvantaged groups of people who do not have sufficient resources to provide for their basic requirements, including education. They include the poor and vulnerable children, the rural children, the orphans, the street-kids and the SEN or challenged children and the girl child. The next unit addresses the world conferences on Education for All (EFA).

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UNIT 6: WORLD CONFERENCES ON EDUCATION

Introduction

The development of education in Zambia has to a great extent been influenced by international conferences held to discuss the state of educational needs globally. The three major conferences which have had a profound impact are the 1961 Addis Ababa Conference, the 1990 Jomtien conference and the 2000 Dakar conference. This unit will, however, focus on the Jomtien and Dakar conferences on education.

Aim

The aim of this unit is to clearly show what the Jomtien and Dakar educational conferences resolved to deal with in order to improve provision and quality of education.

Objectives

Upon completion of the unit, you should be able to:

- (i) State the priority areas identified at the Jomtien Conference of 1990
- (ii) Establish factors that led to the hosting of the Dakar Conference in 2000
- (iii) Explain the educational strides achieved after hosting of the Jomtien and Dakar Conferences

A. JOMTIEN AND DAKAR CONFERENCES

Reflection



Before you start this lesson, write down your thoughts about the concept of education for all (EFA). In your view, is EFA attainable? How?

Introduction

Speaking through the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, nations of the world asserted that ‘everyone has a right to education’. Despite notable efforts by countries around the globe to ensure the right to education for all, in the 1980s the following realities persisted;

- ❖ More than 100 million children, including at least 60 million girls had no access to primary education.
- ❖ More than 960 million adults, two-thirds of whom were women, were illiterate.
- ❖ More than one-third of the world's adults had no access to printed knowledge, new skills and technologies that could improve the quality of their lives.
- ❖ More than 100 million children and countless adults failed to complete basic education programmes; millions more satisfied the attendance requirements but did not acquire essential knowledge and skills.

At the same time, the World still faced daunting problems such as mounting debt burdens, threat of economic stagnation and decline, rapid population growth, widening economic disparities among and within nations, war, occupation, civil strife, violent crime and many others. These problems constrained efforts to meet basic learning needs leading to lack of basic education among a significant proportion of the population.

These problems led to major setbacks in basic education in the 1980s in many of the least developed countries. In certain industrialized countries cutbacks in government expenditure over the 1980s led to deterioration of education.

B. JOMTIEN, THAILAND 5 -9 MARCH, 1990

With greater cooperation among nations, participants assembled in Jomtien, Thailand, from 5 to 9 March, 1990 at the World Conference on Education for All. At this conference the following were proclaimed;

1. Every person – child, youth and adult shall be able to benefit from educational opportunities designed to meet basic learning needs.
2. To serve the basic learning needs requires more than a recommitment to basic education as it now exists. What is needed is an 'expanded vision' that surpasses present resource levels, institutional structures, curricula, and conventional delivery systems while building on the best current practices.
3. Universalizing access and promoting Equity – provide education for all children, youth and adults.
4. Focusing on learning – actual learning acquisition and outcome rather than just enrollments.

5. Broadening the means and scope of basic education
6. Enhancing the environment for learning in terms of nutrition, health care and general physical and emotional support the learners need to participate actively in and benefit from education.
7. Strengthening partnerships, national, regional and local educational authorities.
8. Developing a supportive policy context socially, and economically in order to realize a full provision and utilization of basic education.
9. Mobilizing resources; financial, human resources.
10. Strengthening international solidarity to enhance equitable and fair economic relations.

C. DAKAR, SENEGAL – APRIL 26-28, 2000

By 2000 it was realized that there was significant progress in many countries and it still remained unacceptable that more than 113 million children had no access to primary education, 880 million adults were illiterate, gender discrimination continued to permeate education systems, and the quality of learning and the acquisition of human values and skills fell short of the aspirations and needs of individuals and societies. The purpose of the Forum was to present the global results of the evaluation of the Decade of “Education for All” (EFA) launched in Jomtien, Thailand, in March 1990, and to adopt a new Framework for Action, essentially in order to continue the task. As was already evident half way through the decade, the six goals set in Jomtien for the year 2000 had not been met. Thus, the Framework for Action adopted in Dakar basically “reaffirmed” the vision of the goals laid down in Jomtien, which now ran for another 15 years, until 2015. Why 15? There is apparently no rational calculation or scientific answer.

The event was organized by the International Consultative Forum on Education for All (the EFA Forum), a body created in 1991 to monitor EFA and composed of representatives of the five international agencies that sponsored the initiative – UNESCO, UNICEF, UNDP, UNFPA and the World Bank – and of bilateral cooperation agencies, governments and NGOs, as well as some education specialists.

In April, 2000, 26-28, the World Education Conference was held in Dakar, Senegal and the 1990 Jomtien vision was re-affirmed. It was, as has been said, an event without big surprises. The broad results of the EFA end-of-decade global assessment were known prior to Dakar. The assessment

process began in mid-1998, with national reports drawn up by governments in each country (on the basis of 18 indicators proposed by the EFA Forum), which were then incorporated into regional reports presented and discussed at regional meetings.

1990–2000: Some Comparative Data

	1990 (Jomtien)	2000 (Dakar)
Expenditure per pupil as a percentage of Gross National Product (GNP) per capita	Between 6% and 19%	Between 8% and 20% (1998)
Children in early childhood development and education programmes (0 to 6 years)	99 million	104 million (out of a total of over 800 million)
Children in school	599 million	681 million (44 million of this increase being girls)
Children with no access to school	106 million	117 million (60% girls)
Illiterate adults	895 million	880 million (60% women)
Adult literacy rate	75%	80% (85% men, 74% women)

The countries in attendance collectively committed to the following goals:

1. Expanding and improving early childhood care and education especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged.
2. Ensuring that by 2015 all children, particularly girls have access to complete free and compulsory free education
3. Ensuring that learning needs of all young people and adults are met through equitable access.

4. Achieving a 50% improvement in levels of adult literacy by 2015 especially women.
5. Eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary by 2015 with a focus on ensuring girls' full access to education.
6. Improving all aspects of the quality of education and ensuring excellence of all so that recognized and measurable learning outcomes in literacy, numeracy and essential life skills.

The Dakar conference was able to provide the opportunity to assess the achievements, lessons and failures of the past decade, including problems encountered since Jomtien in 183 countries. Most importantly recommendations for future action. The Jomtien vision remains pertinent and powerful as it provides a broad and comprehensive view of education and its critical role in empowering individuals and transforming societies.

At both conferences the key points and principles included; **universal access to education, a focus on equity, emphasis on learning outcomes, broadening the means and scope of basic education, enhancing the environment for learning and strengthening partnerships.** Tragically reality fell far short of this vision; millions were still denied their right to education and the opportunities it brings to live safer, healthier, more productive and fulfilling lives. Such has been due to weak political will, insufficient financial resources and inefficient use of that which is available, burden of debt, inadequate attention to the learning needs of the poor and the excluded, a lack of attention to the quality of learning and an absence of commitment to overcoming gender disparities.

Jomtien and Dakar: The Goals

1990–2000: Jomtien	2000–2015: Dakar
1. Expansion of early childhood care and development activities, including family and community interventions, especially for poor, disadvantaged and disabled children.	1. Expanding and improving comprehensive early childhood care and education, especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children.

2. Universal access to, and completion of, primary education (or whatever higher level of education is considered “basic”) by the year 2000.

3. Improvement in learning achievement such that an agreed percentage of an appropriate age cohort (e.g. 80% of 14 year-olds) attains or surpasses a defined level of necessary learning achievement.

4. Reduction in the adult illiteracy rate (the appropriate age cohort to be determined in each country) to, say, one-half its 1990 level by the year 2000, with sufficient emphasis on female literacy to significantly reduce the current disparity between the male and female illiteracy rates.

5. Expansion of provision of basic education and training in other essential skills required by youth and adults, with programme effectiveness assessed in terms of behavioural changes and impacts on health, employment and productivity.

6. Increased acquisition by individuals and families of the knowledge, skills and values required for better living and sound and sustainable development, made available through all educational channels including the mass media,

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

3. Ensuring that the learning needs of all young people and adults are met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life skills programmes.

4. Achieving a 50 per cent improvement in levels of adult literacy by 2015, especially for women, and equitable access to basic and continuing education for all adults.

5. Eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls’ full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality.

6. Improving all aspects of the quality of education and ensuring excellence for all so that recognized and measurable learning outcomes are achieved by all, especially in

other forms of modern and traditional communication, and social action, with effectiveness assessed in terms of behavioural change.	literacy, numeracy and essential life skills.
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A number of speakers from government delegations, from Latin America and the Caribbean, Africa and Asia, rejected the proposed mechanism in firm and even heated terms, and requested that the leadership of EFA should be taken by UNESCO as a specialized educational organization within the United Nations system. The speakers were equally emphatic in agreeing that the task should be entrusted not to the *present* UNESCO but to a *restructured* UNESCO.

From Jomtien to Dakar: Inevitable Contrasts

There were huge differences between the Jomtien and Dakar conferences, not merely because of the ten years of dramatic and turbulent changes in the world that lay between them, but also because of the spirit surrounding each of them.

Jomtien succeeded in creating a spirit of a fresh start, of hope, of “this time it’ll work”. In Dakar, both agencies and national delegations inevitably arrived with a feeling of failure, of a task half done. In Jomtien, anything seemed possible, the future looked promising, *quality* and *equity* were somewhat new words, and made for credible goals. Ten years on, there has been an unprecedented growth in poverty throughout the world, in exclusion, unemployment, hunger, despair and AIDS. *Quality* and *equity* are now worn-out words, with little relation to reality.

In 1990, technology seemed to be the magic wand that would scatter its gifts, ushering in longed-for educational innovations, mass access and enjoyable, rapid learning for children, young people and adults. At the start of this century, the potential and promises of developments in information and communication technologies leave us speechless; at the same time, the “*digital divide*” is a new phenomenon and a new term already incorporated in educational jargon – one more problem and one more division between rich and poor, between the included and the excluded. Jomtien was an invitation to create, to invent and to dream. Dakar, faced with the crass contrast between rhetoric and reality, between documents and facts, between goals and achievements, restrained the

imagination, encouraged excuses and self-justification, and provided a temptation to inflate numbers and to blur realities.

The international agencies which organized the 1990 conference arrived in Jomtien disposed to try to strengthen the inter-agency collaboration to which they were committed, in the knowledge that this was a requirement if they were to set the necessary example of leadership of a world initiative that proclaimed cooperation, partnership, multi-sectorial policies and efficient use of resources. These same agencies, ten years later, have experienced the real difficulties of such collaboration, have withdrawn into their own “niches” and institutional styles, and have developed the well-known “donor fatigue” syndrome. The differences and disputes between them, which were already present in 1990, have not diminished but have rather worsened over the decade.

