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Introduction to Volume 5, Number 4. December 2005

By

Dr. David Adewuyi, Managing Editor

Four of the five articles published in this edition dealt with secondary and tertiary educational issues in Africa while the fifth article discussed the challenges faced by African governments in their efforts to meet millennium development goals set by the various governments.

In the article titled “Secondary education provision in Africa: What form should it take in the twenty first century?” Dr. Nana Boaduo lamented the unnecessary and uncontrollable mushrooming of secondary schools in Africa, which were neither adequately funded nor have well qualified teachers. The resultant effect was the production of unskilled and unmarketable secondary school graduates. The author proposed suggestions and recommendations for the kind of secondary school education befitting Africa in the twenty first century.

Drawing largely from the School Effectiveness Research, Dr. Nwachukwu Olorube examined the teacher’s role in the provision of school effectiveness and quality improvement in Nigerian secondary schools. The findings of the study confirmed earlier research results that knowledge bases of subject matter, teaching skill, general knowledge base, enthusiasm and devotion to teaching are regarded as the most important factors in determining qualities of good teaching in the selected studied schools.

Anyona, Gravenir, and Mse studied the cost of private university education by different socio-economic groups in Kenya. Their study specifically sought to find out the implications of the current financing mechanisms, existing financial aid programs, and alternative financing strategies that could enhance access to private university education in Kenya. Data from the three studied private universities revealed that private universities in Kenya sourced funds from tuition and fees, auxiliary enterprises, donations, grants, gifts and endowments, student loans, bursaries and scholarships and alumni. The authors hoped that the recommendations of their study will aid in the restructuring of private universities with a view to accommodating all categories of socio-economic groups and the formulating of proper policies that will allow access to higher education by all social economic groups in Kenya.

Drs. Ajiboye and Omosehin’s study determined the effects of a training programme in Cooperative Learning on pre-service teacher’s classroom practice in Social Studies in relation to their counterparts who were not so exposed in selected classrooms in Lagos State, Nigeria. The results showed that there was a significant difference in the pre-service teachers’ knowledge of Cooperative Learning before and after exposure to the training programme in the strategy. The authors recommended, among other things, that teacher training programs in Nigeria should include Cooperative Learning strategies in order to equip pre-service teachers towards effective use of the method in future, while teachers already on the field should also be re-trained through organized workshops, and seminars to expose them to the essential features of Cooperative Learning in order to improve their classroom practice.

Alain Yenepad discussed how economic development and cooperation among African countries, and actions developed within the New Partnership for Africa’s Development (NEPAD) strategic framework, are key elements in achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

Secondary Education Provision In Africa: What Form Should It Take In The Twenty-First Century?

By
Dr. Nana Adu-Pipim Boaduo FRC

Email: nanaapb@hotmail.com or boaduo@mopipi.ub.bw

Abstract

The wind of change, which blew through the continent in the fifties and sixties brought political independence to most colonies in Africa but alienated them from economic independence. Formal education introduced by the colonialists was supposed to be the main vehicle to use to equip individuals with the most practical, applicable and relevant basic and advanced knowledge and skills for the upliftment of communities and the states to be able to support social mobility in a positive way. However, educational reforms and innovations that were introduced by the new governments of the new independent African countries, on the contrary, encouraged unnecessary and uncontrollable mushrooming of institutions that never provided the most needed relevant and applicable skills. In many cases, these were done as a ploy to satisfy politicians and their constituencies. Schools had no facilities, qualified teachers, appropriate textbooks, libraries, laboratories and workshops and above all qualified educational administrators. The primary and secondary systems and their graduates suffered the blunt of the mushrooming of schools and the pillaging of school graduates with no marketable skills to sell to prospective employers leaving millions of these graduates roaming our city and town streets. To date, not much have been done to contain the production of unskilled secondary school graduates. This paper will highlight the problem of unemployable secondary school graduates in Africa and attempt to provide innovative suggestions and recommendations for the kind of secondary education provision, which Africa requires in the twenty-first century to be able to eliminate secondary school graduates wastage.

INTRODUCTION

Secondary school education should be regarded as a strategy for effective and efficient social transformation at all fronts in independent African states. It must be understood that formal secondary education is primarily the most significant of all national investments. It is a knowledge production centre, as skills production system, as a complex multi-layered system for social, political, cultural and economic development system. Further to this, the secondary school system is a formal institution vested with the responsibility of imparting and developing knowledge, skills and attitudes essential for individuals to fit into society and be able to contribute productively to its development (Boaduo 1998, Boaduo 2001).

Historically, we are all aware of the fact that since the advent of the Imperial European powers entry into Africa, scrambled and partitioned it, the formal education system they introduced was aimed at making the subjects of their colonies better servants to serve their interests (Thompson, 1990). From the north to the south; the east to the west African governments have consistently propagated secondary education system that does not serve or contribute to the development needs of their countries and the continent as a whole. African governments have completely forgotten that formal education is the fundamental method of social process and reform (Noble, 1995) and that its major characteristic lies in its role as the selection system for African states in terms of roles and responsibilities (Boaduo, 1998; Hurn, 1993).

In 1976 the Ministers of Education of African members states of United Nations Educational and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) and the Organization of African Unity (OAU) met in Nigeria and in their meeting declared as part of their first recommendation that

“...a start be made in all African states on an all-round and complete reform and innovation of education systems with the effective participation of the masses, ... in order to adapt those systems to the real problems and preoccupations of the African community” (UNESCO, 1976:35)

It is unfortunate to indicate that for almost thirty years after this declaration was made, no significant reform and innovation in the education system [especially the secondary phase] of independent African countries had responded to the provisions in the declaration.

The quality of education in a country is established at various levels and points – nursery, pre-school, primary, secondary and tertiary [MoE, 1984]. What the states effect at each level is very important. What goes into it carries a lot of weight – joy in the acquisition of relevant, practical and applicable knowledge and skills (DNE, 1991). Generally, the primary purpose of types of education is to improve the lives of people who receive it through knowledge and skills (Nelson, Carlson & Palonsky, 1993). To Shinkfiled (1981:47) “the primary purpose of formal education is to help people acquire life skills”. They further affirm that “...the most valuable education for learners and for society will build life skills and emphasize their usefulness, relevance and their practical application. To Mhaiki (1979:147) “...education, as planned and envisaged must equip individuals to deal with inevitable economic, social and political realities, especially where the recipients would have to market their acquired skills in the modern competitive working world to prospective employers”. However, “...secondary school education [in Africa] ignores, in a thousand ways, the rules of healthy educational development” as observed by Noble (1995:78).

It is of no wonder that Eiichi Kiyooka in Noble (1995:78) in referring to the present secondary education provision in Africa suggested that “... the kind of learning without real relevance and immediate application should be left to another day, and that the best efforts should be given to secondary education that is relevant and immediately applicable to everyday use”.

Relevant and applicable skills-based secondary education: a theoretical framework

Educational philosophers have theorized and insisted, right from as early as AD 35 about the need for practical application of theory. Learned men like Quintilian and others have emphasized that “... theoretical knowledge alone is of little use without experience” (Rusk, 1957:35-50). Elyot, another educational philosopher in the 15th century was much concerned about the “upbringing of gentlemen’s sons”. He emphasized on practical training for public office bearers in order for life to become practically oriented (Rusk, 1957:53-60). Loyola, a Spanish educational philosopher and a theologian emphasized in his educational reform and innovation the “... economy of resources pertaining to training in life skills” (Rusk, 1957:63-86). He was adamant and insisted that “... all training in life skills should take cognizance of the local conditions in terms of resources, material and labour and the needs of the community” (Rusk, 1957:65). While Loyola was grappling with practicality and relevance of education in Spain, Comenius, a Czech was confidently making his mark on the practicality of education. To him, “... principles should be applied in practice. We need the reorganization of our educational institutions and a revolution in educational methods and practices. To me education should prepare the educand for both present and the future life and should equip him with relevant and applicable skills for responsible living” (Rusk, 1957:87). In his curriculum proposal he suggested that “...all subjects that were to be studied should be arranged in such a way that practical knowledge and skills are provided to help the learner solve day-to-day problems” (Rusk,

1957:98). Milton, another prominent educational philosopher in the 17th century proclaimed that "... to make the people fittest to choose and the chosen fittest to govern, will be to mend our corrupt and faulty education system" (Rusk, 1957:107). In his treatise, he emphasised the necessity of combining practical work with theoretical instructions "... if theoretical instruction is to be useful to the student" (Rusk, 1957:113). The English educational and political philosopher Locke was the first educationist to draw up a comprehensive plan for the introduction of **workhouses**. These are now called workshops and laboratories. These were introduced in all English schools during his time. He was a believer in functional education. In his famous speech, he indicated that "...the studies are but as it were the exercise of his faculties and employment of his time, to keep him from sauntering and idleness, to teach him application and accustom him to take pains, and to give him some little taste of what his own industry must perfect" (Rusk, 1957:119). His pragmatic attitude reflected in his emphasis on practical studies and indicated that "... no good could come to a system which was not based upon the principle of utility" (ibid. 124). One significant addition by Locke was his recommendation of training for a trade and wrote "...and yet I cannot forbear to say I would have him learn a trade, a manual trade which could be utilized as leisure when one has retired from school" (ibid: 129).

In different periods in the development of formal education in different countries, great educational philosophers' views have been reverberating. They serve as reflection of the need for comparative analysis of education systems of the past and present in order to shape a better future and avoid the pitfall inherent in education provision. The ideas of modern educationists like Wilm (1990), Rooth (1997), White (1990) and Lemmer (1996) agree with the views of those earlier educational philosophers discussed above.

The African secondary education provision scenario

What need listing at this point are the characteristics of African secondary school education system. First and foremost is a fact that the African secondary education system falsely raises the expectations of the graduates to such an extent that it does not reflect the realities of the working world and does not align with the business-industry world. Secondly, the secondary education provision in Africa ensures that many of its graduates fail and are seen to fail, become redundant, helpless and incapacitated (Bohloko, 1978; Deble, 1980; Letseka, 1992; Rogers, 1986; Tjabane, 1992). The third characteristic is that the secondary school system in Africa destroys the dignity of its learners and denial them of a future with the result that they experience inferiority which leaves them unable and therefore powerless (Hargreaves, 1982; Ruddock, 1996). The fourth characteristic is that most secondary school graduates are semi-literate and most can barely read or write the language used as the medium of instruction. Finally, the curricula used do not consider the relevance, appropriateness and the applicability towards the satisfaction of the development needs of African countries and the needs of the recipients (Boaduo, 1998; Boaduo 2001).

A critical look at education systems throughout the world will reveal that all education systems share both general and specific qualities and characteristics. Their planning, policy formulation, organization, administration and management can be adaptable to specific local environmental conditions (Boaduo 1998; Boaduo 2001). Further to this is the need for comparative analysis of education systems. Comparative study of the various world education systems enables practitioners and policy decision-makers to analyze, describe, characterize, compare and contrast educational problems and solutions in order to develop education systems to acceptable levels dynamic to the times and needs of society (Boaduo, 1998).

Due to the fact that the provision of secondary education in Africa has not responded positively to the development needs of the various countries; these countries have been experiencing acute unemployment crises after political independence (UNDP & UNESCO, 1976). African Governments propose wonderful development policy documents that are supposed to respond to national development needs, self-reliance, self-sufficiency and equitable distribution of national wealth. However, the requirement for proper, relevant and applicable investment in what Baptiste (1996: 1) calls "... human capital" is ignored. To Baptiste "... the most important investment any nation can make for its future is investment in the people through the education system" (ibid: 94).