Perhaps the most unfortunate aspect of Dakar was the infighting between agencies, particularly between UNESCO and UNICEF, sister agencies in the United Nations system and today in open competition for hegemony over the world panorama of education, and specifically over EFA. Each is dismissive of the other’s technical quality. UNESCO resents the fact that the United Nations gave UNICEF world leadership over education for girls, while UNICEF resents that UNESCO was ratified by national governments as the lead agency for Education for All. The only organization that appears not to have problems with its identity and hegemony is the World Bank, which has its own agenda and huge financial and political resources with which to pursue it, and which, in the technical vacuum effectively created in the field of education on a global scale, has succeeded in imposing a new type of technical “expertise” and legitimacy in the field.

National delegations arrived in Dakar without much security or conviction. Even though those heading governments and education ministries were not the same people as in 1990, today’s officials knew that they had to accept liability for the success or failure of their predecessors and to present a decent image of their countries. In many cases, however, the reality and the statistics gave them no help. At the end of the decade, several countries had no information available with which to respond to some of the 18 indicators laid down. Few had data on learning achievement; in some cases, the data were there but progress had not been made in the very field which was defined as crucial in Jomtien: learning.

Many countries admitted in their reports that they had ignored adult and non-formal education, while regarding Education for All as *Primary* Education for All, and, even worse, as *access* to

primary education, with little attention to retention, completion and effective learning. For all the juggling with words and figures, governments know that they are subject today to the watchful eye of civil society, of researchers and specialists who may want to scrutinize the truthfulness of figures and statements. While ten years ago, government reports were confidential documents locked away in the archives of education ministries, today they are exposed to generalized demands for information, transparency and accountability.

Academic institutions and non-governmental organizations have no reason either to feel satisfied with their participation in EFA over the last ten years. NGOs became increasingly involved and concerned in the progress of EFA as a macro policy and programme at national and international level, over the final few years when EFA was being assessed and the decade was drawing to a close. The Global Campaign for Education, critical of and alternative to the “official” EFA movement, was set up at the instigation of international NGOs from the North rather than as an endogenous movement founded by NGOs from countries in the South.

The loss of a critical attitude among NGOs – and of progressive intellectuals as a whole – is a well-known phenomenon of the era. Heavy reliance on international and national funding, and their growing role as consultants, service providers and implementers of government social policies and compensatory programmes, have placed NGOs in a difficult position as the “ham in the sandwich”, causing them to lose much of their autonomy and to become reactive rather than proactive. Furthermore, activism and focus on local concerns and projects have meant that many national NGOs have remained on the fringes of the national and international issues and forums that decide on the policies and guidelines that eventually govern their own activities at local community level.

Between Jomtien and Dakar, not only were goals not fully met, but the original ideas of EFA also stood still. Despite the weaknesses to be found in the Jomtien documents, they had the potential and power to inspire a renewal of education at many levels and in many ways. The “broad vision” of *basic education* espoused in Jomtien remains indeed as a current challenge, to be developed in theory and delivered in practice in the coming years. One decade on, Dakar did not pretend to elaborate or offer anything new: it presented itself as a Jomtien+10, that is, as a staging post between the evaluation of a decade of EFA and its extension for another 15 years.

The 1990s initiated a new historical era, and the world changed fundamentally over the decade, but this is not reflected in the Dakar documents. The “poverty alleviation” discourse continues to

be repeated over and over again, while in this very decade we reached a point where we need to ask ourselves whether the problem is to improve education in order to alleviate poverty or rather to alleviate poverty in order to improve education and, moreover, to make education and learning possible. Trust is still placed in economic growth as the solution to social inequity, while what was reaffirmed in the 1990s is that growth is not enough, that the distribution of income remains unchanged and wealth is becoming ever more concentrated in a few hands.

The reiteration of Jomtien's vision and goals, and the postponement of the target date, assume that failure and potential success can be explained in terms of a linear axis between more and less, that what is needed is not to rethink the diagnosis, objectives and strategies, but more of the same: more time (15 more years), more money (new loans and donations, and better use of existing resources), more commitment, and more action. Once again, there is no consideration or criticism of the major changes that need to be introduced at local, national and global level to the ways of thinking about and confronting education policy, educational reform and international cooperation in this field.

Where is the new theoretical and practical knowledge about education that was acquired in the course of the decade? What was learnt at global, regional, national and local level, from the attempt to translate the ideas of EFA into policies, programmes, projects and action plans? What should have been done differently, at all levels? Neither the national and regional reports, nor the global EFA report, contain substantial answers to these questions. In fact, the global end-of-decade assessment was largely quantitative (the 18 indicators) and unilateral (international agencies requesting evaluation by governments without evaluating their own performance).

In comparison with 1990, there is no doubt that we now have more refined statistics, which allow the magnitude of the problems to be better understood, but neither the Declaration nor the Framework for Action suggests that ten years of practical application of EFA have led to any better understanding of the nature of these problems or of suitable ways of dealing with them. The only international EFA partner that worked out and published its "lessons learnt" during the decade was the World Bank. Such lessons, however, show the Bank as a slow learner, only just grasping what has been known in theory and through painful practical experience – often assisted by the same World Bank and by other donors – in poorest countries in the South for many years.

Perhaps the greatest difference between Jomtien and Dakar was the very deep erosion of the collective confidence and credence placed in the usefulness and effectiveness of international

conferences, agreements and commitments. The continued postponement of deadlines for the same repeated objectives and goals has made them seem commonplaces – *eradication of illiteracy, universal primary education, free and compulsory education, basic education, leading role of teachers, quality improvement, gender equality, alleviation of poverty* – towards which there is little progress, at least as measured by the conventional indicators and mechanisms with which education continues to be evaluated.

After Dakar, What Next?

It has repeatedly been said of EFA that it began and remained an eminently “donor-driven” initiative. One of the key “lessons learnt” by international EFA partners during the 1990s is that the mechanisms for implementing and monitoring EFA were not sufficiently clearly defined in Jomtien, and that implementation and monitoring were not based at the country level. This time, the Framework for Action agreed in Dakar defines better the roles and mechanisms at the various levels, and reaffirms that “the heart” of the action must lie at the national level.

The next 15 years must not be a repeat of this story. It is not possible to separate *thought* (top) from *action* (bottom), either in the relationship between international agencies and national governments or in that between national/local governments and national/local societies. Accepting this distinction means accepting that there are some who plan and others who are restricted to implementation, that the investigation and analysis are already done and that all that is left is converting them into Action Plans. Doing things well means *thinking and acting at all levels*. Discussing the diagnosis and the strategies adopted at a macro level, and making suggestions as to the “what” and “how” for each specific context, are tasks for the National EFA Forums and for civil society as a whole.

This time it should not be possible to arrive at the year 2015 and complain about lack of achievement. Participation is built in as a prerequisite and as a channel open to all, and for that to take place information and evaluation will have to be transparent, flowing in both directions between the local and the global. In 1990, information and communication were undertakings requiring considerable time and money, tons of paper, distribution of materials, organization of meetings, travel and delays; today we can also use electronic mail and the Internet. No one should arrive at 2015 and unload on to others responsibility for what has not been done, done badly or

only half done. It is the responsibility of ALL – the national and the international community, from the local to the global – to ensure that Education for All becomes a reality.



Self-Assessment

Test your understanding by answering the following questions:

1. State at least two priority areas in education which were identified at the 1961 Addis Ababa Conference.
2. What were some of the factors that led to the hosting of the Jomtien Conference in 1990?
3. Discuss some of the differences that existed between the 1990 and 2000 educational conferences.
4. State at least three areas of importance which were identified at the Dakar conference.



Unit Summary

In conclusion, this unit has discussed the rationale behind the two major educational conferences. The Jomtien conference was held at a time when more than 100 million children, including at least 60 million girls had no access to primary education. More than 960 million adults, two-thirds of whom were women, were illiterate. More than one-third of the world's adults had no access to printed knowledge, new skills and technologies that could improve the quality of their lives. More than 100 million children and countless adults failed to complete basic education programmes; millions more satisfied the attendance requirements but did not acquire essential knowledge and skills. At this conference, it was proclaimed that every person – child, youth and adult shall be able to benefit from educational opportunities designed to meet basic learning needs. The Dakar Conference was held in 2000 to merely reaffirm the Jomtien vision and commitments. In the next unit, we will discuss some of the financial issues in education.

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UNIT 7: FINANCIAL ISSUES IN EDUCATION

Introduction

Welcome to unit seven of this module. In this lesson we will talk about financial issues in education. In particular, we will focus on the Zambian situation. Education financing has some serious implications on educational quality, equity, participation and completion rates. We are going to begin by identifying the providers of educational funds before we examine the models of financing education. Thereafter, we will look at the relationship between aid and education. The third section of the unit will highlight the impact of debt on education. We will end the unit by examining the concept of partnerships in educational provision.

Aim

The aim of this unit is to introduce you to financial issues in education. We will specifically discuss the following:

- i. Aid and Education
- ii. Education and Debt
- iii. Financing of Education
- iv. Partnerships in Education

Objectives

At the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- i. Describe the models of Education Financing
- ii. Explain the relationship between Aid and Education
- iii. State the impact of Debt on Education
- iv. Examine the role Partnerships in Education

Reflection



Before you start this lesson, think about the various ways in which education is financed in Zambia. Where does the money for education come from?

A. FINANCING OF EDUCATION

1. Providers of education finances

There are ideally three principal sources of educational funds. These include **households** (private individuals), **public and private enterprises** (business and the corporate world), and **the international community** (donors and investors). These funds are provided either directly (as fees of various kinds or as donations) or indirectly by transferring their resources through taxes or donor aid. **The role of government is to allocate resources coming from those main sources of funds to education and other resources.** In itself, government does not generate funds for education.

2. Why government involvement?

The government is a concerned stakeholder in the allocation of funds for education for several reasons such as the following:

- (i) Education is a mixed good. This means that it brings benefits to the individual (private) receiving it as well as to the entire society (social/public). Because there are many social benefits associated with education, the government uses society's resources to meet some of its costs.
- (ii) It is the role of government to equalize the distribution of national resources. Through this, government ensures that education is accessible to all.
- (iii) Education is also a necessary good which cannot be left in the hands of private individuals.
- (iv) Education builds a stock of human capital needed for the economy; it increases life-time earnings, and raises the productive capacity of individuals (workers).

As a rule of thumb, the more universal a level of education is, the more appropriate it is that it be publicly financed. The less universal it is, the more appropriate that it be privately financed through fees. An example of this is university education.

3. Models of education financing

There are basically three models of financing education. These include the Bureaucratic (Tax Funding), Cost Sharing, and Market (Economic) models. Let us briefly consider each one of them.

a. Bureaucratic Model

This may also refer to the Tax Funding model. According to this model, the regulation and control of education financing is heavily borne by the Government. Due to State control, this system tends to be more unified and centralized. The rationale behind this model is the government's desire to promote social equality and justice for all citizens. Here, the government's interest is supreme. The model is characterized by so much rationality, rules, formal agreements, managerism and hierarchical relationships. Meanwhile, bureaucrats or professional elites act on behalf of the Government.

b. Cost Sharing Model

Emphasis here is generation of revenue and attainment of economic efficiency through partnerships with the consumers of education. While the government might allocate some of the public resources towards education, learners themselves also contribute something towards the cost of their education. The dominant interest shifts from that of government to society at large. The major characteristic of this model is the collective contribution that the state, students, employers and society make towards education.

c. Market Model

This model implies the application of market principles and market-driven approaches into the financing of education in order to make it completely self-financing. This is the model usually adopted by private educational institutions. The argument is that beneficiaries and consumers of a product, such as education, should pay for it. The concept of free education does not exist in this model. While the primary goal of this model is to effectively and efficiently provide the best educational services (as is the case with the other models), the profit motive is also apparent.

4. The Zambian Situation

In Zambia, the government bears much of the responsibility of education provision. For example, almost all primary schools (9,636) and secondary schools (832) are government owned and managed. Despite having a number of grant-aided institutions, especially at the secondary school level, a greater part of these schools' expenditure is borne by government. At tertiary level, most of the teacher training and vocational institutions are run by government. The government further

provides financial assistance to seven public universities despite these institutions being autonomous.

It should, however, be noted that the provision of all formal educational provision is not solely done through the mechanism of the ministries in charge of education (i.e. MoGE and MoHE). Other ministries are also involved. For instance, the Ministries of Agriculture is responsible for the training of agricultural personnel. The same is true for the Ministry of Health.



Self-Assessment

Test your understanding by answering the following question:

1. Identify and explain the three models of education financing discussed in this lesson.

C. AID AND EDUCATION

Reflection



Before you start this lesson, write down your thoughts about foreign aid in education. What role does aid play in education?

1. What is foreign aid?

In order to mobilize resources for education, sometimes the government looks up to foreign or external assistance. By external assistance, we mean help from development partners, both locally and abroad. The aid to education is received either as grants or as loans. A grant is something given for free and the receiver has no obligation to pay back. A loan however, will have to be paid back (with interest in some cases).

Generally speaking, “**foreign aid**” can be taken to mean any governmental resource transfers of capital from one country (usually rich countries) to another (poor countries). Transfers of resources by private foreign investors however, do not qualify to be called aid. Foreign aid or external assistance can therefore, be defined to include all official grants and concessional loans either in foreign currency or in kind, which aims at transferring resources from the developed countries to the LDCs for developmental purposes.

2. Categories of Aid

Some education aid is received directly as fees, donations, grants, donations and all other inputs of the NGOs. However, much of the aid is received through either **bilateral** or **multilateral** agreements.

a. Bilateral Aid

Bilateral aid is that assistance provided directly from a donor government to a recipient government. It is a nation-to-nation kind of assistance. For instance, when the U.S government provides funding directly to Zambia. The donor countries may provide aid either directly to the recipient government or to organizations operating in the recipient country. This aid is also sometimes managed by a government agency responsible for carrying out this task.

b. Multilateral Aid

Multilateral aid is between more than two parties. An example of this is when a donor country sends funds to a multilateral organization such as the World Bank or the Africa Development Bank (ADB), which in turn, administers that aid to several recipient countries.

3. Forms of Aid

a. Credit Assistance (Loans and Grants)

In broad terms, the two common forms of foreign aid are **Loans** and **Grants**. Loans are required to be repaid with interest, however, on concessional terms. However, grants do not have any obligation of interest payment or anything else. Nevertheless grant-recipient countries sometimes may be asked to purchase commodities or ‘consultancy services’ from the grant-donor countries.

b. Project Aid

Foreign aid may come in form of project or programme aid. This type of aid, however, may constitute loans or grants specifically intended to fund particular projects or programmes. Project Tied Aid is given only for specific projects and the recipient country cannot shift it to other projects. An example of this is the Basic Education Sub Sector Investment Programme (BESSIP) which was implemented in Zambia between 1998 and 2002. The challenge with this form of aid

is that the aid agencies determine educational priorities for the recipient country. There is also a risk of projects dying a natural death.

c. Tied and Untied Aid

Sometimes donors set out conditions compelling recipient countries to spend their loan amount in the country where the aid is coming from. This is what is called tied aid. One of the characteristics associated with aid-tying is that projects with large import content get approval for more aid than those using domestic inputs. This makes aid-receiving countries to be perpetually yoked to the donor countries.

Receiving aid to purchase some product from a donor country will usually mean continuing demand for spare parts and on-going technical advice on operating the imported equipment. Untied aid however, is the aid that is not tied to any project or nation.

d. Technical Assistance

Technical aid is another form of tied aid and is much useful for the recipient country to increase the pace of economic development by using the modern technology or skill in some specific sectors of the economy. Technical assistance accounts for a greater part of foreign aid that flows into the education system. There are many other forms of aid, but we will not talk about them here.



Self-Assessment

Test your understanding by answering the following question:

1. What is the relationship between Aid and Education?

C. EDUCATION AND DEBT

Reflection



Before you start this lesson, think about the possible relationship between debt and education. How is education affected by debt and vice versa?

While foreign aid can be said to have contributed to the development of recipient countries, it can also be argued that it has led to the impoverishment of some. This is because loans in particular leave recipient countries in complete bondage of debt servicing.

Multilateral aid usually comes with conditions which recipient countries have to commit themselves to. Most of these conditions have often hurt social sectors of the economy, including education. These conditions include cutting back on training, employment and salaries of teachers.

1. Impact of debt on Education

- **Debt hinders investment in public education**, since governments are instructed to cut spending to social sectors as a condition to qualify for debt relief. Debt drains resources needed for educational services.
- The debt conditions such as the one above, **severely impacts on access**, as hundreds of millions children have to scramble for few classroom spaces. In 2005 for example, debt repayments cost the 59 poorest countries over \$40 billion (more than twice needed to put every child in school). Therefore, **countries end up spending more on debt service than on education**.
- **Debt also affects the quality of education** by reducing the number of deployed teachers, books and facilities. In 2004 during an employment freeze, the government could not recruit 9,000 teachers despite the shortage.
- Schools have had to resort to cost sharing; making it very difficult for the poor to be in school.
- Poor infrastructure due to the government's failure to channel money to social sectors.
- Aid that comes with imposing conditions forces recipient governments to adopt policies propagated by those donors.



Self-Assessment

Test your understanding by answering the following question:

1. How does Debt impact on Education?

D. PARTNERSHIPS IN EDUCATIONAL PROVISION

Reflection



Before you start this lesson, list down the major partners in educational provision in Zambia.

1. Background

The virtual monopoly exercised by the Government over the provision of education, after independence particularly at the primary level, had several negative consequences.

It fostered the oppressive culture of over-dependency on the state that served to prevent communities from tackling their own problems. Finally, it was incapable of responding to all the needs and failed to provide education in either the quantity or the quality that individuals and the country needed.

2. Restoring Partnerships in Educational Provision

The government therefore, established new and revitalized partnerships, involving all providers of education at all levels: partnerships **between the Ministry of Education and other government ministries**; partnerships **between the Government and non-governmental organizations**, the **private sector, local communities, religious groups, and families**.

Effective partnership involves giving attention to the role that cooperating partners can play, formulating policies to guide the partnership, and establishing strategies that facilitate it.

a. Inter-Ministry Collaboration

Several government ministries are involved in the field of education. Key among these are the Ministries of General Education and Higher Education, which are mainly responsible for primary and secondary education, teacher training and continuing education, and for much relating to curriculum, evaluation and quality control. The Ministry of Higher Education, in particular, is responsible for broad policy directions for the public universities. As the principal providers of formal education in the country, the two Ministries have extensive management and financial functions.

b. Community Participation

There are different ways in which communities are participating in education in Zambia today. Cost-sharing is one of them. The drastic reduction in public resources for education has resulted in a major part of the direct costs being transferred to parents. Parent-Teachers Associations are active in raising money for various services in schools. Business companies, churches, and NGOs provide support to schools and other Institutions in such forms as direct ownership of schools, adoption of existing schools, and support for disadvantaged children.

c. Grant-Aided Institutions

Voluntary agencies, mostly religious bodies, make a significant contribution to educational provision in Zambia through their grant-aided schools and colleges. **A grant aided institution is one that receives from government a grant of 75% of the capital costs of approved projects and an annual grant in aid of running costs.**

The Government also pays the salaries of teachers and approved personnel at these institutions.

d. The Private Sector

The establishment and running of private schools by individuals and organizations is a growing mode of community participation in education. Private institutions which currently provide educational facilities include the following:

1. Institutions run on a profit basis:- schools established for profit purposes, by individuals or companies, and charging market value fees;
2. Institutions run on a non-profit basis: - religious agency schools and colleges;
3. Schools established and operated by local or international companies; some of these charge fees, while others do not; communal schools run by local communities and non-governmental organizations.



Self-Assessment

Test your understanding by answering the following question:

1. How important are partnerships in education?



Unit Summary

Education financing has serious implications on educational quality, equity, participation and completion rates. In this unit, we have examined the models and theoretical underpinnings of financing education. We have also discussed the relationship between aid and education. The third section of the unit explored the impact of debt on education. We have concluded the unit by examining the concept of partnerships in educational provision. In the next unit, we will look at some of the cross-cutting issues in education.

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UNIT 8: CROSS-CUTTING ISSUES IN EDUCATION

Introduction

Welcome to unit eight of this module. In the previous unit, we looked at the financial issues in education. In this unit, we will discuss the impact of education on many cross-cutting issues such as health, HIV/AIDS, gender, SDGs, globalization and corruption. We will also share insights about quality assurance, internal and external quality assurance standards as well as guidelines and practical examples of quality assurance.

Aim

The aim of this unit is to give a comprehensive understanding of how some cross-cutting issues impinge on the delivery of education.

Objectives

At the end of the unit, you should be able to:

- i. Explain the relationship between Health and Education
- ii. Explain the relationship between HIV/AIDS and Education
- iii. Explain the relationship between Gender and Education
- iv. Explain the relationship between education and Sustainable Developmental Goals
- v. Explain the meaning of corruption, and show how it affects education.
- vi. Assess the impact of globalisation on education

A. EDUCATION AND HEALTH

Reflection



Before you start this lesson, think about the ways in which education and health are inter-related.

Definitions: Education

We should bear in mind that the word education is defined differently by different scholars to suit several purposes or situations. However, you will realize that all definitions attest that education

is a lifelong process; it can be undertaken by any agency; and is dependent on the need. Let us look at the definition of education as outlined by UNESCO. According to UNESCO (1976:2), *“education is taken to comprise organised and sustained communication designed to bring about learning.”* This implies that education is expected to bring about permanent change in behaviour, knowledge, attitude, skills or capabilities. We move on to the next definition, health.

Health

As we all know, health refers to a person’s mental or physical condition. In essence, it is the state of being free from illness or injury. However, the World Health Organisation (WHO) adds another dimension to this; social well-being. According to WHO (1946) health is a “state of complete physical and social well-being and not merely the absence of disease or infirmity”. Looking at the above definition, we can attest that health encompasses much more than physical and mental well-being.

The Impact of Education on Health

Education is a social determinant of health and is strongly linked to health. Well to start with, we will look at education levels as an avenue. Education in many ways, helps remedy problems that come with malnutrition. UNESCO (1991) observes that malnutrition has particularly devastating effects on children such as lowering their resistance to disease as well as impairing their mental and physical development. Malnutrition is almost absent in homes where parents are educated in that more education culminates into increased family income. As such, the parents can afford to buy the right kinds of food that will keep their families healthy.