There is need for a brief historical perspective of formal education in Africa to be able to put the message of this paper across in proper retrospect. Ngubentomi (1989) reiterates that any historical perspective in the study of education promotes a healthy appreciation of the traditional views on education practice and further indicates the constraints imposed and the opportunities offered. However, these lead to an understanding of the influence of the interaction of the past with the present. To Moyana (1989) the provision of secondary education in Africa has, from the colonial times to present neglected, disrespected and down-graded the traditional African way of life. As a result of this deliberate neglect of the African traditional and cultural norms and infusion of the most relevant and applicable characteristics of the traditional African education system, has contributed immensely to the irrelevance of formal secondary education provision (Rupert, 1979; Pitso, 1977). Lewin, in Foster (1971:158) and Letseka (1992:36-40) lament that "...education slavery has been painfully apparent both in the retention of certain controversial, conventional subjects that had excluded others much more practically applicable and appropriate and related to the life and environment of the learner".

From the brief evidence provided above, the need and time for protracted and consistent action to correct the damage done by the current secondary education provision to our secondary school learners is now.

What the aims of African secondary education should be

A brief look at the aims of secondary education provision in Africa will make the discussion more focused. Russell (1980:21) has listed that:

1. "The sole purpose of education is to provide opportunities of growth and to remove hampering influences
2. The purpose of education is to give culture to the individual and to develop his capacities to the utmost.
3. Education is to be considered rather in relation to the community than in relation to the individual and that its business is to train useful citizens".

To Russell no actual education proceeds wholly and completely on any one of the three theories listed above. All three in varying proportions are found in every education system. The choice of a right system of education depends, in great measure, upon the adoption of a due proportion among the three theories (Carr, 1995).

White (1982:6) has this question for introspection "...Are aims of education necessary?" Peters (1959) quoted in White (1982:2) is of the view that "...educating is surely an intentional, purposeful enterprise – how could it be otherwise?" This is an indication that aims of education are necessary. Nunn (1920:9) believes that "... an attempt to state a universal aim for education is largely misconceived since people's interpretation of whatever aim is proposed will differ

according to their different ideals of life". Further to this Nunn insisted that "... educational efforts must ... be limited to securing for every one the conditions under which his individuality is most completely developed (ibid.).

Makiguchi (1912) a Japanese educational philosopher believed that educational aims should include "... totality of training and development, synthesis, creativity and internationalism". To him the learner should be prepared to be versatile and his mobility should not be restricted by education (Causton, 2004:5).

Plato in his dialogue with Adeimantus in the Republic was asked, "What kind of education shall we give them then?" His response was that "... as you know, it is always what matters most, particularly when we are dealing with those who are young and tender. It is the time they are easily moulded and when any impression we choose to make leaves a permanent mark" (Lee: 1987: 130). However, the permanent mark secondary education provision has left on its graduates in Africa has been joblessness for the majority and redundancy.

Reforms and innovations documentations for Africa

In this section a detailed reflection is provided about educational reform and innovation advisory services that have been provided by the United Nations through its various arms – the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) and United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) to African governments. These voluminous documents have been prepared to help countries to reform their education systems. African countries have had their fair share of the advice but have not done enough to innovate and reform the secondary education system which turns out thousands of ill-equipped graduates each year. The process still goes on unabated.

Malpica (IIEP, 1983) gave a brief profile about the required reform and innovation in secondary schools in some selected countries to be able to respond to their development needs. The emphasis was on the ability of the secondary education system to equip secondary school graduates with relevant and applicable skills that they could use to make a living long after leaving school and do not undertake any further studies for reasons beyond their control ((IIEP, 1989; IIEP, 1991; IIEP, 1993).

Further to this briefing, several studies about curriculum reform and innovation have been undertaken and documented, some concentrating on how Africa's secondary education system should be made responsive to the educational and development needs of the graduates (UNESCO, 1971; Southworth, 1974; UNESCO, 1974; Gage, 1975; Lewy, 1975; UNDP & UNESCO, 1976; UNESCO, 1979; Caillods, 1991; Shaeffer, 1994). These references have been provided to alert the reader to be able to synthesize the issue under discussion and be able to reason out about the magnitude of the dilemma. If all the studies referred to above have been conducted with the aim of turning things around positively in Africa and the rest of the developing world, why does the African secondary education system not respond to the needs of its graduates? The answer to this question requires further in-depth research which is not the subject of this paper. However, there is need for reflection on few pertinent issues to straighten the path for further discussion.

A brief look at traditional African education provision

All traditional African societies had their own educational identity long before they were exposed to the European formal educational influences. Generally a pattern of culture and education were firmly established (Thompson, 1990). The learning of children and the youth

was informally oriented towards the practical activities in the home, in the farms and fields or in the various workshops where traditional implements were designed and produced. In all traditional African societies education was compulsory and free. It was the responsibility of every community to educate its youth in the traditional and cultural norms that were held in high esteem.

The acquisition of practical life skills was the main aim of traditional education. The learning culminated in a fairly formal initiation school, taught by experienced local teachers, doctors of medicine and the wise elders. Boys and girls separately learned cultural and traditional values, philosophy, personal and family responsibilities to one's tribe, the people, the community and the nation as a whole (Rupert, 1979; Thompson, 1990).

The methods of instructions comprised observation, oral and practical demonstrations of useful skills. The curricula planners were the old and the most experienced men and women in the society (Britannica, 1988). The examinations were extended over a very long period until proficiency was attained. The examinations were a way for boys and girls to demonstrate their mastery of the skills and knowledge essential for physical, psychological, political, economical, spiritual, natural, cultural and social needs of the community in particular and the nation as a whole.

According to oral tradition some of the most important curricula considerations for the traditional African education system included the following life skills:

- The herding of cattle, goats, sheep, camels, donkeys and horses.
- Attending to domestic animals and human diseases.
- Conflict management and negotiation tactics.
- The construction of buildings, dams, wells, canoes and irrigation systems.
- Learning of crafts work training including pottery and carving.
- Military skills for the defence and protection of the community [the use of spear, bow and arrow and club as well as wrestling for contact combat.
- Preparing the land for planting, harvesting and processing of harvested crops.
- Hunting skills.
- Trades such as metal work, basketry, bead weaving and sculpturing.
- Preparation towards initiation into manhood and womanhood.

This type of education was free and compulsory. There was no shortage of teachers, classrooms or materials because every competent adult served as a model and a teacher and every elder was a potential reference library. The home, the workshops, the farms and fields, kitchens and the kings, queens and chiefs palaces were all used as classrooms. Graduates from the traditional African educational institutions readily got employed due to the relevance and practically functional nature of the life skills training acquired. The graduates could either work for wages by tilling the land for other families or by tilling their family land, or herding their domestic animals or acquiring land from the chief and starting independently.

Finally, the curricula of the traditional African education system depended largely on the needs of society and emphasis was placed in the training of specific skills that were required for the sustenance of the traditional African society. For example if war was eminent, most male youth and the able men were conscripted into the army to be trained to defend the society. Once the war was over, most skills training concentrate on the aesthetic nature of the people, for example weaving, crafts, decoration, and architecture and hair salon beauty tactics especially among the women. Elaborate plaiting of women's hair decorated with beads, cowries and other ornaments depicted the advanced aesthetic nature of the traditional African woman.

What has been briefly sketched above does not in any way suggest a wholesale return to the traditional African education system. Society today is modern, diverse and completely different in terms of needs, development and strategies as compared to the days described above (Hendry, 1990). However, some aspects of the traditional African education system need careful reflection when modern curricula are discussed. Some of the characteristics of the traditional African education system that need special attention include the following:

- The importance attached to relevant, practical and applicable life skills acquisition and the insistence that one has to pass the practical and the oral examinations in order to be admitted to adulthood.
- The application of acquired skills in the utilization of locally available natural resources to be able to make a living
- The emphasis placed on the knowledge of the history of one's ancestors and tribe to conserve traditional and cultural norms; and
- The respect of one's traditional and cultural norms during initiation into adulthood.

Specifically, the traditional African education system has something to offer the modern education system. A reflection on the characteristics of the traditional African education curricula and the fusion of those relevant principles into the modern education curricula might help to curb most of the wastages that have characterized the secondary school graduates that our formal schools produce today – mass unemployment among our secondary school graduates [youth].

TOWARDS A PROGRESSIVE SECONDARY EDUCATION IN AFRICA

A secondary school education that will respond to the development needs of a country and its graduates should reflect on the realities of the world of work and production as well as the availability of natural and other resources available in the localities. Changing the focus of the secondary school curricula from academically oriented content to more realistic and practically oriented programmes of courses that will provide graduates with basic, relevant and applicable life skills that can be utilized immediately after graduation must be the subject of curricula planners and education policy makers. In this respect the following recommendations have been provided for introspection.

Recommendation 1

Towards a new secondary school education provision: The African secondary education system has the chief responsibility for producing a capable workforce that will carry the flag of the Renaissance mission and vision through to accomplishment in the 21st century. There is, therefore, the need to make significant effort to improve public schools to be able to address the current and the future unemployment problem among secondary school graduates [Salamon 1991:23]. Secondary education provision is one of the most important media for the provision of learning opportunities. The rapid pace of economic, social and technological changes in our contemporary societies has highlighted the difference between what the secondary school system provides and what is apparently “**needed**”, especially in the business-industry world [Carr-Hill 1988:3]. The secondary education, as traditionally organised, cannot meet these “**needs**” for “**appropriate**” and “**relevant**” education.

Secondary education and employment should relate to each other through a great many connections, processes and interfaces [Korn et al 1984:13]. These authors indicate that the

system of secondary education and the system of employment are both defined by the interplay of political, economic, social, cultural, juridical and material-technological factors under specific historical conditions. The two complementary systems are highly dynamic, actively related and interdependent. The framework of their relationships can be comprehended only as an integral part of a whole and in the final analysis as an integral part of the socio-economic and socio-political structures of the society. In the current African perspective, these are fundamental statements not taken seriously by the secondary education system.

Considered from this angle, the shaping of relations between secondary education and employment presents itself as a special problem of relationship between social and economic progress. It further implies making them efficient and effective in both social and economic terms. Since this aspect is in direct correlation, any change in one affect the other either positively or negatively [Korn & Maier 1977:15].

Currently, it is possible to evaluate the African secondary education system with its objectives, principles and attainments as something isolated from the requirements of its past, present and even the future employment system. How long shall we keep on producing redundant secondary school graduates? The establishment of proportions in the interrelations between secondary education and employment is purpose-oriented within the framework of that totality that determines social reproduction as a whole. In this sense, the following have been emphasised by Boyer [in Salmon 1991:31] as significant for meaningful changes that can enhance the provision of applicable, relevant and functional secondary education for employment and development:

1. A national commitment to the proposition that every secondary school graduate must have high quality functional, applicable and relevant secondary education responsive to national and community needs and can respond to them in a practical way.
2. A need for the development of a coherent curricula stressing proficiency in languages, availability of facilities, equipment and infrastructure, integration of cultural and traditional knowledge, basic science and above all familiarity with the needs of business-industry world.
3. The restructuring of secondary schools to stress school-based management and accountability for educational performance
4. A greater effort to recruit and train better educators through higher salaries, improved working conditions, expanded teacher-renewal programmes and an effort to upgrade the status of teaching as a profession requiring compulsory registration body to oversee the registration of professional educators and their activities.
5. An expanded partnership between the secondary schools on one hand and the parents and business-industry world on the other

From the list above, attention needs to be paid to the practical application of scientific and acquired knowledge for immediate use after the completion of secondary education. In other words, greater efforts should be made to facilitate training and functional, applicable, relevant and practical skills-based development within the secondary school parameters. As a prerequisite to secondary school education practical on-the-job experience, training and skills development should be integrated. Attention should be paid to weekend and vacation employment for all secondary school learners to put their theoretical knowledge into practice in their chosen fields. This will expose them, right from the start, to the realities of the business-

industry world before the completion of their secondary education. This will form the basis for practical, relevant and applicable skills acquisition to sell to employers.

Recommendation 2

Towards partnership between secondary education and the business-industry world: There is urgent need for partnership between secondary education and the business-industry world in relation to curricula and infrastructural matters. Partnership reflects an understanding that the economic well-being and the vitality of a community are tied to the quality of its public secondary school system. In effect, good public secondary school system is also good for the business-industry world because it will encourage and contribute to the overall community general stability, advancement and development. To the secondary school graduates the following serve as the major advantages if partnerships are forged between the secondary school system and the business-industry world:

1. Learners acquire basic work experience before the completion of their secondary school education exposing them to the business-industry world in advance equipping them with the required experiences.
2. Learners will have the opportunity to undertake on-the-job training and exposure, especially during the afternoons, weekends, holidays and vacations, as part of their experiences. Work shadowing, work simulation and industrial site visits are included in the study programme to make them part of the business-industry world long before graduation.
3. Academic work that relates to the demands of the business-industry world would be made very practical, stimulate interest and all learners would strive to do well to ensure smooth career path. In this perspective, motivation would be high because of the use of industrial resources as well as industrialists as personal educators while the learners are on site. These industrialists will also serve as role models.
4. Since the curricula is a joint product of all stakeholders, it is relevant to both the graduates and the business-industry world because there is joint secondary education-business-industry curricula project which will cater for all interested parties and fulfil their aspirations. The business-industry world will be prepared to lend a hand in equipping laboratories and workshops in schools.

To the educators as well as education policy makers the advantages of this kind of partnership between the secondary education system and the business-industry world include the following:

1. Educators can be attached to industry and also attend company training programmes and courses so that they are able to use the primary up-to-date materials in the classroom before secondary school graduates are taken out on their on-the-job practical training. Educators may use this as a springboard to change their profession by joining the business-industry world.
2. Educators will be able to develop and maintain personal contacts and receive expert assistance from the business-industry world for policy-making, curricula propositions, resources selection, allocation and general planning. Furthermore, information about needs of the work place that will enable secondary institutions to develop relevant programmes is made available to educators. There is also the

advantage of the use of experts from the business-industry as part time, temporary or full time educators and trainers of secondary school graduates.

The purpose of all these is to give the educator the opportunity to gain first-hand experience and knowledge, like their learner, a variety of careers and offers the educator numerous opportunities for support in order to carry out the accorded tasks effectively and efficiently.

While the educators and secondary school graduates become beneficiaries of the excellent partnership, the business-industry world and the government benefit as well. To the business-industry world, the secondary school system will produce educated and well-prepared workforce. As a result the business-industry world will promote and permit the secondary schools the use of their facilities, equipment and other resources. This will further increase the direct economic benefits from the secondary education institutions that may also buy goods and other products and services in their local communities helping them to apply technology to improve business operations and raising the economic level of the community.

Recommendation 3

Towards physical facilities and infrastructural provision: Where it is not possible to provide laboratories, workshops and libraries for every secondary school especially at the initial stages of the reform and innovation process; the Department of Education should set up a committee to plan to equip schools. In the plan, the following should be considered:

1. All the educational districts should be re-zoned into smaller educational regions.
2. Each region should have equal number of secondary schools
3. A centrally placed secondary school in each new region should be selected for the pilot project period for development.
4. The selected central schools in each region should be budgeted for development and equipped with laboratories, workshops and libraries as well as materials and equipment, electricity and water.
5. A central time-table should be prepared for each region to accommodate all the schools to come to the centre at specific times to make use of the facilities either weekly or fortnightly.
6. These selected schools should be well-staffed to cater for all the needs of the curricula of the schools within that region.

Once the pilot project has fulfilled its expectations through rigorous assessment and evaluation, one school each from the regions should be equipped each financial year so that with time, all the schools will be equipped with laboratories, workshops and libraries and qualified teachers to help the learners acquire practical, applicable and relevant skills before the completion of their secondary education.

Recommendation 4

General: The following recommendations should also be taken into account if African Governments want to curb the secondary school graduates wastage.

- Immediate need for the introduction of practical, relevant, functional and applicable manual skills-based model of secondary school education with full community participation and the use of the available local resources within the environment can be a meaningful approach to the resolution of the secondary graduate wastage problem. Skills provided should make sure that available local raw materials can be used by the secondary school graduates. This will enable them want to stay in the rural areas instead of migrating to urban centres for jobs. Local artisans and crafts women should be recruited for their enterprise to teach their trade in the schools.
- The aims of secondary education provision should be recreated to add internship in practical skills in collaboration and corroboration with the business-industry world to equip secondary school pupils with skills and experiences before graduation. Schools should liaise directly with business and industry so that schools are able to consult with them to send their students for practical on-the-job training during the afternoons, weekends and vacations.
- The African secondary school education should be responsive to the economic and social demands of the continent and prepare graduates for the kind of occupational positions available in modern African society.
- The secondary school curricula should integrate secondary education with the environment to make for the functioning of scholastic establishments as units of production within the schools to help earn income to beat running costs. This will help to prevent environmental degradation.
- There should be a thorough research into the indigenous African traditional education system to incorporate the relevant, applicable and practical features into the modern secondary school curricula.
- For efficient and effective administration, organization and management, there is need to decentralised activities for prompt action to be initiated when the need arises. This will strengthen the inspectorates and speed up reform and innovations as well as resolution of conflicts.
- The physical characteristics of the African continent should be used to benefit secondary school graduates and incorporate the development of tourism and tourist-related courses into the secondary education model to benefit the pupils during vacation. Subjects like pony and horse riding and tour guides should be introduced in schools so that secondary school graduates can become tour guides and take tourists into the inaccessible mountain areas with ponies and horses, especially during weekends, holidays and vacation. This will enable students to earn income to support their studies and their families.

IMPLICATIONS FOR CHANGES

If African Governments are to undertake the required reform and innovation then there are certain measures that should be put into place. With respect to curricula changes, there will be need for renovation of structures in the schools and new ones added. Teachers would have to be retrained or provided with intensive in-service to be able to cope with the new changes. There is need for the re-organization of the inspectorates to make them efficient. This will demand the recruitment of more inspectors. They should be placed at the district offices, as decentralization

will need them to be close to the areas they are supposed to operate. The teaching profession should be recognised by governments throughout Africa and require registration and licensure before practice. Each African country should recognise on central teachers organisation or council so that professional teachers are able to become a pressure group and fight for their rights democratically. Teachers should be recognised as professionals and remunerated for their service, especially promotion should be granted when the time is ripe not necessarily moving the promoted teacher from the school for a distant senior position somewhere. This will increase motivation and boost performance because teachers who reach promotion stage are sure to be promoted and remunerated financially. The implications are that African Governments would have to forgo some of their commitments in the initial stages and prioritise the secondary school system for effective reform and innovation. The author believes that it would be a worthwhile action since most of the pupils terminate at the secondary school level and equipping them well with living skills will eliminate the current secondary school graduates wastage.

CONCLUSION

The problems that African secondary education system faces have both universal and local implications. The universal implications are that most of the problems identified are characteristic of all education systems particularly those related to curriculum, lack of infrastructure and qualified teachers and secondary school graduates wastage. The local implications pertain to specific provisions and applications, which include appropriate, relevant and applicable curricula, training and retraining of teachers, facilities, equipment and regular assessment and evaluation of the system. The solution of most or all of the identified problems lies in the effective and efficient implementation of functional, relevant and applicable secondary education. African needs to do just that to be able to curb the wastage of secondary school graduates.

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School Effectiveness And Quality Improvement: Quality Teaching in Nigerian Secondary Schools

by

Nwachukwu Prince Ololube
Email: ololubeprince@yahoo.com

Abstract

This paper is part of a wider study on the role of teachers to guarantee secondary school effectiveness and quality improvement in Nigeria. It examines quality teaching approaches that ensure quality schooling vis-à-vis students' academic achievement. The study is guided by both the qualitative and quantitative research methods. The data collected were analyzed to answer the specific research objectives in this study. The quantitative outcome revealed that knowledge bases of subject matter, teaching skill (presentation, explanation etc.), general knowledge base and enthusiasm and devotion to teaching are regarded as the most important factors in determining qualities of good teaching. The respondents interviewed defined quality teaching in terms of teaching skills and knowledge base of subject matter, instructional processes that are carried out by highly qualified teachers, the creation of effective learning environment, effective evaluation of students and teaching that brings about low drop out rate among students.

INTRODUCTION

It is a known issue that the quality of education in Nigeria has fallen since the past two decades. This could be traced from the inception of the military dictatorship in Nigeria in 1984. The continued high levels of youth unemployment in the country, and the perception that students are inadequately equipped compared to their counterparts that are adequately trained in the West is a fact (Dike, 2005). Researchers (Adeniyi, 2001; Peretomode, 1991, 1995; Whawo, 1993) argued that the falling standards in Nigeria's educational system can also be traced to cultural, religious, social, technological and above all economic reasons. Standard in this context is the degree of excellence required for a particular purpose; it is an accepted or approved example against which others are judged or measured. However, this study takes another dimension with the main focus on the role of teachers and their influence on the quality of teaching and learning.

In addition, it has been alleged (Pillai 2001) that what is wrong with secondary education cannot be fixed with teachers alone, yet there is no doubt that man's contemporary existence is dominated by teaching. There is also a universal recognition of the need to use professionally qualified teachers in instructional processes as we enter the era of globalization where school effectiveness and quality improvement is the order of the day (Reynolds *et al.*, 1994; Barber & White, 1997). Up until now, Nigeria is on the wrong side of the international effort of secondary school reform movement. Because, Nigeria has failed to actively engage in such reform movements. The reason for secondary school reform for example, is a significant aspect in the maintenance of balance between greater institutional self-sufficiency and public

accountability. International reforms of schools aimed at creating school effectiveness and quality improvement is an effort in the 21st century to improve quality in education. However, Nigeria cannot afford to be on the erroneous surface (Adeniyi 2001). Moreover, secondary schools in Nigeria are not given adequate funds to provide furniture, relevant textbooks and adequate classroom let alone being given adequate fund to purchase modern equipment to aid instruction (Aduwa-Ogiegbaen & Iyamu 2005; Adeniyi 2001). Nevertheless, enormous arrangement of instructional and administrative duties in secondary school in Nigeria are still carried out periodically. However, Nigeria needs highly specialized teachers to aid teaching and learning and educational management.

RESEARCH QUESTION

The research question for this study states, “What are the qualities of good teaching that may possibly create improved secondary scholarship?”

THE PURPOSES AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

In many parts of the developing countries, for example, Nigeria, secondary school education is in the midst of crises. These schools originally are regarded as central to national capacity to connect with the new international knowledge system. Yet, the capacity for these schools to continue to play this role and other roles has been reduced drastically. For example, secondary schools in the West form and continue to remain the cornerstones for national development because they are the foundation for the preparation of the country’s citizens towards entering institution of higher education. As a result, their governments do not undermine them, thus, the need for greater information attribution (Barber & White, 1997; Creemers, 1994a; Scheerens, 1994; Scheerens & Creemers, 1989). Nigerian secondary schools exist in the shadow of their glorious past because of her inability to ensure quality schooling and employing the right caliber of teachers and putting them at the right place at the right time. Presently, unqualified teachers are still employed to handle instructional processes in secondary schools. These reasons have hampered secondary school effectiveness and quality improvement in developing countries (OECD, 1989).

Therefore, one of the objectives of this study is to examine ideas and comments on quality instruction (Austin, Dwyer & Freebody, 2003; Creemers 1994b, 1994c) in relation to school effectiveness and improvement. This study is also a demonstration of what actually happens in the real world of secondary school education in Nigeria. The main aim of this research study is to identify ‘best practice’ quality teaching strategies that creates improved scholarship because without quality instruction the motivation for quality learning will not be there. I define best practice in this paradigm as a generally accepted best ways of doing things in education in search of excellence in teaching. This paper aims to contribute to knowledge in that regard. However, we should not assume that this research is an end in itself; rather it is a means that might help in resolving the problem that will be uncovered in this study. Another purpose of this study is to add to the intellectual gap in the understanding of the key issues of secondary school students’ educational achievement in Nigeria. By doing this study, I hope to participate in the global debate of educational effectiveness and quality improvement, and students’ academic achievement in the developing countries of, for example, Nigeria.