Furthermore, education helps parents understand and act appropriately in relation to health issues. Research has shown that educated people are better informed about diseases, take preventive measures, recognise signs of illness early and tend to use health care services more (WHO, 2013; UNESCO, 2013/14; UNFPA, 2014). We can say that there is a correlation between education and health in that each has an impact on the other. For instance, in the case of better nutritional conditions alluded to above, it culminates into having healthier children who are well developed mentally and physically. This has an impact on education in that it improves children’s access to, and benefit from educational provision in that absenteeism will be minimised and concentration improved (Feinstein et. al, 2006). Therefore, we can safely claim that this will translate into better

grades or results for the students. Consequently, the more educated the parents are, the better the health conditions of children are likely to be.

Additionally, studies have shown that increased education reduces mortality among children and adults (Feinstein et. al, 2006; Higgins et.al, 2008; UNESCO, 1991). Among adults, this culminates into an improvement in life expectancy. According to Feinstein et.al (2006), research conducted in the USA in 1960 points out that one more year of schooling increased life expectancy at age 35 by at least 1.7 years. Research carried out in the USA between 1960 and 1980 shows that although life expectancy had increased for all, the gap between those with highest and lowest education remained (Higgins et.al, 2008).

Furthermore, education increases the likelihood of identifying more closely with attitudes that improve health, thereby prolonging life. Higgins et.al (2008:8) observe that “low education levels have been associated with increased risk of death from lung cancer, stroke, cardiovascular disease and infectious diseases.” WHO (2013) observes that basic education supports universal health coverage by enabling healthy life style choices and health-care decisions. This seems to suggest that people with basic educational attainment are less likely to adopt unhealthy habits such as smoking, eating habits, sexual activities and physical activities that may put their health at risk.

Furthermore, education enhances an individuals’ resilience, self-efficacy and improves coping mechanisms (Higgins et.al, 2008). As such, we can conclude that education increases the likelihood of identifying more closely with attitudes that improve health as alluded to in subsequent paragraphs. Therefore, more education would imply better health related behaviours. For instance, education for women tends to result in better health outcomes for their children and them and subsequently culminates into stable population growth (UNESCO, 2013/2014). We move on to discuss the impact of education on health through psychosocial development.

Psychosocial development will be used to refer to the interrelation of social factors and individual thought and behaviour. Feinstein et.al (2006:6) note that “education changes the way people behave and the choices they make.” Further studies have shown that increased levels of education lead to different thinking and decision-making patterns (Cutler & Lleras-Muney, 2008). This would especially be true if life-skills such as decision making, critical thinking, self-awareness, effective communication and problem solving, among others, are incorporated in the curricular as

it would imply linking what is learnt in school with the challenges faced in real life. This would help prepare learners for real life challenges that they would encounter.

Furthermore, education plays a significant role in the socialization process as it embeds habits, skills and values conducive to social cooperation and participation in society, for instance, voting. This is because education helps develop greater understanding and tolerance of diversity and commitment to equality of opportunities which in turn contributes to increased levels of social capital (Higgins et.al, 2008). Increased social capital is associated with better health. Education is a powerful lever for improving people's health. The impact of education on health are particularly strong for women as the benefit a much wider population, apart from themselves.



Self-Assessment

Test your understanding by answering the following questions:

1. How does health affect education provision?
2. In what ways does education impact on health?

B. HIV/AIDS AND EDUCATION

Reflection



Before you start this lesson, think about the ways in which education and HIV/AIDS are inter-related. How do they affect each other?

Introduction

In 2013, over 54,000 adults and 12,000 children became newly infected with HIV in Zambia. These figures represent the plateau of HIV prevalence in the country since the mid-nineties; HIV prevalence is neither increasing nor decreasing. At its height, HIV prevalence in Zambia was 14.5%, and as of 2013, is still high at 12.5%. One in every eight people in the country is living with HIV, and life expectancy is just 58.1 years. However, this is a considerable increase from the 2012 life expectancy of 49.4 years, partly thanks to improved access to antiretroviral treatment. Unprotected heterosexual sex drives the Zambian HIV epidemic, with 90% of new infections

recorded as a result of not using a condom. Zambia's national HIV response is keen to address this in their future plans.

There is a two- way interaction between education and HIV/AIDS. As a result of its impact on various facets of the education sector, the epidemic can undermine the potential of the sector to deliver education of adequate quality to young people and other beneficiaries.

On the other hand, its effects on various facets of the epidemic, education can contribute significantly to the prevention of HIV transmission, the care and support both those infected or affected by the disease, and mitigation of the epidemic's negative impacts. In view of this, the approach of the education sector in dealing with the epidemic should be guided by two principles that operate simultaneously: Minimise the impact of HIV/AIDS on education; maximise the impact of education on HIV/AIDS in the areas of prevention, care and support, and the management and alleviation of impacts (Kelly & Bain, 2003).

The impact of HIV/AIDS on education

This section will give a brief discussion on the impact of HIV/AIDS on education.

HIV/AIDS can impact on education in the following ways: it affects the demand for education; it affects the supply of education; it affects the availability of resources for education; it affects the potential clientele for education; it affects the process of education; it affects the content of education; it affects the role of education; it affects the organisation of schools; it affects the planning and management of the education system and it affects donor support for education (You should be able to supply details to the above through your reading of various reading materials).

What education can do to HIV/AIDS

In further discussing the relationship between education and HIV/AIDS, this section will give a synopsis of what education be it formal or non-formal can do to the HIV/AIDS pandemic. Education is necessary for reducing stigma and discrimination. Education is important in disseminating HIV prevention messages. Central to every programme of treatment and care, formal and non-formal education programmes are the province of the young, the category at greatest risk of becoming infected with HIV. Education empowers individuals to take decisions that are life affirming. Thus, the more educated, the less likelihood of HIV.



Self-Assessment

Test your understanding by answering the following questions:

3. Explain the various ways in which the HIV/AIDS pandemic affects education.
4. What is the impact of education on the HIV/AIDS fight?

C. EDUCATION AND GENDER

Reflection



Before you start this lesson, think about the ways in which education and gender are inter-related. How is education affected by gender?

Introduction

Gender refers to the socially constructed roles, behaviour, activities & attributes that a particular society considers appropriate for men and women. The disadvantaged position of women in education had its beginning in the colonial times. Although progress had been made in enhancing the socio-economic status of women, by 1996 it was stated that women were still disadvantaged (Carmody, 2004).

Statistics indicated that girl's enrolment in Grade 1 was almost the same as that of boys. In subsequent grades, the number of girls decreased, with a more dramatic drop-out from Grade 4 onwards. For every 100 girls who begin primary school, only 70% complete the full primary course, 23 proceed into junior secondary school, 9 into senior secondary and 7 sit for the School Certificate Examination in Grade 12.

The gender imbalance gap even becomes wider at tertiary level where female participation narrows dramatically. Only 20% of female students account for university enrollment and the majority of these are in the Education and Humanities fields of study and very few in Science and Technology studies. Even when it comes to management, the gender imbalance still persists such that there are more men than women in managerial posts in the Ministry of Education.

These gender imbalances have been perpetuated by negative school factors as well as negative home and community which we shall now discuss:

a) Negative school factors

Many factors in the school and its environment impede the satisfactory participation and performance of girls: Long walking distances to school usually work against a girl –child. If she manages to tackle the hurdle of distance, she still reaches a school whose facilities are not supportive to her participation in education. Facilities like inadequate water and sanitation, poor buildings, bare classrooms, insufficient seats and desks. There are also problems with the actual learning time such that girls may opt to stay home than to go to schools with few learning materials and at the end of it all low levels of learning achievement.

The curriculum also does not engage girls who have passed through initiation rites and the books that are used in schools do not depict girls to be equal participants in education in that they usually show boys to show in initiative while girls are passive. The school culture also is not gender-neutral and a number of female teachers especially in rural areas. The presence of female teachers can act as role models for girls. At school, many girls experience personally embarrassing situations- no uniform, worn-out dress, harassment, solicitation, e.tc (Kelly, 1999).

b) Negative home and community factors

Values, beliefs and practices in the home and community also impede the satisfactory school participation and performance of girls: Child-rearing practices-girl brought up to look after others, be submissive, respond to needs and demands of men and boys. Girls carry an excessively large share of household chores and responsibilities that leave them little time to rest, play or study.

Initiation, early marriages, cleansing rituals and other customary practices may turn a girl's interest away from school and lessen family/community support for her continued attendance. Society's general view is that a girl/woman is defined by her relationship to a man and not an independent person in her own right. High levels of poverty among many families entail not investing in the education of a girl but that of a boy (Kelly, 1999).

In order to remedy the above situation, the Zambian government has committed itself to the socio-economic improvement and empowerment of women through various

programmes and affirmative actions. Within this framework, the National Policy on Education gives high priority to the education of girls and commits the Ministry of Education to the elimination of all gender disparities within the education sector. Programmes like Programme for the Advancement of Girls Education (PAGE) have been put in place to raise the status of girls' education. Government has also partnered with Non-Governmental Organisations like FAWEZA and CAMFED for the same purpose.



Self-Assessment

Test your understanding by answering the following question:

1. What are the negative school, home and community factors that have contributed to gender disparities in the education sector?

D. EDUCATION AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT GOALS

Reflection



Have you heard about the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)? What were they? What did they seek to achieve? When did they expire and what were they replaced with?

Background

Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) are also known as global goals. We are all aware that SDGs emanate from the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) which are the eight anti-poverty targets that the world committed to achieving by 2015. SDGs, officially known as: “*Transforming the World: the 2030 Agenda for sustainable development*”, are an intergovernmental set of aspiration goals with 169 targets whose focus is to integrate economic, social and environmental development (UNESCO, 2015). The official agenda for Sustainable development adopted on 25th September, 2015, has 92 paragraphs, with the main paragraph (51) outlining 17 sustainable Development goals and its associated 169 targets. Having defined the terms, we now proceed to talk about the impact of education on health.

SDGs are derived from MDGs set in 2000. The MDGs aimed at reducing poverty, disease, hunger and inequality, as well as improving access to education, clean water and sanitation. A lot of progress has been made on the MDGs, showing the value of a unifying agenda underpinned by goals and targets. The 2013 MDG Report shows that globally, poverty more than halved from 47% to 22%; access to safe drinking water rose from 76% to 89% (2.1 billion benefited), 40 million more children attend school, five million more children living, more than 1.1 million people were saved from malarial deaths, 8 million people treated for HIV (Chandavarkar, 2015).

Despite the successes scored, challenges are still rife in most developing countries, Zambia inclusive. This has been alluded to the fact that MDGs mainly focused on mitigating key challenges, especially those concerned with social development. As such, we can argue that MDGs rallied the world behind a common approach to development, which meant a lot of unfinished work to address extreme poverty and hunger, preventable disease and deaths, rising inequalities and environmental crisis, particularly climate change. According to Chandavarkar (2015) the 2015 MDGs had some unmet targets: under 5 mortality (41 % < 2/3), maternal mortality (47 % < 3/4), carbon dioxide emissions were 46% higher than 1990; deforestation was at an alarming rate; species were being extinct; Official Development Assistance (ODA) or aid decreased by 2% in 2011, 4% in 2012. UN also states that in addition to this, there were new, emerging and urgent challenges; planetary boundaries exceeded 60% annual earth depletion in 1990; 150% depletion in 2010. There was widespread deprivation despite progress towards MDGs.