In order to achieve the aforementioned aims and objectives, this study is designed to examine theoretically and empirically the role of teachers to ensure that instructional goals are

achieved in secondary schools, given that there are limited research publications in Nigeria regarding this area of discourse. Though, if they existed they were very narrow and did not focus on possible features that might improve quality teaching in which this study has given considerable insights. It is important to note that the scope of this research is limited to the examination of the qualities teachers ought to possess to ensure quality teaching that results to quality learning in schools; it focuses on teachers' instructional effectiveness in secondary schools. Finally, the findings from this study will constitute an added input in the improvement of teacher education and school effectiveness in Nigeria from the classroom perspective.

THEORETICAL REVIEW

The Concept of Quality

To begin with, during the past three decades, quality has been at the top of most programs and has been one of the basic means of competition. Even today, quality is still a key concept in the future success of national economies. For the survival of mankind, quality must pervade all our activities, whether in business or in service. However, notwithstanding the importance attached to the concept of quality, it is still a concept that is not easily defined (Hick n.d). Today, quality is regarded as an essentially contested issue among competing voices and is discoursed by front-line academics and managers and is viewed differently. This leads to the ideas by some scholars (e.g., Anyamele, 2004) that quality has suffered over the years by being used to describe attributes such as beauty, goodness, expensiveness, freshness and, above all, luxury. Since it is not possible to manage something that is so imprecise and means so many things, it makes quality appear a very difficult concept to understand. Quality, then, is a slippery concept because it has such a variety of meanings and the word implies different things to different people (Munro-Faure & Munro-Faure, 1992).

The significance of the term "quality" in educational context, including its political importance and increased substantially is however given a normative interpretation. A dictionary will include such definitions of the word as "*degree of excellence*", or "*relative nature or kind or character*". When quality means "degree of excellence", two aspects are encompassed: that of judgments of worth and that of position on an implied scale of good and bad. To judge the quality of a school, for instance as "poor", "mediocre", or "excellence" means both applying, whether roughly or precisely, a certain notion of merit, and identifying again more or less appropriately where that school is positioned relative to other schools (OECD, 1989, p. 28).

Nevertheless, the concept of "quality" in education conjures up many metaphors including a functionalist one. A functionalist metaphor of quality in education refers to the curriculum, content, methods of teaching and assessment and evaluation policies and procedures. As a result, quality in education debate seems to focus on this functionalist or instrumentalist definition of education (Zajda, 1995, p. i). By whatever means, if we accept that no single definition is possible in education unlike in the business world, it follows that the best approach to view quality is to look for observable characteristics of educational programs which are valued. However, Zajda (1995) citing Berquist and Armstrong offered seven observable criteria for a 'high quality' academic program, they include:

1. Attractive: It does something that brings people to it.
2. Beneficial: It does something that is helpful to the individuals and the community involved in it.

3. Congruent: It does what it says it will do.
4. Distinctive: It is responsive to the unique characteristics of the institution and its people and this is unlike most other programs.
5. Effective: It does what it does very well and can demonstrate its effectiveness to others.
6. Functional: It provides learners with attributes needed to perform successfully in today's society.
7. Growth-producing: It enhances growth in a number of important directions of learning (Zajda 1995, p. iii).

Similarly, quality in teaching means possessing the competencies to teach effectively. The competencies required includes the ability of the teacher to measure students' educational achievements, and of ensuring that parents are satisfied with the educational development of their children and wards for whom overall concern is the effective improvement of children's educational development. Conversely, two variables are regarded by school effectiveness and quality improvement researchers (Creemers 1994b; Haron 1995; Hämäläinen & Jokela 1993; Hämäläinen & Häkkinen 1995; Scheerens 1994; Scheerens & Creemers 1989) as very important for the improvement of educational quality, pedagogical techniques and effectiveness of school management. Other macro institutional variables should be considered as supporting variables, whose main function should be to strengthen the basic process of teaching and learning in the classroom to improve students' academic performance. Essentially therefore, improving the quality of education will be improving the quality and quantity of the above basic inputs; that is, improving students' learning achievement qualitatively or quantitatively which is dependent on the qualitative or quantitative improvement of teachers (Haron, 1995, p.103).

The Concept of Quality in Teaching and Education Effectiveness

A difficult aspect of quality oversight arises when problems are found in terms of educational effectiveness. That is, definitions and broad criteria generally fail to offer sufficient guidance about where to draw the line between what is adequate and what is not. Effectiveness is not one-dimensional, but depends on the way that various resources work in combination. Fundamentally, it requires a look at outcomes and what an institution accomplishes. It means questions about whether school graduates are well prepared, whether they have both the knowledge and skills that they and society expect as a result of their studies (Chapman & Austin, 2002, pp. 209-210). According to Bacchus "quality of education" often means raising the level of academic performance of students, usually as measured in test scores, in the various subjects, which form part of their school curriculum (Bacchus, 1995, p. 7). In actual fact, teachers are a very vital force in educational effectiveness at classroom instructional level. They are charged with the responsibility of implementing the school curricular and the pedagogical techniques sufficiently, as well as show what Creemers (1994b) and Wheldall and Glynn (1989) called effective instructional behaviours. However, OECD (1989) citing Darling-Hammond and others identified four quite distinct characteristics of what is expected of teachers:

1. Teaching as labor: The activities of teachers should be rationally planned, and programmatically organized by administrators, with the teacher merely responsible for carrying out the instructional program;
2. Teaching as craft: Teaching is seen in this conception as requiring a *repertoire* of specialized techniques and as well as mastering the techniques, the teacher must acquire general rules for their application;

3. Teaching as art: Based not only on professional knowledge and skills, but on a set of personal resources uniquely defined; techniques and their application may be novel, unconventional, and unpredictable;
4. Teaching as profession: The teacher needs not only a *repertoire* of specialized technique, but also the ability to exercise judgement about when these techniques should be applied and hence a body of theoretical knowledge (OECD 1989, p. 19).

If the role of a teacher is as stated above, it now becomes unclear who exactly is a good teacher and what is expected of him or her (OECD 1992). However, according to Perry (1994) the necessary conditions for quality teaching include the performance of the teacher. The performance of the teacher requires professional expertise. A professional's level of capability is not static but constantly changing partly because of rapid changes in the environment caused by new technical, social or institutional claims, but also because the individual's personal development continues and new job demands arises. From the later perspective competence can be viewed as a cut-off point on learning and developing continuum which has several stages, starting with selection and education, continuing in the process of professional education and training, and finally reaching the status of demonstrating competence on the job (Leino, 1996, p. 75). The changing role of teachers calls for new knowledge and capabilities. Recent research on teaching and learning appear to give particular emphasis on a deep knowledge of the subject to be taught and an understanding of and ability to use a range of pedagogical approaches. Teachers are also expected to have knowledge of the social development of children and of management function (Hämäläinen & Jokela, 1993).

Campbell, *et al.* (2004) refer to teachers' job competencies as the impact that classroom factors (e.g. teaching methods, teacher expectations, classroom organization and use of classroom resources) have on students' performance. In addition, they also look at teachers' efficacy as the power to realize socially valued objectives agreed for teachers' work especially, but not exclusively the work concerned with enabling students to learn. According to them, four issues flow from this definition: the contexts and conditions for which students are enabled to learn can differ; students differ; the content of which objectives for learning are achieved can differ; and the values underlying learning and effectiveness can differ. It was also plausibly suggested that the concept of teacher effectiveness moves from beyond the generic to incorporate the idea that teachers can be effective with some students more than others, with some subjects more than others, and their professional work more than others. Campbell and his colleagues recognizes this differentiation, but concluded that a distinctive characteristic of a teacher is "the power to teach", that is, the ability of the teacher to adjust general pedagogical principles in the light of his or her judgment about the needs of individuals or of particular contexts.

Nonetheless, Cremer's (1994b) model of educational effectiveness, argued that it is the school factors that create the conditions in which effective teaching and learning occur. Therefore, teachers' behavior could be affected by the school factors. However, he additionally believes that effective instruction is the basis for a theory of educational effectiveness. (see also Scheerens, 2000). Correspondingly, a teacher's role on the issue of quality in school is very vital and as such, teachers are regarded as prime movers in the improvement of quality in education. That is why researchers call for professional development of teachers to reduce areas of waste and effective means of improving quality secondary schools.

Qualities of Good Teaching

The best teachers according to McCormick (1996, pp. 46-49) are captivated by their subject matter drawn out of themselves by their teaching, which will catch their excitement like the wake of a passing train. The very best teachers do not tie students down; they pull students along. They are as corny as it sounds—visionaries. Still, what is most attractive about these idealists is how teachers love or come to love their students. Unlike being a great scholar, being a great teacher requires a passion for one's field of study and for one's students. After all, teaching is not just about ideas; it is about engaging hearts and minds in the process of learning. Similarly, the best teachers according to Brain (1998) are in the form of questions. What are the qualities that combine to create an excellent, memorable teacher? Why do some teachers inspire students to work three times harder than they normally would, while others inspire students to skip class? Why do students learn more from some teachers than others? If you aspire to become a better teacher, these are important questions in Brains's words. Thus, Brains identified the issue of "emphasis on teaching" as focusing on the four essential qualities that distinguish exceptional teachers—knowledge, communication skills, interest, and respect for students.

McCormick (1996) made clear that quality teachers are the teachers who inspire students to compete against themselves, to take on tasks that seem to exceed their grasp, to discover and develop their real mettle as thinkers. At the same time, the very best teachers also seem to be the ones who never stop learning themselves; they are the folks who never quit reading new books, listening to new voices, or discussing new ideas, and whose quest for understanding is never finished. In other words, Biggs (2003) asserts that the very best teachers are lifelong students, people who still know how little they really understand about life and how much they have left to learn about all the important questions. Additionally, McCormick (1996) posited three features of an excellent teacher. First, high-quality teachers have a passion in their lives and a deep regard for their students. That is, they love their students. Second, they lead challenging and demanding lives that set high standards and inspire their charges. In other words, they are prophetic. And third, they are always fully engaged in the mystery of life, with hearts and minds full of wonder and awe, open to learn new things and understand new realities.

Katz (1988) and Reiger and Stang's (2000, pp. 62-64) argued that teachers need to be curious, imaginative, empathetic, interesting, friendly and hardworking in order to be effective in the classroom, thereby creating a learning environment that enhances and strengthens the learning disposition of the students. In the same vein, Hight (1963) and Stones (1966) argued that a good teacher is a man or woman of exceptionally wide and lively intellectual interest. A good teacher is an interesting man or woman. As such he or she will make the work interesting for the students, in just the same way as he or she talks interestingly and writes an interesting letter. Much teaching consists in explaining, we explain the unknown by the known, the vague by the vivid. One of the most important qualities of a good teacher is "humor". Many are the purposes it serves. The most obvious one is that it keeps students alive and attentive because they are never quite sure what is coming next. A teacher with a poor memory is ridiculous and dangerous. A good teacher is a determined person. It is very difficult to teach anything without kindness.

In conclusion, Bigg (2003) study on quality of good teaching highlights that "good teaching is getting most students to use the higher cognitive level processes that the more academic students use spontaneously. Teaching works by getting students to engage in learning-related activity that help them attain the particular objectives set for the unit or course,

such as theorizing, generating new ideas, reflecting, applying and problem-solving.” Given that learning is regarded as the central issue of the twenty-first century, the most powerful, engaging, rewarding and enjoyable aspects of our personal and collective experiences need to be backed up with the services of highly qualified teachers (Tomlinson 2004, p. 47). A highly qualified teacher gets most students to use the higher cognitive level processes that the more academic students use spontaneously. Teaching works by getting students to engage in learning-related activity that helps them attain the particular objectives set for the unit or course, such as theorizing, generating new ideas, reflecting, applying and problem-solving.

METHODOLOGY

Study Design

The study design of a research is the logical sequence that connects the empirical data to a study’s initial research questions/hypotheses and ultimately to its conclusions (Yin, 1989, p. 29). As a result, I included specific research design features from the broad empirical and theoretical perspectives to assess the quality and verify my 1997 study. This is a study that integrates both quantitative and qualitative estimation design, aimed at emulating or improving best available practice process and performance to aid improvement in quality of secondary education in Nigeria. Precisely, this is a survey research aimed at describing specific characteristics of the target population which involves the gathering of limited data from the population. I employed this method to indicate the prevailing condition of secondary school education in Nigeria.

However, in method literature there is not one single right way or the most appropriate way to analyze qualitative or quantitative data. Analysis implies and indeed, requires a principal choice (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996, pp. 2-4). The qualitative approach employed in this study is an inquiry process aimed at understanding and interpreting the phenomenon in this study from the point of building a complex, holistic picture, formed with words and reporting the detailed views of the respondents (Creswell, 1994, 1998; Maxwell, 1996). While the quantitative approach employed is based on ranking and measuring variables, and measuring them with numbers, and analyzing them with statistical procedures in order to determine their strength to other variables being tested (Creswell, 1994 p. 1). I decided to apply both methods of data analyses procedures because, since research is a truth-finding construct aimed at verifying and authenticating phenomena, evidence abound that the use of a combination of both quantitative and qualitative research methods results in a stronger validity to outcomes (Olusegun, 2001, pp. 3-10).

Analytical Techniques

Interviews and questionnaires are the main sources through which data were gathered. The data from interviews are intended to give information on the qualitative analysis section, while the data from questionnaires were intended to provide information on the quantitative section. The interview was a face-to-face interpersonal role situation in which I ask a question and the respondent responds by answering the question. The next step that helped me generate themes from the data was the categorization strategy through the use of coding method. The coding method helped me to crack the data and reorganize them into categories that facilitated the comparison of data within and between the categories. The next step was the conceptualisation strategy, at this stage; I linked the data; that is, identifying the relationships among the different elements of my data. This effort enabled me look for relationships that connect statements and events within this context into a coherent whole (see Maxwell, 1996, p

77; Yin, 1994). Whereas, the questionnaires were analyzed using SPSS version 13.0 of a computer program: Mean Point and ANOVA. Means were used to determine the strength of some variables to the weakness of others. While ANOVA analysis set at $p. < 0.05$ significance level was used to determine the relationship between the respondents' background information and test to what degree differences exist between the attitudes of the respondents' background information towards qualities of good teaching. The independent variables are: Gender, Age, Status, Subject Taught, Qualifications and Length of Service. The data were computed and the result shows that no significant difference existed in the respondents' opinion ($F = 1.45, Df = 299, p > 0.45$).

The face and the content validity of the research instruments were ascertained with the assistance of my faculty colleagues who are experienced in the construction of research instruments. As a result of their inputs some of the items were either removed or restructured. The reliability of the questionnaire was established using Cronback Alpha reliability estimate of (0.91), which shows a strong reliability of the research instrument.

Sampling and Data Sources

The data for this study was collected from Rivers State of Nigeria. Ten (10) schools were selected out of the 146 public secondary schools in the State. The names of all the public schools in the State were written on pieces of papers folded and selected randomly (Pole & Lampard, 2002, p. 293). The ten (10) schools selected are different in sizes and types. They may be considered representatives of the different schools. A total number of three hundred and fifty (350) questionnaires were distributed to respondents in the selected schools, out of which three hundred and fifteen (315) were returned, from which three hundred (300) questionnaires were selected. Fifteen questionnaires were not used because of errors in the ways they were filled out by the respondents. The respondents for this study are 10 (3.3%) principals, 270 (90.0%) teachers, and 20 (6.7%) supervisors of education from the Post Primary Schools Board and the Ministry of Education. All the respondents were randomly selected. Out of the total number of respondents 91 (30.3%) were social sciences subject teachers, 136 (45.4%) were science subject teachers, while 73 (24.3%) were humanities subject teachers. At the same time, 126 (42.0%) were female whereas 174 (58.0%) were male. See table 1 for the rest of the respondents' background information.

Table 1: Frequency table for respondent' background information

Respondents background information		Frequency	%
Gender	Female	126	42.0
	Male	174	58.0
Age	20-29	49	16.3
	30-39	110	36.7
	40-49	120	40.0
	50-above	21	7.0
Status	Principals	20	6.7
	Teachers	270	90.0
	Supervisors	10	3.3
Subject taught	Social sciences	91	30.3
	Sciences	136	45.4
	Humanities	73	24.3
Qualification	Academic qualification.	76	25.3

Length of service	Professional qualification.	224	74.7
	1-5	50	16.7
	6-10	100	33.3
	11-15	68	22.7
	16-above	82	27.3

RESULTS

Descriptive Analysis of Respondents' Perceptions of the Qualities of Good Teaching

This analysis is based on the items of the research questionnaire on the qualities of good teaching. The respondents were asked to check the options as it applies to them and not what they think it should be. The respondents were asked to rank the variables in order of the most important qualities 1, 2, 3..... to the least important, such as 9, 10, and 11. Based on their responses, the variables with the least mean were taken as the most important qualities because of the value attached to them. Thus, the results revealed that knowledge base of subject matter ($M= 2.03$), teaching skill (presentation, explanation etc.) ($M= 3.57$), and subsequently, general knowledge base ($M= 4.19$) were regarded as the most important factors. Whereas, interaction between students and teachers ($M= 8.60$) and approachableness ($M= 9.14$) were regarded as the least important qualities (see tables 2).

Table 2: Respondents' Perception of Qualities of Good Teaching.

Variables	Rank	Mean	Std. Dev.
Knowledge base of subject matter.	1	2,03	1,81
Teaching skill (presentation, explanation etc.).	2	3,57	2,19
General knowledge base.	3	4,19	2,84
Enthusiasm and devotion to teaching.	4	4,91	2,50
Organization (effective learning environment).	5	5,86	2,46
Appropriate utilization of teaching tools.	6	6,06	2,35
Demonstration of teaching situation	7	6,62	2,30
Ability to motivate students.	8	7,28	2,47
Ability to assess and evaluate students' and their work.	9	8,15	2,54
Interaction between students and teachers.	10	8,60	2,17
Approachableness.	11	9,14	2,65

On the part of the interview conducted, the respondents were simply asked to use their background and experience to explain in their own terms what the qualities of good teaching are? The questions were aimed to obtain their perceptions towards what they perceive to be the determinants of qualities of good teaching. Table 3 shows that the fifteen respondents interviewed defined quality teaching in terms of teaching skills and knowledge base of subject matter, instructional processes that are carried out by highly qualified teachers, creating effective learning environment and evaluation of students, and teaching that brings low drop out rate among students. They further defined quality teaching as teaching that creates rapport between teachers and students, teaching that is within the curriculum context, the effective use

of teaching innovations and new teaching methods, effective time and classroom management; effective use of problem-solving methods, teaching that are result-oriented; changes in most of the things about students and teaching that stimulates students to learn. The above facets were regarded as the best qualities of good teaching and these explanations scored 5 and 4 respectively in table 3. These findings are in agreement with the findings from the studies conducted by Bajah (1976a, 1976b), Firestone and Pennel (1993), Perry (1994), Ololube (1997, 2004), Pillai (2001), Pratte and Rury (1991) and Stoll and Fink (1996). Other findings on quality teaching scored 3 in the evaluation of teaching efficiency such as teaching that produces students that can affect changes; teaching aimed at all round development of student's minds, meeting the aspiration of current situations, creating a good environment for the students to learn. These gave length support to the works of; Arene (1990); Beare, Caldwell and Millikan (1989) and Owens (2004).

Table 3: Respondents' interview perception of the qualities of good teaching

S/ n	Teachers	No	Principals	No	Supervisors	No
1	Teaching that creates rapport between teachers and students	4	Teaching that makes teachers to read constantly	2	Teaching that Produces students that can affect changes	3
2	Teaching that motivates students to study	4	The application of teaching rudiments	3	Teaching that is within the curriculum	4
3	To have teaching skills and knowledge base of subject matter	5	The effective use of teaching innovations and new teaching methods	4	Teaching aimed at all round development of students minds	3
4	Meeting the aspiration of current situations	3	Teaching that stimulates students to learn	4	Creating effective environment and evaluation of students	5
5	Effective time and classroom management; effective use of problem-solving methods	4	Instructional process that is carried out by highly qualified teachers	5	Teaching that brings low drop out rate among students	5
6	Good teaching is being equipped to effectively carry on in teaching	2	Creating a good environment for the students to learn	3	Teaching that are result-oriented; changes in most of the things about students	4

DISCUSSION

This paper has advocated some competency-based assessment of teachers, the factors that determine teachers' reliability method which ought to underpin teachers' development, selection and recruitment procedures. The unstable and the much changed context in which teachers now operate as a result of the changes in methods of educational growth and so on, demand a range of professional skills and competencies this is likely in some situations to be far from the skills and competencies that emerge from non-professional teachers. The original motivation for this paper was the generation of such qualities that will make teachers to do their job effectively, the aim of the questions on items tested was to obtain information from respondents on quality teaching. These questions were meant to obtain teachers' sensitivity on the improvement of quality teaching for school effectiveness. The responses offer a broad range of strategies for achieving the climate and support needed for effective teaching in our schools especially detailing out the special roles of school teachers in fostering high quality teaching such as knowledge bases of the subject matter and teaching skill. McCormick (1996), MacBeath and Mortimore (2001), Sanders *et al.* (1990, 2000), and Perry (1994) studies are part of a first-class example of the results of the findings in this study. Their emphasis is on the need to use quality teachers in the teaching and learning processes.

Instructional efficacy and several researches on pedagogies and learning have demonstrated that the significance of effective teaching stems from diverse factors. However, the most important, researchers argued, is that of teachers being able to instruct students to the extent that they attain academic excellence. For example, Fraser *et al.* (1987) argued that it is the quantity of instruction that is improved by effectively applying the pedagogical principles that matters which particularly leads to improvement in students' outcomes. Furthermore, research (Volkwein, 1997) has confirmed that students consider the classroom experiences to be extremely important in their study process. This very significant factor that has been most neglected in Nigeria's educational system is on the area of student-teacher relationships. This facet ranked 10th in table 3 with a ($M = 8.60, SD = 2.18$). The relationship between students and teachers do not matter much to us, what matters is that teaching and learning should just carry on. The lack of such teacher-student relationship fails to help most students coordinate their studies. Teachers in general should ensure that they make useful coordination of learning, because making teaching and learning sufficiently important is for the good of our educational system. The relationship between students and teachers is an aspect of schooling that neither teachers nor students can afford to ignore. As Austin, Dwyer and Freebody (2003, p. 28) observed, the construction of a classroom relationship is a visible consequence of the structuring of classroom learning.

In effect, this paper has investigated part of the uncertainty that has been looming educational effectiveness and quality improvement from the perspective of a developing country, with focus on qualities of good teaching. In general, the sorts of items elicited from respondents do not seem to show dissimilarities with the other findings from the West. The implication of this study lies in the fact that the instructional process and perception of teachers from the viewpoint of a developing nation has been brought to examination. The uncovered issues presented in this work may serve as a tool in focusing the attention of education planners and policy makers to see the critical issues in similar setting and endeavor to implement the 'best practices' learned. This perhaps will also make the job of the stakeholders and practitioners easier by adopting or adapting strategic education development in the West. Broadly, the findings of this study adds to the body of knowledge in pedagogical theory in the sense that the factor that creates uncertainty in teachers' instructional processes effectiveness that has little academic publication in Nigeria has been studied and presented.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

It could be concluded that quality teaching is the pillars to educational development because of the kind of services it offers. The calibers of personnel do determine the outcome and growth of the system it operates. During and after the course of teachers' training, professional teachers are informed of their roles in the discharge of their duties, how best to achieve the aims and objectives of an educational system. This is in line with Odor (1995) when he emphasized that no matter the availability of educational infrastructure in the school system they mean nothing if there are no competent teachers. To ensure the successful operation of the school system, professionally qualified teachers are needed for schools to perform effectively. Therefore, there is a great need for a sound specialized background and professional training. In the same stratum, Fafunwa (1991) affirmed that an unqualified teacher who delivers poor quality teaching is an enemy to the students' progress and a danger to the child's up bringing. For a non-professional to handle any subject in school is a very delicate problem because it concerns the intellectual, moral and emotional phases of the child's life.