With such a background in mind, we can say that the SDGs have been put in place by the United Nations member states through the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) in a plight to address the root causes of poverty and the universal need for development that works for all people. The SDGs aim to be universal and serve as guideposts for a global transition to sustainable development. The resolution is a broader intergovernmental agreement that, while acting as the Post 2015 Development Agenda (Successor to the Millennium Development Goals), builds on the principles agreed upon under Resolution A/RES/66/286, Popularly known as the “Future we want” (UN, 2015). These universal goals and their respective targets are to be selectively pursued by individual nations.

Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)

Below are the 17 SDGs:

Goal 1: No poverty End poverty in all its forms everywhere

Goal 2: No hunger End hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition, and promote sustainable agriculture

Goal 3: Good health Ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages

Goal 4: Quality education Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote life-long learning opportunities for all

Goal 5: Gender equality Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls

Goal 6: Clean water and sanitation Ensure availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all

Goal 7: Renewable energy Ensure access to affordable, reliable, sustainable, and modern energy for all

Goal 8: Good jobs and economic growth Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all

Goal 9: Innovation and infrastructure Build resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialization and foster innovation

Goal 10: Reduced Inequalities Reduce inequality within and among countries

Goal 11: Sustainable cities and communities Make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable

Goal 12: Responsible consumption Ensure sustainable consumption and production patterns

Goal 13: Climate Action Take urgent action to combat climate change and its impacts

Goal 14: Life below water Conserve and sustainably use the oceans, seas and marine resources for sustainable development

Goal 15: Life on land Protect, restore and promote sustainable use of terrestrial ecosystems, sustainably manage forests, combat desertification, and halt and reverse land degradation and halt biodiversity loss

Goal 16: Peace and justice Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels

Goal 17: Global partnerships for the goals Strengthen the means of implementation and

revitalise the global partnership for sustainable development

The SDGs can be summed up in the diagram below:



Now, seeing that our area of interest is education and, SDG 4 has a direct bearing on education provision and attainment, let us focus on SDG 4.

SDG 4: Quality Education

As we are aware, SDG 4 is aimed at ensuring that there is inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all. We know that since 2000 a lot of strides have been made to achieve the target of universal primary education. The total enrolment rate in developing regions was above 90% and, globally, the number of children out of school has dropped by almost half (UNESCO, 2015). There has been dramatic increase in literacy rates and many more girls are in school than ever before. All these are remarkable successes. However, the achievement of these goals has not been easy in most developing countries. This is due to high poverty levels, armed conflict, and other emergencies that have seemingly besieged them. For example, in Western Asia and North Africa, ongoing armed conflict has led to an increase in the number of children dropping out of school. Sub Saharan Africa's greatest progress has been made in primary school enrolment among all developing regions from 52% in 1990 up to over 78% in 2015 (UNESCO, 2015).

However large disparities still remain within and between countries. Children from poor families are the ones who are more likely to be out of school compared to those from well to do families.

Disparities between rural and urban areas are still very visible. As such, to achieve inclusive and quality education for all is a reaffirmation of the belief that education is one of the most important, powerful and proven vehicle for sustainable development. The goal is aimed at ensuring that girls and boys complete primary and secondary education (schooling) by 2030. It also aims to provide equal access to affordable vocational training, and to eliminate gender and wealth disparities with the aim of achieving universal access to quality higher education.

Quality education is thus one of the key 17 Global goals that make up the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. This is because education equips learners of all ages with the skills and values needed to be responsible global citizens, who respect human rights, have self-efficacy, promote gender equality and environmental sustainability. Investing in and strengthening a country's education sector is key to the development of any country and its people. Without investment in quality education, progress on all other development indicators will stagnate. As such, education is included in goals on, among others, health, growth and employment, sustainable consumption and production, and climate change. The Global Partnership for Education works to ensure that all children irrespective of where they live get a quality education, prioritizing the most vulnerable.

Note: The UN, through SDGs, has taken on an integrated approach towards development which is crucial for progress across the multiple goals. The achievement of SDG No. 4 will in turn, help in the achievement and realization of all other goals as it has been recognized as an enabler for many areas under the SDGs. Conversely, progress in other areas may affect education in many ways. Do you agree with this statement, and if so why?



Self-Assessment

Test your understanding by answering the following questions:

1. How many are the SDGs in total?
2. Which of the goals have specific relevance to education? Explain.

E. EDUCATION AND CORRUPTION

Reflection



Before you start this lesson, take a pencil and paper and write down the definition of corruption as well as its various manifestations in the education field.

Now that you have done the exercise, we can discuss the definition and reasons for corruption and how corruption manifests in the education sector.

Definition of Corruption

Corruption is dishonest or illegal behaviour especially by powerful people (such as government officials or police officers); the act of corrupting someone or something or something that has been changed from its original form. Corruption is the misuse of *entrusted* power (by heritage, education, marriage, election, appointment or whatever else) for private gain.

Corruption is an improbity or decay in the decision-making process in which a decision-maker consents to deviate or demands deviation from the criterion which should rule his or her decision-making, in exchange for a reward or for the promise or expectation of a reward, while these motives influencing his or her decision-making cannot be part of the justification of the decision.

Reasons for Vulnerability to corruption in Education

National education systems across the developing world are particularly vulnerable to pervasive corruption, largely for three reasons.

(1) As one of the few governmental agencies with high visibility representation all the way down to the community level, education is an attractive structure for patronage and manipulation of local sentiment.

(2) Decisions perceived to have significant consequences for people's lives are made by "gatekeepers" who control decisions at each of those levels (e.g., district education officers, headmasters, and teachers).

(3) A considerable amount of education funds are spent in small amounts, across many scattered sites, most of which have weak accounting and monitoring systems. While there are ample examples of large-scale corruption within central education ministries, the most serious consequences of corruption arise from the pervasive, petty corruption that permeates the day-to-day transactions at the classroom, school, and district levels. The real damage to a society occurs when entire generations of youth are mis-educated – by example -- to believe that personal success comes not through merit and hard work, but through favouritism, bribery, and fraud. Widespread petty corruption breaks the link between personal effort and anticipation of reward. This, in turn, limits the economic and social development well beyond the immediate corruption. Such lessons have the potential to undermine civil society well into the future.

How is corruption manifested in the education sector?

One of the central problems in combating corruption is the difficulty in clearly defining the behaviours that constitute it. Five behaviours may be labelled, at different times, as corruption:

1. Blatantly illegal acts of bribery or fraud:

There are ample examples of blatant fraud and bribery, in which education officials at all levels demand some form of payoff for themselves, family, or friends in return for their help in shaping the outcome of contracts, implementation efforts, distribution systems, etc. While mechanisms may vary, there is wide agreement that these practices are corrupt.

2. Actions taken to secure a modest income by people paid too little or too late:

When teachers sell grades or require students to pay for private tutoring in order to pass a course, most observers recognize it as corruption. Often, however, such behaviour is judged less harshly in settings in which teachers' salaries are extremely low or salary payments are delayed for months. It tends to be tolerated because virtually all observers recognize that teachers have little choice if they are to live. In some countries, such as Cambodia, these practices are tacitly condoned by government, which recognizes that it could not maintain a teaching force if teachers were unable to subsidize their salaries, even if they use practices that compromise the quality of education.

3. Actions taken to get work done in difficult circumstances:

At times, what appear as corruption may be better understood as ministry and project personnel cutting corners, ignoring rules, and by-passing procedures in order to move activities forward in ways important to the success of a project or ministry initiative. What appears as corruption to

some people may be viewed as pragmatic project management by others. For instance, when project implementation requires government staff to work harder or longer hours than is their custom, a project manager may pay an unauthorized bonus as an incentive. Similarly, a project manager may pay government personnel to provide data that should be free. An unfortunate outgrowth of these practices is that it often teaches local staff that they can extort money by withholding services, and a pattern develops. Nonetheless, failure of the project manager to take these actions could undercut project success.

4. Differences in cultural perspective (e.g., gift giving):

In some cultures, it is customary and expected that gifts are given even in return for small favours. While token gifts of little monetary value often satisfy the cultural expectation, the practice has sometimes mushroomed into widespread, petty extortion. The practice of gift giving has often been exploited to mask a corrupt practice in the guise of a cultural expectation. This is illustrated by the Chinese student who, needing the signature of a local official in order to secure a passport to study abroad, took a new television set to the official to thank him for his signature. In Russia, it is commonplace to provide small gifts -- a box of candy, flowers (or a bottle of vodka) -- to authorities as a token of respect, if not a request for special assistance.

5. Behaviour resulting from incompetence:

What appears as corruption is sometimes merely the incompetence of key actors or the inadequacies of the infrastructure in which they work. When record keeping systems are weak or non-existent, key personnel assign little importance to maintaining records. It is then often difficult to know whether education officials' inability to account for money or supplies reflects deception or poor management practices. For example, despite the expenditure of several million dollars of donor funds on textbook production and distribution in Laos and government receipts indicating the books had been delivered to the district education offices, international teams were unable to locate very many of the new books during site visits to the schools. It was never completely clear whether this was a case of poor record keeping or diversion of textbook funds.

The essential point is that thoughtful, reasonable people can disagree over what constitutes corruption. Even when observers agree that certain actions constitute corruption, they may differ in their tolerance of the offense (e.g., when the sale of grades is tolerated because teachers are underpaid). Moreover, those forms most widely condemned (e.g., contract kickbacks) tend to be

the least visible; those forms that tend to be the most visible (forced private tutoring) tend to be the most widely tolerated.

Disagreement over what constitutes corruption has serious consequences for efforts to combat it. While each country has a different legal definition of corruption, the often broader conception of corruption as the misuse of public office for private gain yields a much larger context in which citizens can detect official misconduct. Forceful actions to reduce corruption could lead to great trouble for individuals who were merely cutting corners in their effort to do a good job or who were unclear about the lines between gifts and bribes. If, in response to anti-corruption efforts, educators, government officials, and project staff started strictly complying with the myriad of government and donor rules, especially those involving international aid, education projects could bog down and stall. On the other hand, if a looser definition of corruption was used, intentionally corrupt behaviour could hide behind expressions of good intention or confusion about meanings. Effective efforts to combat corruption require clear, but sensible, definitions of what is acceptable behaviour and what is not.

What forms does corruption take in the education sector?

Corruption can occur at any point in a system where decisions are made that have meaningful consequences for individuals. In the education sector, that means it can happen at virtually every level, from the central ministry down to the school and classroom. It can happen any time educators operate as **gatekeepers** to real or assumed benefits. As education is widely viewed as access to life opportunity, higher lifetime earnings, and greater social mobility, even seemingly small decisions are often awarded great value.