Finally, quality teaching constitutes one of the major facets in educational production. Educational production is the determination of schooling quality as reflected in students' educational performance (Bishop & WöBmann 2001). However, we should recognize also that there are some other major problems affecting the school system in Nigeria, which are determinants of school effectiveness and quality improvement, such as, poor management and control of teacher education programs, teacher training and retraining, the selection and organization of curriculum content, curriculum implementation and evaluation, the development, distribution and use of teaching materials, and the relevance of the curriculum to the needs of society. Not surprisingly, there is also a problem with poor motivation and discipline (Adeniyi 2001, pp. 7-11). Yet, it is argued that the parameters, which influence the level of schooling quality achieved in the model of educational production are mainly driven by the institutional setting in the schooling system (Austin, Dwyer & Freebody 2003; Creemers 1994c).

The limitations in this study are: First are the number of schools that could be included in the study, and the generalizability of the findings. Although I attempted to improve the generalizability of the results because it would be difficult to conclude from responses from the selected respondents from only ten schools, the Ministry of Education and the Post Primary Schools Board in Rivers State out of the thousands in Nigeria. This may not represent the opinions of other teachers in other parts of the country. However, additional investigation in this direction will be in order. A new perspective on qualities of good teaching, which do not only take into consideration the exclusive features of the variables used in this study, is recommended.

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The Cost Of Private University Education And Its Implications On Access By Different Socio-Economic Groups In Kenya.

Anyona J. K, Gravenir F. Q, Mse G. S.

Email: godshedd@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT

Under the conditions of privatization, knowledge production and transmission are being organized in new ways. Increased demand for higher education has led to significant changes in educational financing. Public universities that had virtual monopoly in dissemination of knowledge for decades are now encountering new challenges such as increased demand for higher education, financing, new technologies, a new breed of students with higher expectations and the increasing tendency to rely upon the market to encourage greater responsibilities to higher education systems. Privatization in recent years has seen a dramatic, albeit uneven and still contested, shift in burden of higher education costs from being borne predominantly by government or taxpayers to being shared with parents and students. This study, therefore, surveyed the implications of the cost of private university education on access by different socio-economic groups in Kenya. The study tried to find out implications of the current financing mechanisms, existing financial aid programmes and alternative financing strategies that could enhance access to private university education in Kenya. Three private universities (United States International University, Daystar University and University of East Africa Baraton (UEAB) were studied. Data was collected through questionnaires, interviews and documentary analysis. Respondents included registrars and the students. The data obtained was analyzed quantitatively using frequency distributions and percentages.

The results from the three private universities surveyed showed that private universities in Kenya source funds from tuition and fees, auxiliary enterprises, donations, grants, gifts and endowments, student loans, bursaries and scholarships and alumni. Using the parents' occupation and highest levels of education, the student's socio-economic background could be described as high. It is hoped that the findings of this study will aid in the restructuring of private universities with a view to accommodating all categories of socio-economic groups and the formulating of proper policies that will allow access to higher education by all social economic groups in Kenya.

INTRODUCTION

The university as an institution of higher learning is charged with the responsibility of creating human resources able to confront a globalized world dominated by the "intensity of knowledge" and international competitiveness (Gorostiaga, 1999). To fulfill this mission, universities must deal with the reality, which frames not only the social setting but also university life itself. A rethinking is therefore required into the kind of development the university and education in general might bring about (Gorostiaga, *ibid.*, 1999).

Higher education may be provided by either the public or private sector (Gonzales, 1997). Private education sector evolves when the state either cannot or chooses not to expand the public sector, even in the face of rapidly growing demand for higher education (Geiger, 1986). Often, private Universities are supported directly through tuition fees paid by students' families, but in some cases, both families and government contribute funds in a cost sharing approach.

Private university education is one of the most dynamic and fast growing segments of post-secondary education at the turn of 21st century (Altbach, 1999). This is because governments are not able to cope with the increasing demand for higher education given organizational and financial limitations faced by them (Gonzalez, 1997).

University education in Kenya began in 1963 with just 571 students enrolled in Nairobi University College (Weidman, 1995). Since then, the system has undergone some commendable expansion, and by 1998, there were a total of six public universities and 17 private universities with varying degrees of recognition in the country. With the establishment of the 8-4-4 system of education, university education takes a minimum period of four years to complete a Bachelors Degree. In addition to universities and their constituent campuses, higher education in Kenya also includes polytechnics, institutes of science and technology and diploma level teacher training colleges.

Despite the large budgetary allocations to the education sector, the Ministry of Education is constantly faced with budgetary constraints in meeting the ever-increasing demand for tertiary education (Lee, 1998). Therefore to overcome this problem, the government has been forced to seek alternative means of financing university education. It is in this context that the privatization of higher education has emerged as one of the possible solutions.

The emerging image of the university as a business corporation rather than a public, social institution has many far-reaching implications. First and foremost, the objectives of higher education that are expressed as the production and transmission of knowledge as a social good are being replaced by an emphasis on the production of knowledge as a market good, a salable commodity (Buchbinder, 1993).

Privatization means a reduction in the level of state provision, and a corresponding encouragement of the expansion of private provision (Walford, 1990). It means increasing the role of parents in the financing of education that is the transfer of activities, assets and responsibilities from government/public institutions to private individuals or agencies. Education privatization can be undertaken by either: increasing the number and proportion of private providers; raising the amount of funds contributed directly by users of the services and lowering the amount contributed through subsidies; or enhancing parental monitoring of institutions over government rules and regulations. Privatization may be caused by among other factors, global economic and social change. Globalization, linked with market liberalization, has both pressured and encouraged the government to seek more efficient, flexible and expansive education systems. Privatization may be one response to these changes. Another factor that explains some of this growth in privatization is the encouragement by world aid agencies, such as World Bank through giving assistance to some institutions to provide private education (Belfield and Levin, 2002).

Advocates of private university education argue that private university education enjoys autonomy from government control and provides direct accountability to the concerned parties. Privatization implies more resources to the education sector, more efficient use of these resources and more flexibility in education delivery. Private university education also places much emphasis on client choices: religious, cultural and political pluralism; adaptability, experimentation and innovation; and excellence and efficiency through competition (Levy, 1996). However, critics of private education argue that lack of public control and co-ordination may be detrimental to national goals such as national unity and manpower planning for the national economy. One of the educational services is the net increase in inequality, that is when private education becomes expensive and only the privileged can afford the choices available. Inequalities in education can be dichotomized into gender, social, economic, and regional level inequalities.

According to the Government of Kenya Master Plan on education (1997-2010), the strategies, which should be adopted in improving on the current status and thus raising the efficiency and

effectiveness of university education, include, among others to increase access to and participation in higher education. This can be achieved through developing cheaper university education expansion plans, which involve encouraging private universities to expand in order to enable poor households to participate (Republic of Kenya, 1998). It is with this danger of private university education –“the increase in socio-economic inequality”- in mind that this study was undertaken.

Financing Higher Education in Africa

Some African universities are beginning to take privatization initiatives. The University of Zambia and Eduardo Mondlane University in Mozambique have generated significant benefits in enhanced capacity, information and income by establishing internet nodes linked to local electronic networks, which sell subscriptions to non-university business, organizations and individuals (Saint, 1992). Ghana and Nsukka have been fairly successful in their initiatives. Ghana indicated a profit of 9% on a total income of US dollars 22,700 in 1991 (Saint, *ibid.*, 1992). Its policies and methods of operating the consulting center are very popular and might prove to be useful model for other universities. Nsukka claimed a profit of US \$ 35,238 through its consulting activities over the period 1982 - 1991, on a turnover of US\$ 90,398, with the consultants receiving 50% of the profits and the university and department receiving 30% and 20% respectively.

While the survey reports have concluded that the resulting activities are minimal and mostly concentrated in a few fields, on closer observation, a contrary picture emerges, with a fairly large number of faculty involved in consulting and not adhering to any specific rules or criteria (Jamil, 1992). Hence, while consultancy can prove to be beneficial, it also needs to follow certain guidelines.

The Image of Private Universities in Kenya

Kenya is among the three African countries with the highest number of Private Universities (PUs). Out of the total 30 private colleges and Universities in seven sub-saharan countries in 1991, 11 were in Kenya while 9 were in the Democratic Republic of Congo (Useem, 1999). The 1991 picture was an improvement of the 1980s which was characterized by private colleges mainly of a religious orientation. Today Kenya has 17 PUs at different stages of recognition by the Commission for Higher Education (CHE), the national government organ charged with accrediting and regulating universities in Kenya. Of these, six are fully chartered, six have registration certificates and five operate under a letter of interim authority. The chartered private universities are: University of Eastern Africa Baraton, Catholic University of Eastern Africa, Daystar University, Scott Theological College, United States International University-Africa (USIU-A) and Africa Nazarene University. East Africa School of Theology, Kenya Highlands Bible College, Nairobi Evangelical Graduate School of Theology, Pan Africa Christian College, Nairobi International School of Theology and St. Paul's United Theological College constitute registered private universities awaiting a charter. The universities operating under letter of interim authority are Kenya Methodist University, Kabarak University, Keriri Women University of Science and Technology, Aga Khan University and Strathmore University.

Though Kenya has made remarkable strides in promoting PUs, the general public image of these institutions is yet to change very much. This image is further encouraged by a dearth of information on PUs. Until the mid-1980s, Kenyans associated high quality education with public universities. This association was founded on the fact that public universities were normally given first priority in the recruitment of students. Thus PUs were left with the remaining less

qualified ones. Also, PUs recruit their students mainly on the basis of ability to pay. Merit considerations have only recently become a critical factor in admissions criteria of some of these universities. Further most PUs, are religious oriented institutions. A consequence of this orientation is that their courses have a rather narrow focus. That is why in his analysis of the education sector in Kenya in 1993, Mwiria (1996) argued that PUs were less well-organized, they offered courses from a rather narrow focus, were poorly staffed, offered education considered of poor quality and admitted students most notably on their ability to pay fees rather than academic excellence. To him, PUs were both part of the solution and the problem in Kenya's higher educational sector. By 1998, the image of PUs had improved even in the eyes of Mwiria and Ngome (1998). PUs, they argued, have 'relatively more sufficient management and planning activities' and they employ relatively smaller numbers of staff, have decentralized administration and 'use merit considerations as the main criteria for employment'. These authors further argued that 'to some limited extent, some private universities offer better quality education than their relatively bigger and less resourced public institutions. This is because they are able to employ some of the most qualified academicians' (Mwiria and Ngome, 1998). Clearly, these authors express a new confidence in PUs hardly evident before. Their arguments occupy one end of the spectrum of perceptions that endorse the initiatives in PU development. On the other end of the spectrum are those who still consider PUs to be mediocre options for those who did not qualify to join public universities. This position is reinforced by the legacy that private involvement in higher education only exacerbates inequality in access to education. Each of these positions contains a grain of truth (Mwiria and Ngome, *ibid.*, 1998).

Financing of Higher Education in Kenya

Like most African countries, higher education in Kenya was historically free, with the government supporting both tuition and living allowances for students (Wiedman, 1995). The rationale for free higher education in Kenya was based among other things, on the country's desire to create highly trained manpower that could replace the departing colonial administrators. In turn, graduates were bound to work in the public sector for a minimum of three years. Among other factors, economic difficulties and the high increase in population coupled with rising oil prices of 1973 (Cutter, 2001) changed this trend, first resulting in the reduction of the recurrent budget allocated to higher education, and then, paving the way for the introduction of user charges in higher education in Kenya.

It is generally believed that while the investment the government has made in the higher education sector seems to be quite commendable, the trend will not continue (Ogot and Wiedman, 1993). The ever increasing pressure for structural adjustment by the World Bank and other donors aside, the tertiary education sector itself is being questioned internally for its limited capacity to provide access to most eligible applicants. Worse, this limited participation in higher education is compounded by gender (for example, in 1995 only 37 percent of students enrolled in higher education were women), socio-economic status, and regional disparities (Weidman, *ibid.*, 1995). Therefore the situation in private universities needs a systematic study.

The performance of higher education in Kenya is contestable both on equity and efficiency grounds. Austerity in the public budget for higher education, coupled with the poor performance of the sector in promoting access and equity, has led the government of Kenya to intensify the mechanisms for cost-sharing and user charges in higher education. It has also led to introduction of private universities in that, as more students began to pay for their cost of education, they began to choose between institutions. This way, private universities began to attract students from public universities as some went abroad (Kariuki, 1999).

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Study Design

Descriptive survey design was adopted in conducting this study because it is concerned with describing, recording, analyzing and reporting conditions that exist or existed (Kothari, 1985). Survey methods are widely used to obtain data useful in evaluating present practices and in providing basis for decisions (Engelhart, 1972).

Study Population

At the time of the study, there were 17 private universities in Kenya which were at different degrees of recognition which included: Private chartered universities (University of Eastern Africa, Baraton (UEAB), Catholic University of Eastern Africa (CUEA), Daystar, Scott, United States International University (USIU), and African Nazarene); Registered Universities (East Africa School of Theology, Kenya Highlands Bible College, Nairobi Evangelical Graduate School of Theology, Nairobi International School of Theology, Pan African Christian College and St. Paul's United Theological College); and those operating under letters of interim authority (Kenyan Methodist University, Kabarak University, Kiriri Women's University of Science and Technology, Aga Khan University, and Strathmore University). Each of these universities had one registrar in charge of admissions.

Sample and Sampling Procedures

Using purposive sampling, three universities were chosen for the study. These included United States International University (USIU) whose total enrolment was 2300 students, Daystar University whose total enrolment was 1728 and Baraton University whose total enrolment was 1200 students since they were the largest and most established private universities. Among the sampled universities, two of them (USIU and Daystar University) are located in the urban center while one (Baraton University) is located in an agriculturally rich rural area. Ten percent (10%) of the student population in the three private universities was chosen as respondents in this study. Therefore, a sample size of 230 students from USIU, 173 students from Daystar University and 120 students from Baraton University participated in this study. The registrars in charge of admissions in these three private universities were chosen as respondents in this study too.

The registrars in these private universities were chosen to be respondents because of a number of reasons. These officers are well exposed to all matters relating to financing of the universities, especially the sources of funds, the ability of students to pay fees and also have sufficient knowledge about the income generating mechanisms in their universities. For these reasons, the registrars were considered most resourceful persons for the purposes of this study. Students in these private universities were also chosen because they were the 'fees payers' and were directly affected by the funding mechanisms of the universities. They were believed to have first hand information on their socio-economic backgrounds. These students were also resourceful in obtaining a range of details concerning the management styles of the existing aid programs, problems affecting them and possible solutions.

Research Instruments.

Since the study was a survey, research instruments were those that enabled the researcher obtain as accurate information as possible. Therefore questionnaires for students and registrars, interview schedules for registrars and documentary analysis were used. Questionnaires generated information on economic backgrounds and strategies in place to increase access to

these universities. Interviews provided information on broad themes of financing, equity, access efficiency and policy frameworks. Documentary analysis mainly generated information on enrolment and students finances.

Piloting

Before the actual study, pre testing of the instruments was carried out in one of the private universities, Catholic University of Eastern Africa (CUEA). The purpose of piloting was to enhance content validity of the instruments by refining vague statements in the questionnaires and the interview schedules or removing them altogether. One registrar (Admissions) was interviewed and also responded to the questionnaire for the registrars. A total of eighty-six (71.7%) of the pilot population responded to the students' questionnaire. After administering the instruments, the necessary adjustments were made to ensure their validity and reliability. The University that was used for piloting was excluded from the main study.

Data Collection Procedure

Information from the university administration (Registrar Admissions) was obtained by directly administering the questionnaires and cross-checking them with the information filled in the questionnaires, and that obtained through interview. Information from students was obtained by administering the questionnaires on the student sample.

Method of Data Analysis

The data collected was analyzed using descriptive statistics. Items from the questionnaires and interview schedules were arranged and grouped according to individual research questions. Responses that were received from the questionnaires and interview schedules were organized tabulated and analyzed using simple frequencies and percentages. The information from the interview schedules was analyzed qualitatively by sorting out data into various themes according to the objectives of the study. The information obtained was discussed and this assisted in the drawing of conclusions and recommendations.

STUDY FINDINGS

Universities' Income Sources

The results from the three private universities surveyed showed that private universities in Kenya source funds from tuition and fees, auxiliary enterprises, donations, grants, gifts and endowments, student loans bursaries and scholarships and alumni. Tuition income was the primary source of finance in all the three private universities. This source accounted for eighty-nine, seventy-four and forty percent of the total university income for USIU, Daystar and Baraton Universities respectively in the years 1995/1996 to 2000/2001. Put together, the average contribution of tuition income in the total annual income of the universities was 68%. Depending on tuition income by private universities in Kenya was however not at variance with the practice elsewhere in the world. On average, virtually all private universities worldwide are tuition driven with an average 60% of total university income being from tuition (Taylor and Massy, 1996).

In terms of adequacy, tuition income was sufficient to support operations in USIU and not for Baraton and Daystar. Auxiliary enterprises were well developed in all the three universities. This reflected innovation in the generation of finance for private higher education in Kenya.

Although students in private universities benefited from student loans the adequacy of the loans awarded was heavily decried. It was noteworthy that all the three universities involved in this study, except USIU, relied on donations, gifts and endowments, which constituted an important source of finance, especially for their capital development. Donations make the largest portion of income for development expenditure at Daystar University. The University raises donations based on drawn investment plans. By the year 2000 the University had spent over five hundred and fifty million shillings (Kshs. 550,000,000) for capital development of a new (Athi River) campus, all sourced from donations and gifts. Daystar aggressively solicits for donations and gifts and has even established two companies based in Canada (Daystar-Canada) and the United States (Daystar-USA) specifically for this purpose. Baraton University received donations from Seventh Day Adventist Church (SDA) towards the construction of a library, student center and an auditorium. Individual contributions from organizations included Support Africa, which contributed towards the equipping of the health center, and USAID, which contributed towards the construction of the technology building.

Alumni were an emerging funding source with great potential for revenue diversification in private universities. However, the potential of this source is currently limited by the fact that these institutions were young and therefore had relatively young alumni.

Access to University Education in Terms of Overall Enrolment

Information obtained from university administration (Registrars) showed that all the three private universities adopted both national and international standards to recruit their students. Other than the national and international standards, Baraton and Daystar Universities, based admission on their religious backgrounds, used religion as criterion to limit access to the institutions. Generally, enrolments in the three private universities have been growing over the years with the highest enrolment being registered by USIU. Between 1999 and 2003, growth in enrolment was highest in USIU (47%) followed closely by Daystar (42%) and (24%) for Baraton. Explanations given through interviews with the registrars and students in the three private universities for the continued enrolment indicated that growth was due to fewer disturbances which occasion delays as is the case in public universities, availability of conducive learning environment due to availability of good social amenities and learning resources and provision of marketable courses.

In terms of average student enrolment per discipline, Business Studies, which comprises subjects like Accounting, Commerce, Business Administration and Management, Marketing and Economics attracted the majority of the students (50% on average) in all universities where they were offered except Baraton. According to the university administrators this demand is attributed to the fact that Business Studies subjects are market- oriented. The fairly low demand for Business Studies at Baraton was due to the competition faced by the equally marketable Science and Technology courses (Industrial Technology and Nursing)

Social – economic Background

Using the parents' highest levels of education as an indicator, the students' socio-economic backgrounds could be described as high. This is based on the fact that most parents had college education and above. This information was collaborated by the fact that only well-to-do parents can pay the fees charged. The parents' highest level of education was used as an indicator of socio-economic status based on the fact that education is a human development indicator that is crucial in determining the quality of life (GOK, 1998). Most welfare monitoring surveys in the

country and studies on higher education use highest level of education as an indicator of socio-economic status (GOK 1998, Achola 1997). The majority of the parents who have children in private universities have college education and above. This indicates relatively high socio-economic status. This information is corroborated by views from the registrars and students. The study also revealed that the majority of the mothers who have children in these institutions have college diploma and above. This explains the presence of female students in these institutions as a benefit accruing from educating female students

Financial Aid Programmes

Financial aid to students who cannot meet their educational financial requirements is an essential contribution towards achieving equity of access especially in private universities where the fees charged is quite high. The study revealed relatively high commitment to the promotion of equity of access by private universities through the allocation of funds to financial aid programmes including work-study, scholarships and tuition waivers. However, the financial aid programme should be beefed up with additional sponsorship sources, if it is to make a significant contribution in lessening the fee burden for example while the private universities require at least Kshs. 40,000 per quarter, students can only raise a maximum of Kshs. 15,000 from the work-study programme. This translates to only 27% of the tuition fees charged. Currently the criteria used in selecting needy students raise too much emphasis on academic excellence while it should concentrate on financial needs of the students.

RECOMMENDATIONS

There is need for private universities to further diversify their revenue sources especially if they are to achieve their twin goals of mounting attractive programmes at affordable costs and widening the student financial aid facilities available or introducing them where they do not exist. Though tuition fee, as their main source of income was stable and dependable, further increases on tuition to generate more money that could finance capital expenditure in addition to recurrent capital expenditure may have implications on equity of access.

Alternative sources of finance include enhancement of entrepreneurship at institutional level through leasing of assets, selling faculty expertise and carrying out contracted research. Additional assistance could be gained from the government, foundations and other donors. Other options include setting up a higher education sector loan or grant for capital development, a soft loan facility for both public and private universities and diversification agenda. These would easily provide the much needed pool of resources. The loan or grant could be national or regional but long term.

Further on finances, the Higher Education Loans Board should consider pegging student loan ceilings to fees charged to enhance affordability of private university education in Kenya. Lastly, there is need to spearhead the formation of a consortium of private universities in Kenya or in the region as a way of pulling or sourcing development capital.

The government should also encourage and continue supporting the establishment of private universities by providing the necessary infrastructure such as roads, electricity, offering tax rebates, or land grants as a way of encouraging private university education ventures in areas and courses that are important to Kenya's higher education goals and which cannot be left to market forces.

While it is a matter of fact that private universities have done better than their public counterparts in ensuring gender balance, a general impression is that private university education in Kenya is beyond the reach of the average citizen. Institutions therefore need to come up with innovative ways to widen access to their programmes especially among the poor and the marginalized. Several measures could be put in place to address this issue. The financial aid instruments are currently a paltry fraction of the tuition and related costs.

Worse still, one is only eligible for assistance upon enrollment. In this regard, therefore, the institutions need to widen their students aid programmes and also effectively target those who deserve. This could be one way in which they can meet what has popularly become known in the business world as corporate social responsibility. Secondly, and as a general rule, the institutions should diversify their courses by introducing more science and technology courses that could attract qualified applicants who are not able to enroll in these private universities by reason of restrictive curricula. In order to effectively do this, the institutions should effect equity monitoring and evaluation systems to assess and improve equity and access.

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

This study on the cost of private university education and its implications on access examined the flexibility of recruitment and admission, and the general access to private university education by different socio-economic groups in Kenya. The study looked at support systems and strategies that enhance equity of access to private university education. While the private university education had a wide international representation, the majority of the students were Kenyans. The study identified financial aid to students from poor socio-economic backgrounds. It was found that private universities sourced funds from tuition fees, auxiliary enterprises, donations, grants, gifts and endowments, student loans, scholarships and bursaries, alumni and bank loans.

A survey method was adopted to generate data. The approaches used included documentary analysis, questionnaires, oral interviews and observations. The data was analyzed descriptively.