Gatekeepers at different levels of the education system introduce corruption around the particular opportunities and benefits they control. Their motivation is often economic – to supplement their income -- but may also be an effort to extend their status or power, create future career opportunities, or conform to expectations of those whose patronage they seek. Figure 1 illustrates the types of corruption that can occur at different levels of the education system.

At the **central ministry levels**, much of the corruption involves the diversion of funds associated with procurement, construction, and of the funds intended for allocation to lower levels of the system.

At **intermediate levels** of the education bureaucracy, the corruption tends to center on procurement, diversion of money and supplies on their way to the schools, and bribes from educators lower in the system seeking to secure opportunity or avoid punishment.

At the **school level**, corruption tends to centre on bribes from parents to ensure student access, good grades, grade progression, and graduation.

However, it also takes the form of teacher absenteeism—teachers collect salaries but the intended instruction does not occur. Educators at the school level can divert funds, school supplies, and sometimes food that the schools received from community or government sources. Headmasters and teachers are also in a position to assess unauthorized fees for real or imaginary services (e.g., paper fees in order to take an exam), create the need for private tutoring, or take salaries for work not actually done.

Types of Behaviour constituting corruption

- Kickback on construction and supply contracts
- Favouritism in hiring, appointments, and promotions decisions
- Diversion of funds from government accounts
- Diversion of funds from international assistance funds
- Ghost teachers and employees
- Requiring payment for services that should be provided free
- Withholding needed approvals and signatures to extort bribes (e.g., gifts, favors, outright payments)
- Directing the location of construction and services to locations that offer opportunities for gain by oneself, family, or friends
- Requiring the use of materials as a way of creating a market for items on which oneself, family or friends hold an import or production monopoly
- Region/district Overlooking school violations on inspector visits in return for bribes or favours
- Diversion of school supplies to private market
- Sales of recommendations for higher education entrance
- Favouritism in personnel appointments (e.g., headmasters, teachers)
- School level Ghost teachers
- Diversion of school fees

- Inflation of school enrolment data (in countries in which central ministry funds are allocated to school on basis of enrolment)
- Imposition of unauthorized fees
- Diversion of central MOE funds allocated to schools
- Diversion of monies in revolving textbook fund
- Diversion of community contributions
- Classroom teacher siphoning of school supplies and textbooks to local market her level
- Selling test scores and course grades
- Selling change of grade
- Selling grade-to-grade promotion
- Selling admissions (especially to higher education)
- Creating the necessity for private tutoring
- Teachers' persistent absenteeism to accommodate other income producing work
- International Payment of bribes agencies
- Payment of excessive or unnecessary fees to obtain services
- Skimming from project funds
- Allocating (or acquiescing in the allocation of) project related opportunities on the basis of candidates connections rather than on merit

A. Responses to corruption in the education sector

Having looked at forms and behaviours that constitute corruption, let us now focus on how one can respond to corruption.



Self-Assessment

1. From what you have learned so far, list at least six manifestations of corruption in the education sector.

The costs and consequences of corruption

The most direct, and in some ways the most inconsequential, cost of corruption is the waste of the financial resources that get misdirected. The more serious costs are incurred when

- (a) Children unable to afford bribes are denied access to schooling,
- (b) Talent is misallocated due to promotion being awarded on the basis of bribery rather than merit

- (c) A generation of children come to believe that personal effort and merit do not count and that success comes through manipulation, favouritism and bribery.
- (d) Schools without necessary teaching and learning materials
- (e) Substandard graduates who will ill contribute to the national development.
- (f) Lazy citizen who will not work hard as they can buy their way through.
- (g) A high drop-out rate, which increases at high levels of poverty.
- (h) Low quality teaching, leading to poor achievement.
- (i) A system susceptible to adverse political, religious and ethnic influence.
- (j) Deepened inequality between rich and poor, preventing entire generations from pursuing a meaningful future.

When corruption is so pervasive that it comes to be viewed as a basic mechanism of social and economic interaction, it instils a value that is highly destructive to social and economic development of a country.

Several organizations have developed corruption perception indices that purport to rank countries in terms of the extent of corruption.



Self-Assessment

1. From what you have heard or seen, list at least six consequences of corruption in the education sector.

Responses to corruption in the education sector

Reflection



Before you start this lesson, think about and list the ways of dealing with corruption.

1. Quality of top leadership.

Corruption is not inevitable and corruption is not a life sentence for a country or government. A key factor in the differing corruption levels across countries and within the same country over time is the *quality of top leadership*. Leaders who respect the rule of law, emphasize transparency in the operation of the offices they oversee, take action against subordinates found violating rules,

and exhibit integrity in their own transactions can make a difference. Honest leaders can be a powerful force in reducing corruption. Conversely, when top leadership is corrupt, they lack the moral platform to demand honesty in others.

Implementing honest practices can be tricky, possibly dangerous, even for highly committed leaders. In some cultures, it is widely understood that one of the benefits of public office is the opportunity to accrue personal wealth through manipulation of the system. Appointments to senior government positions are granted as rewards, a recognition that the appointee has earned a turn to loot. Just as incentives, when commonplace, lose their incentive value, corrupt practices, when pervasive, become the norm. Those not participating may be considered naïve, odd, or stupid, even by those who suffer the negative consequences. Consequently, effective leadership to reduce corruption often requires considerable personal courage.

Leaders have to withstand criticism, often overt opposition, from colleagues who see their own self-interest threatened by the introduction of more transparent and honesty practices. In some cases, senior officials fear retaliation by colleagues' intent on protecting their income and influence. At lower levels of management, some fear they will lose their jobs if they do not participate in, or at least cover-up, the corrupt practices that may be going on around them. They confront a lead-or-bullets dilemma: They can participate and enjoy the fruits of their illicit gain or they can resist and risk professional and even personal injury. Nonetheless, the commitment of top leadership to honest operation of the education system (e.g., greater transparency, introduction of a code of conduct) remains a central component in minimizing corrupt practices.

2. Clear Code of Conduct

A second factor in minimizing corruption is that educators and government officials need a *clear code of conduct*. This may originate in a country's administrative or criminal code or be introduced by professional associations or unions. For example, in the United States, every state has a teachers' code of conduct. Teachers who violate it can lose their teaching license. At the same time, professional organizations have codes of conduct that apply to the specific activities promoted by those organizations. For instance, the American Educational Research Association has formulated a code of conduct for educational researchers; the American Evaluation Association has published a code of ethics for conducting education evaluations.

Educators need to know what behaviours might be constituted as corrupt practices, especially when proper professional conduct might run counter to social norms widely accepted outside of the education workplace. A code of conduct would, for example, clarify the propriety of and sets limits on accepting gifts in return for professional actions, even though gift giving may be considered appropriate in other social settings. However, codes of conduct alone do little to reduce corruption unless there are effective means of communication, clear sanctions for violating the codes, consistent enforcement, and top level support.

3. Creation or Modification of Organizational Structures

A third factor in minimizing corruption is the *creation or modification of organizational structures* and administrative procedures aimed at breaking the grip of entrenched practices. A key element in this is a *clear, workable accountability system*.

Decentralization is often advocated as a strategy for reducing corruption at central levels of government. However, this is a point of considerable controversy. Some argue that decentralization does little to reduce. To be effective, an accountability system must clearly state the rules and procedures associated with managing the education system, provide a mechanism for monitoring compliance, specify the consequences for non-compliance, and be consistent in enforcement.

4. Laws Promoting Transparency.

Accountability systems can only operate in the context of **laws promoting transparency**.

These laws have an impact on reducing corruption only when two other conditions are met. The first is the operation of a *free press* that can utilize these laws to help expose questionable practices. Only as evidence of inappropriate practices is widely available can a critical mass of public concern be mobilized.

The second condition is the *engagement of citizens* willing to push for honesty in the operation of the education system. Within the education system, citizen involvement is often in the form of parent-teacher associations organized around specific schools or community advisory groups organized by local non-governmental organizations (NGOs).

5. Community Engagement

While **community engagement** and collective community action can play an important role in fighting corruption, such action can be difficult to foster. Success depends on the perceived

benefits of reducing corruption as opposed to the costs community members may incur for their efforts. However, for community engagement to be effective, it often needs to be supported *by community level training*.

Citizens frequently lack experience in how to hold their local schools accountable for effective financial and personnel management. Community members had little framework for knowing other dimensions on which they might judge their local school. Such training should be aimed at helping community members understand:

- (a) The characteristics of an effective school,
- (b) What headteacher and teacher behaviours they should look for in assessing the effectiveness of those educators,
- (c) Their own legal rights as parents and community members to information about school budgets, expenditures, procedures, and operational decisions, and
- (d) The sanctions they as community members can bring to bear on underperforming schools.

6. Non-Governmental Organizations

In some countries, the operation of *non-governmental organizations* (NGOs) has been effective in helping to minimize corruption. As more funds have been routed through NGOs, there is growing evidence in some countries that NGOs can be just as corrupt as governments.

Where corruption is a symptom of a structural or operational flaw in the education system, governments and international agencies are unlikely to suppress it with more laws, at least until they have *addressed the underlying problems* that fuel the behaviour. This may require efforts to *change the incentive systems* that fuel corruption. It is likely that corruption motivated by insatiable greed, arrogance, and blind self-interest may be influenced by some convergence of the strategies discussed above.

However, it is also likely that the most insidious types of corruption in the education system – the petty corruption that shapes the day-to-day experience of students and their families -- are driven by more complicated dynamics.

Successful practices in reducing corruption: Indonesia

In some countries, the handling of community generated funds for the local schools is highly susceptible to corruption. In Indonesia, however, these funds are often allocated with minimum corruption, due to the involvement of the parent association in deciding how these funds are to be

used and in monitoring to ensure that the funds reach their intended destination. At the beginning of the school year, representatives of the parent association meet with school officials to establish a plan for how community generated funds will be used. School officials provide detailed accounting of expenditures to the parent association during the year. The system works because

- (a) The use of these funds is highly structure,
- (b) Expenditures are highly transparent, and
- (c) The community attaches considerable importance and pride to the success of this scheme.

Capturing these development funds, sometimes led by individuals more interested in the money than in development.



Self-Assessment

1. What are some of the ways of ending corruption and fraud in education?

F. EDUCATION AND GLOBALISATION

A. Globalisation Concepts

Reflection



Before you start this lesson, write down some of the definitions you know on globalisation.

Now that you have done this exercise, let us discuss the definitions and types of globalisation.

Definition of Globalisation

There is a tremendous amount of literature on the definition of globalisation. Globalisation seemed too an easy word to define at first. However, there are many definitions of it where each and one of these definitions are looked from various different perspectives such as social, economy and political perspectives.

From a political point of view, Beck (2000, p. 11) defines globalisation as a process through which transnational actors undermine sovereign national states with varying prospect of power, direction, identities, and network. From a communication point of view, 'globalisation as a concept refers to both to the compression of the world and the intensification of consciousness of the world as a whole' (Robertson, 1992, p. 8).

Similarly, Luke (2005), states that globalisation is how the world is shrinking in the sense that people can communicate to each other instantaneously through the use of technology especially the internet. Waters (1995) looks at globalisation as a social change where physical boundaries of place on the social and cultural aspects are diminishing and the public are aware that it is diminishing.

Looking from a social perspectives or point of view, globalisation is the escalation of global social relations which connect far localities in such a way that local events are influenced by events occurring in the far distance and vice versa. (Held, 1991 cited in Morrow & Torres, 2000, p. 29).

Therefore, it can be said that globalisation is the weakening of the physical boundaries surrounding the nation or states, in which affects aspects of human life such as culture, social interaction, economy, politics and many other aspects. The less visible boundaries mean that people are more likely to interact with each other. If the interaction is between people or party of same position or status, the interaction could be in a neutral way. However, if the interaction is between people or party of unequal status or power, the more privileged will tend to influence the less privileged it can also happen that the less privileged might want to imitate the more privileged in order to live the same condition as the opposite party.

B. Types of Globalisation

1. Cultural globalisation

Cultural globalisation is about the spread of one stronger element of culture, which in many cases, would be the American culture. This is done through the American media which penetrates most parts of world. Songs, films, and many more are easily available around the world (Jarvis, 2007). Besides, he also argues that many new cultural institutions have become industries where these institutions are trying to sell their culture.

However, one would argue that cultural globalisation could also strengthen the culture in particular society if the member of the society choose to resist the wave of global influx of different foreign culture. According to Jones (1998, p. 146), cultural globalisation includes 'deteriorating religious mosaic, a deteriorating cosmopolitanism and diversity, widespread consumption of simulations and representations, global distribution of images and information and universal tourism'. Therefore, it can be said that cultural globalisation is the process where the local cultural aspect of a community disappears in certain rate and substituted with a global culture.

2. Economic globalisation

Economic globalisation includes several aspects such as transnational companies. Transnational companies are companies that operate at a global level without needing to follow a certain nation's law and regulation (Bottery, 2006). These companies bring profit to the nation through taxation. These companies possess a huge influence as they are not bound to a country's law. Transnational companies have power beyond the nations or the states (Jarvis, 1998).

Besides, economy globalisation also includes the bigger organisations such as International Monetary Fund (IMF) which provides loan and fund to developing countries. However, it is crucial to highlight here that this economy globalisation is the setting of other types of globalisation (Bottery, 2006). This is because economy is the source of income and the setting of work for people. According to Jones (1998, p. 145), economy globalisation includes 'freedom of exchange between localities with flows of services and symbolic commodities, balance of production activity in a locality determined by its physical and geographical advantages, minimal direct foreign investment, flexible responsiveness of organisations to global markets, decentralised, instantaneous and 'stateless' financial markets and free movement of labour'.

3. Political globalisation

Political globalisation looks at the diminishing power of the state where due to globalisation, the power is local authority might be weakening. According to Jones (1998 p. 146), political globalisation is portrayed through 'an absence of state sovereignty and multiple centres of power at global, local and intermediate levels, local issues discussed and situated in relation to a global community, powerful international organisations predominant over national organisations, fluid

and multi-centric international relations, a weakening of value attached to the nation-state and a strengthening of common and global political values'. Thus, the meaning of being a certain country or nation's citizen also gets blurred. The notion of citizen is not as a unified and unifying concept as before when there is certain loss of nation-state sovereignty, or the erosion of national autonomy (Burbules and Torres, 2000, p. 14).



Self-Assessment

Test your understanding by answering the following question:

1. What is globalisation?
2. What are the main forms of globalisation?

C. Effects of Globalisation on Education.

Having looked at definition and types of globalisation, let us focus on the effect of globalisation on education.

Reflection



From what you know about globalisation, list the effects of globalisation in relation to education.

The Effects of Globalisation in Education

Education is undergoing constant changes under the effects of globalisation. Globalisation is a process, which has affected many areas of human life, **one of those being education.**

1. The effects of globalisation on education bring **rapid developments in technology and communications** are foreseeing changes within learning systems across the world aside as, values and knowledge, changing the roles of students and teachers, and producing a shift in society from industrialisation towards an information-based society.

2. Brings about the rise of **new cultural imperialism** which is shaping children, the future citizens of the world into ‘global citizens’, intelligent people with a broad range of skills and knowledge to apply to a competitive, information based society.
3. Globalisation and **technological advancements** are delivering and increasing access to the world and subsequently subjects should reflect this global outlook. **It allows for exploration of new areas of learning and thinking.** The rapid growth of television services, with their immense influence as media of mass communication, has been very relevant in the technological shift. Other large contributions to this shift include the transistor and space satellites. Communication and information based technology over the years is the Internet, which is a massive network of computers located throughout the world. These computers maintain libraries of text, images, computer software, and other forms of data that can be accessed by anyone, anywhere, at any time. This implementation of technology and communication to be successful and to educate a society, both the students and teachers need to be technologically literate. Developments in the delivery of education is allowing for individuals to explore new areas of learning and thinking that could not be done with pen and paper.
4. Externally, there have been **changes in the labour market**, which have resulted in calls for more knowledge and skilled workers, and workers with deeper understandings of languages, cultures and business methods all over the world.
5. Education is becoming more invaluable to individuals. In today's environment, education **provides individuals with a better chance** of employment, which in turn leads to a better lifestyle, power and status.
6. Commodification of Education: - Commodification is the term used to describe commodification can be seen in two ways, the displacement of use values by exchange values or in general to describe how consumer culture becomes embedded in daily lives through various ways (Ball, 2004, p.4). This consumer culture that is a global phenomenon today has also affected the education sector. Commodification of education is evident from the primary school to the higher education. Due to the competition for the entrance of an excellent school, parents and the learner will be under a lot of pressure to prepare themselves so they can qualify to this prestigious or high-league table-ranked schools.

Society is drawn to this concept of education commodification due to the societal pressure. Similarly, the teachers and staff in these schools are forced to work hard to maintain the schools' league table position so they can maintain the financial support from the government. 'The demands of competition, the information provided by League Tables, pressures from the state for performance improvement and target-achievement and per-capita funding, in a period of spending constraints, work together to create local 'economies of student worth' where schools compete to recruit those students, most likely to contribute to 'improvements' and 'performance' (Ball, 2004, p. 10). Therefore, in this situation, the commodification of education does not really seem to benefitting the learners, or the even parents. This cycle of incentives for performance is not something good as it contradicts with the value of education.

7. Commodification of knowledge

In today's environment, education provides individuals with a better chance of employment, which in turn leads to a better lifestyle, power and status. The commodification of knowledge as intellectual property has occurred particularly with regard to connecting the intellectual work of universities with community, business, and government interests and priorities. While such a tendency is often welcomed by so-called applied disciplines, it causes tensions between the more profitable applied subjects of science and technology, and those of basic theoretical enquiry, particularly in arts and humanities. It also creates institutional winners and losers.

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It also creates institutional winners and losers.

8. One aspect of the globalisation of education has been the **creation of 'twinning projects'** between one Western and one non-Western university. Through Globalisation of education, which is being knowledge transfer from the Western countries into developing countries, is intended to improve the skills and capabilities of the people receiving it.

9. With such changes and the emergence of video conferencing and the Internet, the **barriers of distance are being broken down** at a rapid rate, due to the key aspect of globalisation. Communication technology is offering new challenges for students of all abilities as they can discuss issues of concern with their fellow students from around the world, thus developing communication and interpersonal skills, fostering a mutual understanding across countries and cultures. However, the invention of the internet has taken distance learning into a whole new level. Distance education has enabled more people to gain access to education through the many different types of online courses offered by universities and other online course providers. One of the benefits of this distance learning is that the learning process can be done in learners' own time, without any peer pressure from classmates.
10. It allows for **exploration of new areas of learning and thinking**.
11. Educational institutions have reacted accordingly, by becoming **more market oriented**, focusing their energy more on creating funds rather than providing sufficient education for students. Subsequent changes in university functions have led universities toward **“direct entrepreneurial activity to sustain themselves.”** This in turn produces a change in institutional approaches to the development of overseas education of their own country.

12. Education to global capitalist economy

Due to this increasing free trade around the globe – to end protection in many sectors so that there is more competition and privatisation, education is increasingly being drawn into this global capitalist competition.

13. Education symbol of Modernity

However, despite differences in economy, political, culture and society, second and third worlds have adopted educational ideals from western thought and are anxious to appear modern and therefore promote education as a symbol of modernity and development to their own population and the foreign countries.

14. Education institution market oriented

The spread of education internationally, as a result of globalisation, has clearly had effects on cultures worldwide. The capitalist society is gradually becoming global with a strong emphasis on free trade emerging. Educational institutions have reacted accordingly, by

becoming more market oriented, focusing their energy more on creating funds rather than providing sufficient education for students.

15. Reduction of per capita public funding

Under the impact of globalising market forces, there has been a general trend towards the reduction of per capita public funding to higher education, at a time when the system is still expanding at both the initial and the 'life-long learning' levels.

The burden of funding higher education is being shifted more and more to the shoulders of the individual on a 'users-pay' basis. Even public universities are increasingly funded by non-governmental sources, especially via student tuition and other fees, donations raised from alumni and others, and direct payment from business for services provided by the universities.

16. Increased competition among universities

The linkage of performance to allocation of operation funds leads to intense competition among universities. Associated with that is the move to privatisation of higher education. Tensions between academic and commercial based subject are increasing. Substantial decline in levels of public funding, the current globalisation of higher education is mainly motivated by profits. Its goal is to meet market demand and to create a market for a variety of educational products. With substantial growth in the international student market, the issue of regulation of providers arises. It is extremely difficult to regulate the trade in academic institutions, programs, degrees or products across international borders.

17. Internationalization of education

Another effect of globalisation is the internationalization of education. Internationalisation is 'the process of integrating an international or intercultural dimension into the teaching, research and exercise function of the institution (Knight, 1994, p. 16 cited in Knight, 1999). Internationalisation is about globalisation. Internationalisation happens usually at higher level education.

By internationalisation, the quality of teaching and learning process could be improved. This is because internationalisation encourages acceptance of various culture and integrates this in the teaching and learning process. The students will be exposed to various source of knowledge about the world. This knowledge of the world will help the learners to

understand and make sense the difference and similarities people around the world have from one culture to another.

18. Accessibility of knowledge

Another effect of globalisation in education is that of accessibility of knowledge. Through the internet, many different kinds of knowledge are readily accessible on the internet (Robertson, 1992). This means the acquisition of knowledge by students are much faster since there they have wide range of knowledge available for them. This would help students and teachers in their learning process. This rapidly growing information on the net could facilitate learning process by providing references and validating certain concepts that the learners are confused or unable to comprehend. Besides, the teachers and learners can build a network system through the net where they can talk and communicate with teachers and students from any part of the world through the internet. Therefore, it is important for the learners to be able to distinguish between reliable and unreliable information. Besides, it is also important for them to be able to choose and pick which information that is suitable for them.

The effects of migration on education systems

There are several effects of migration on the supply and demand for education due to globalisation.

1. **Migration and the supply/loss in teacher capacity in the education sector** -Migration will lower the social rate of return of public investment in education. Teacher migration/mobility has been highlighted as having possible adverse effect on the delivery of education services.
2. **Macro effects of migration on education**- Migration processes have several macro effects, some of which can benefit education systems in 'sending' countries, or groups within them. For instance, when teachers are scarce emigration of teachers will push up their wages in the source country. This is often a theoretical option only for the poorest countries, as they cannot afford to pay much more. That is emigration leads to more investment in human capital. By contrast, the brain drain appears to have negative growth effects in countries where the migration rate of the highly educated is above 20% and/or where the proportion of population with higher education is above 5%.

3. **Migration and private incentives to invest in human capital** -If the return to education is higher abroad than at home, the possibility of migration increases the expected return to human capital, thereby enhancing domestic enrolment in education. More people, therefore, invest in human capital as a result of increased migration opportunities. This acquisition can contribute positively to growth and economic performance.

Other effects of migration -Firstly migration is associated with remittances; migration raises the possibilities of finance for education through remittances. Secondly, migrants can learn valuable skills which can offer benefits to the 'sending' country if and when migrants return.

The negative Impact of globalisation

Globalisation has had many obvious effects on **educational technology and communication** systems change the way education is delivered as well as roles played by both teachers and students. The development of this technology is facilitating the transition from an industrial based society to an information-based one. At the same time, there is a dark side to globalisation and to the very **openness of the new information systems**.

- While the richest countries grow richer, the poor are becoming poorer.
- Income, information and education gaps between the rich and the poor are widening not narrowing
- economic crises
- trade imbalances and
- structural adjustments have precipitated a moral crisis in many countries,
- tearing the basic social and cultural fabric of many families and communities apart, resulting in increasing youth unemployment, suicide, violence, racism and drug abuse
- Anti-social behaviour from schools.
- The drawback of distance learning is that the reduced or loss of the human touch in the learning and teaching process. Human touch in the form of communication with one another is important in learning
- The downside of this body of knowledge available on the internet is that it cannot be accessed by people in certain parts of the world where the communication technology is not at par with the latest communication technology (Burbules, 2000). This in a way **widens the gap** between the education progress in a developed country with a well-

equipped information technology facilities and the education progress in a developing country with poor information technology facilities. In a less progressed country where it is already a struggle to maintain teaching and learning process, the people will not know what they have missed by the lack of facilities.

Education will be the answer to many problems raised by globalisation.

Educational goals are seen to be an area of great concern in the era of globalisation. Education should not become a means of westernising the world. On the contrary, it should treat each unique culture and society with due respect, realising that global education is not only learning about the West, but also studying different cultures of the world, using different approaches, ways of teaching and different media. Another major problem with the global education system is accessibility. Many people in the developing world are still illiterate.

In the 21st century, education systems face the dual challenge of equipping students with the new knowledge, skills and values needed to be **competitive in a global market** while at the same time **producing graduates who are responsible adults**, good citizens both of their country and of the world. Thus globalisation **challenges us to rethink** not only how much education is needed but also its ultimate purposes.



Self-Assessment

1. List down some of the effects of globalisation in education. How can education be used to address challenges posed by globalisation.

G. CONCEPT OF QUALITY ASSURANCE

Definition of Quality Assurance

Quality assurance is a program for the systematic monitoring and evaluation of the various aspects of a project, service, or facility to ensure that standards of quality are being met (Merriam-Webster, 1973). Quality assurance is a methodology used in the development of products or services that ensures a level of quality in production. Also referred to as quality control (and QA or QC for short), it encompasses the processes and procedures that systematically monitor different aspects

of a service, process or facility to detect and correct problems or variances that fall outside of established standards or requirements (Earle, 2000).

Most businesses utilize some form of quality assurance in production, from manufacturers of consumer packaged goods to software development companies, and may even be represented by distinct departments or divisions that focus solely on quality assurance issues.

Quality Assurance is often used interchangeably with quality control (QC). It is a wider concept that covers all policies and systematic activities implemented within a quality system. Quality Assurance frameworks include:

- (1) Determination of adequate technical requirement of inputs and outputs.
- (2) Certification and rating of suppliers.
- (3) testing of procured material for its conformance to established quality, performance, safety, and reliability standards.
- (4) Proper receipt, storage, and issue of material.
- (5) Audit of the process quality.
- (6) Evaluation of the process to establish required corrective response.
- (7) Audit of the final output for conformance to;
 - (a) Technical
 - (b) Reliability
 - (c) Maintainability
 - (d) Performance requirements.

In developing products and services, quality assurance is any systematic process of checking to

see whether a product or service being developed is meeting specified requirements. Many companies have a separate department devoted to quality assurance. A quality assurance system is said to increase customer confidence and a company's credibility, to improve work processes and efficiency, and to enable a company to better compete with others. Quality assurance was initially introduced in World War II when munitions were inspected and tested for defects after they were made. Today's quality assurance systems emphasize catching defects before they get into the final product.

Quality Assurance in Education

QA may be defined as the totality of systems, resources and information devoted to maintaining and improving the quality and standards of teaching, scholarship and research, and of students learning experience.

Within the Educational Institutions, quality assurance takes place throughout the learning and teaching process.

- It includes screening of candidates for admission,
- staff recruitment and promotion procedures
- curriculum reviews,
- student evaluation of staff,
- external examiners for end of semester examinations
- Academic audits.

Introduction

By the hour, by the minute and indeed by the very second the education system of the Republic of Zambia continues to rapidly expand the number of its clientele. Mass enrolments of pupils in government schools have become common place. The quantitative expansion of the system may have severely sacrificed quality. Today's lecture will accordingly explore the concept of Quality in education provision.

Reflection



Before you begin the discussion of quality in education it may be useful to indicate your understanding of quality in general. In a minute, write down your own definition of quality.

Quality in Education

Now let me give you some conceptions of quality from a scholarly perspective:

1. Quality is “a high degree of goodness”;
2. Doing the right things right;
3. The degree of fit between what a customer wants and what a customer gets.

Thus quality has to do with three words: Degree, Excellence and Satisfaction.

“Quality Education” is a learning process that vibrates with positive energy...the learner and the learned both are eagerly absorbed in understanding and communicating through a knowledge construction process that is deemed relevant for the lives of the learners.

The Dynamics of Quality

- (a) **Quality Control:** this is the process that detects and eliminates faulty products from the system.
- (b) **Quality Assurance:** this is done before and during the event to prevent faults through the process of monitoring
- (c) **Total Quality Management:** this is about continuous improvement, it provided or equips the personnel with tools to meet pressing needs and persisting problems and expectations.

The Custodians of Quality in the Zambian Education System

These are Principal Officers in the Ministry of Education who have a variety of professional responsibilities that hinge on “quality”. They were formerly known as school inspectors but there titles have since changed to Standards Officers, they include such officers as the PESOS, DESOS etc. They perform two fundamental functions namely:

(a) Advisory Functions

- They conduct school inspections to help to improve lesson delivery and preparation, assessment of pupils, time tabling and good leadership.

- They are also called upon to advise on the various material needs of the schools.
- They also provide information on factors that are crucial to good quality education.

(b) Evaluation Functions

- Education Standards Officers are here concerned with the overall quality of education in the system.

They develop a set of achievable indicators of quality and evaluate how schools and teachers perform in relation

1. The Quality Nomenclature

No common international definition of educational quality exists and there is also no agreement as to what constitutes such quality. The quest for quality characterizes the modern world of business in all walks of life. A closer look at most retail business advertisements reveals the often excessive use of the term “quality” in a bid to sell the product.

- The provider of goods or service and the consumer or customer **need to agree** on value for money exchanged for goods or services provided. The willingness to exchange is based on **mutual satisfaction**.
- The provider is keen to offer the services or goods that are saleable to the customer and the latter is willing to pay for the same upon satisfaction **based on predetermined quality standards**.
- Quality education is more than a system running smoothly. The quality of education is created in the meeting **between the learner and the teacher over a meaningful activity and content matter**.

In the teaching and learning setting, the institution is a provider while students and beneficiaries of the output of the institution can be seen as customers, also often referred to as stakeholders.

2.Trade-off Issues in Education: Quality vs. Quantity

The need to always strike a balance between quality and quantity in education cannot be overemphasized. University education in Zambia has come to involve the government working

with private educational institutions. However, many problems have been reported as a result of university education being offered by the private sector.

- Firstly, there are problems with regard to **less qualified lecturers** in private run universities. In Zambia locally engaged lecturers are usually employed to teach a large amount of university coursework. Yet only a small percentage of these teaching staff is reported to have PhDs or even Master's degrees.
- Secondly, there are problems of perceived **low entry requirements** for students in many private universities. Students who fail to gain entry into the public universities are reportedly welcomed with open arms by many of the commercial partners of the Zambian public universities.
- In addition, there are many reported issues of **sub-standard management practices** of private universities. There are also complaints of **'soft marking'** and lowering of academic standards of some universities in an attempt to satisfy the full **fee paying students**.

4. Quality of Higher Education

A high standard of quality is a *sine qua non* for relevant higher education.

- The caliber of teaching staff
- adequacy of physical facilities
- sufficiency of consumables
- quality of library holdings, and
- availability of necessary transport

All these play an important role in determining the quality of those who emerge from higher level institutions.

Standards and Guidelines for internal quality assurance within higher education institutions

1. Policy and procedures for quality assurance:

Institutions should have a policy and associated procedures for the assurance of the quality and standards of their programmes and awards. They should also commit themselves explicitly to the development of a culture which recognises the importance of quality, and quality assurance, in their work. To achieve this, institutions should develop and implement a strategy for the continuous enhancement of quality. The strategy, policy and procedures should have a formal status and be publicly available. They should also include a role for students and other stakeholders.

2. Approval, monitoring and periodic review of programmes and awards:

Institutions should have formal mechanisms for the approval, periodic review and monitoring of their programmes and awards.

3. Assessment of students:

Students should be assessed using published criteria, regulations and procedures which are applied consistently.

4. Quality assurance of teaching staff:

Institutions should have ways of satisfying themselves that staff involved with the teaching of students are qualified and competent to do so. They should be available to those undertaking external reviews, and commented upon in reports.

5. Learning resources and student support:

Institutions should ensure that the resources available for the support of student learning are adequate and appropriate for each programme offered.

6. Information systems:

Institutions should ensure that they collect, analyse and use relevant information for the effective management of their programmes of study and other activities.

7. Public information:

Institutions should regularly publish up to date, impartial and objective information, both quantitative and qualitative, about the programmes and awards they are offering.

or programmes should be undertaken on a cyclical basis. The length of the cycle and the review procedures to be used should be clearly defined and published in advance.

Agencies should have in place procedures for their own accountability.



Self-Assessment

Test your understanding by answering the following questions:

1. What is Quality?
2. What is Quality Assurance?
3. How can we ensure QA in education?



Unit Summary

In this unit we have been discussing the various cross-cutting issues in education. We started by showing you the link between education and health. We proceeded to look at the relationship between education and HIV/AIDS, and also gender. We further, talked about how they affect education as well as how education affects them. In the lessons that followed, we discussed the relationship between education and SDGs, corruption and globalisation. To wrap up the unit, we have looked at the concept of Quality Assurance in education.

We have consequently, come to the end of Module two of this course (EDU 1010). Please, kindly proceed to Module three.

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