All the three private universities depended largely on tuition fees especially for their recurrent expenditure, which included salaries and allocations to books and journals. The cost of private university education (tuition) ranged between Kshs.80,000.00 and Kshs.217,000.00 depending on the programme undertaken. When transportation and accommodation expenses are factored in, the cost would be much higher. The study revealed that private university education in Kenya is beyond the reach of the average citizen. The institutions therefore need to come up with ways to widen access to their programmes especially for the poor and marginalized. They need to widen their student aid programmes and also effectively target those who deserve.

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Effects of a Training Programme in Cooperative Learning on Pre-service Teachers' Classroom Practice in Social Studies

J.O. Ajiboye, PhD

E-Mail: ajiboyejo@mopipi.ub.bw

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Foluke M. Omoshin, (Ph.D)

ABSTRACT

The Nigerian classrooms have been described as highly teacher-dominated, and learners are mostly seen as mere recipient of information while the teacher assumes the role of a dispenser of knowledge. Very recently, attempts are being made to try out some learner-centered methods. This paper therefore presents a report of a study on effects of a training programme in Cooperative Learning (CL) on pre-service teacher's classroom practice in Social Studies. The study determined the effects of a training programme in CL on pre-service teacher's classroom practice in Social Studies in relation to their counterparts who were not so exposed. The study also investigated the moderating effects of pre-service teachers' academic ability on their classroom practice. The study adopted a pre-test, post-test, control group, quasi-experimental design using a 2 x 2 factorial matrix. Four hypotheses were tested at .05 alpha levels. Thirty eight pre-service teachers from a College of education in Lagos State and seven hundred and sixty secondary school pupils from eight selected secondary schools in Agege/Alimosho Local Education District of Lagos state were involved in the study. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyze the data collected. The results showed that there was a significant difference in the pre-service teachers' knowledge of CL before and after exposure to the training programme in CL. Also there was a significant main effect of treatment on teachers' classroom practice. Furthermore, there was a significant interaction effect of treatment and teachers' academic ability on the dependent measure. Based on the findings, it was recommended among other things that teacher training programmes in Nigeria should include CL considerations in order to equip pre-service teachers towards effective use of the method in future while teachers already on the field should also be trained through organized workshops, seminars etc. to expose them to the essential features of CL in order to improve their classroom practice.

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

The ultimate goal of Social Studies is to nurture in learners good citizenship with full emphasis on the development of those rational habits of mind and humane attitude that should enable individual learner to make informed decisions about personal and social matters (Akinlaye, Mansaray & Ajiboye, 1996). The present trend is towards making Social Studies content relevant to the growth and development of both the individual and the society. The development of skills required for this, calls for adequate training of teachers which should include the introduction of appropriate methods of teaching the subject.

Osho (1986) remarked that the selection and proper usage of the appropriate and most effective method or methods is very crucial to the success of a lesson because a teaching method determines whether a teacher is communicating with his pupils or not and consequently the extent and depth to which the lesson objectives would be attained. Ogunyemi (1999) opined that the ultimate goal of teacher preparation in Social Studies is to translate the broad objectives of Social Studies into concrete and achievable tasks under a teaching-learning situation. Salia - Bao (2000) observed that, in most developing countries, Nigeria inclusive the lecture method is still popular in spite of its obvious and serious limitations. Even though, it is the easiest, cheapest and most familiar, she described it as the most abused and least effective in many respects.

It is evident that falling back on mere routine traditions of school teaching is no longer satisfactory in a technologically advancing world, there is therefore the need for more dynamic and pragmatic teaching strategies to reflect the ever- changing nature of our society (Osho, 1986). Ajelabi (1998) opined that there is the need to introduce, adopt and adapt the latest instructional techniques which are capable of sustaining the interest of the learners.

There have been concerted efforts at getting learners more actively involved in the learning process itself. Such efforts have resulted in the development of variety of Cooperative Learning methods in the United States, Canada, Israel and parts of Europe. Cooperative Learning is a generic term for various small groups in which pupils work together to maximize their own and each other's learning. According to Johnson and Johnson (1999), cooperative learning occurs when learners work together to accomplish shared learning goals. A number of studies have been conducted on CL methods outside Nigeria and the findings have shown the usefulness of CL method over and above other methods. However, concerns have been expressed about the successful use of the basic components of CL in real classroom practice.

Since we teach the way we have been taught, Veenman, et al (2002) therefore concluded that for teachers to acquire CL strategies, these must first be in-cooperated into teacher education programmes and demonstrated. They observed that little research has been conducted in the use of CL by pre-service teachers. Even though the findings of these studies among others showed that pre-service teachers appreciated the instructional value of pre-service experiences with CL, it is necessary to find out whether pre-service teachers exposed to and instructed in CL method are able to implement CL in their classrooms.

The present study therefore addresses the question of whether after a training programme in CL; pre-service teachers are subsequently able to implement the CL method in their classes during their teaching practice. Before now, the Social Studies classroom has been characterized by teacher-dominated lecture method and this has not produced effective teaching and learning of Social Studies. This study therefore determined the effects of a pre-service teachers' exposure to a training programme in Co-operative Learning on their

classroom practices in relation to their counterparts who were not so exposed. Also the moderating effect of pre-service teachers' academic ability on their classroom practice was determined. One major defect identified by Johnson, Johnson and Stanne(2000) in cooperative learning researches is the fact that effort should be made to conduct a highly controlled study to distill the effects of the CL from methodological effect. This is essentially why this study used two groups of pre-service teachers; one group was given training in the use of CL while the other group was not so exposed to CL. The two groups took part in a teaching practice exercise organized by the college when the classroom experiment took place. The two groups later participated in the experimental teaching for a period of ten weeks.

Hypotheses

The following null hypothesis were tested in the study at $P < 0.5$ level of significance.

HO₁: There is no significant difference in the pre-and post-training knowledge of CL scores of pre-service teachers exposed to the CL training programme.

HO₂: There is no significant main effect of treatment on pre-service teachers' classroom practice.

HO₃: There is no significant main effect of academic ability on pre-service teachers' classroom practice

HO₄: There is no significant interaction effect of treatment and academic ability on pre-service teachers' classroom practice.

METHOD

The study adopted a pre-test, post – test, control group quasi-experimental design. Thirty eight pre-service teachers from one college of education in Lagos State and 760 pupils from 8 selected secondary schools in Agege/Alimosho Local Education Districts in the state were involved in the study.

Three instruments were developed, validated and used in the study

- i) A course outline on CL as a stimulus instrument
- ii) Questionnaire on pre-service teachers' CL - related knowledge and attitudes.
- iii) Classroom observation schedule for pre-service teachers' classroom practice.

The research was carried out in two phases. The first was the training phase. This phase involved the implementation of a training programme on CL for pre-service teachers and research assistants. This phase consisted essentially of the following sessions – pre-test, focus group discussions (FGDs), orientation, demonstration, practice, feed back and post-test. The pre-service teachers were given training on the essential elements of co-operative learning. These elements include; grouping of pupils, cooperating skills- communication, sharing, task and reward, etc. The FGDs involved those pre-service teachers in sharing what they know about CL and asking them probing questions on CL activities. The second was the classroom practice phase. This phase involved mainly classroom activities and classroom observation. Here expert lessons on CL were given to the subjects. They were taught some lessons on some topics in Social Studies using the CL method, by an expert invited from a university who is reputed to have been working on CL methods for a few years. After a few lessons, the subjects were asked to also demonstrate what they have learnt in practice.

Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyze the data collected. ANCOVA was applied to determine the main and interaction effects of the variables under study while MCA was also employed to describe the performance of the groups and t-test was used to determine how significant the differences were between the pre-test and post-test scores of the groups. The mean was also used to find out the magnitude of performance

FINDINGS

Table 1: T – test comparison of mean knowledge scores of Pre-service teachers before and after the training programme in CL

Achievement	N	X	SD	df	t	Significance
Pre-test	19	17.11	2.05	18	6.69	.000*
Post test	19	23.00	3.16			

Significant at $P < .05$

Table 1 shows that there was a marginal gain in the scores of the subjects in the post-test over their pre-test scores. The difference observed was also found to be highly significant using t-test comparison. This clearly demonstrates that the training given to the pre-service teachers on CL really had a good impact on their knowledge of the methods of CL. Here is a category of people who were, so to say, ignorant of the methods of CL prior to this experiment.

Table II: T –test comparison of classroom practices of pre-service teachers exposed to CL training programme and those not exposed. not so

Group	N	X	SD	df	t	Significance
CL Group	19	53.84	8.80	36	16.34	.000*
Conventional Lecture method Group.	19	16.84	4.34			

Significant at $P < .05$

Table II shows that subjects exposed to the CL training programme had a higher mean score than those who were not so exposed and the difference was found to be highly significant.

Table III: Summary of ANCOVA of the effect of treatment and teachers' academic ability on classroom practice

Sources of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Significance
Covariates	108.164	1	106.164	1.624	.203
Main effects	1881.867	2	940.933	14.126	.000*
Treatment	1236.616	1	1236.616	18.566	.000*
Teachers' Academic Ability	645.251	1	645.251	9.687	.002*
2 - way interactions	629.162	1	629.162	9.446	.002*

Treatment teachers' Academic Ability X					
Model	2619.193	4	654.798	9.831	.000*
Residual	50288.80	755	66.608		
Total	52907.99	759	69.708		

Significant at $P < .05$

Table III shows a significant main effect of academic ability on the variations in classroom practices of pre-service teachers ($F_{1,755} = 9, 687; P < .05$)

Hence, hypothesis 3 is hereby rejected. However, to find out the various scores of the different groups, the MCA was carried out and the summary is presented in table IV.

Table IV: Multiple Classification Analysis of Teachers' Classroom

Practice based on Treatment and Academic Ability

Grand Mean = 65.00

Variables + Category	n	Unadjusted Deviation	ETA	Adjusted factors for and Covariates Deviation	Beta
TREATMENT					
Experimental Group	380	1.2921	.155	1.2761	.153
Control Group	380	1.2921		-1.2761	
ACADEMIC ABILITY					
Low	360	-.9640	.110	-.9715	.110
High	400	.8676		.8743	
Multiple R					.194
R ²					.038

Table IV shows that the low academic ability teachers had an adjusted post-test mean score of 64.03 while the high academic ability teachers had an adjusted post-mean score of 65.87. From Table III, it is also observed that there is a significant interaction effect of treatment and teachers' academic ability on the variations in their classroom practices ($F_{1,755} = 9.446 P < 0.05$) Table V below shows the performance of the two groups.

Table V: T-test comparison of Classroom Practice Scores of Pupils taught by High and Low Academic Ability Teachers in the Experimental & Control Groups.

Classroom Practice	N	X	SD	df	t	Significance
Experimental Low	180	68.21				
Group High	200	64.58	9.38	378	4.06	.000*
Control Group Low	180	63.73	7.20			
High	200	63.70	7.92	378	.042	.966

Significant at $P < .05$

From table V, it is observed that in the experimental group, teachers with low academic ability performed better than their counterparts in the control group. Also, the high academic ability teachers performed better than their control group counterparts.

DISCUSSION

One of the major concerns of this study was whether there would be any difference in the knowledge of pre-service teachers who were exposed to the CL training programme, before and after the exposure. Table I indicated a gain in the subjects' knowledge score in the post-test over their pre-test scores. The results therefore indicated an improvement in the pre-service teachers' knowledge of CL after the training programme, thereby corroborating the findings of Ledford & Warren (1997) which shows that after a variety of CL activities pre-service teachers had developed an increased awareness of the essential elements of CL. This shows that the CL training programme was effective in improving the pre-service teachers' knowledge of CL. The importance of such training in positively affecting future teachers' knowledge of CL is therefore obvious and should be encouraged. Ordinarily, these are a set of future teachers that have never heard of Cooperative Learning methods, not until they were exposed to this experiment. The traditional teacher-centered, lecture method is still in vogue in most tertiary institutions in Nigeria. Efforts at introducing more participatory approaches are still at the rudimentary levels. Consequently, when these pre-service teachers graduate from such institutions they also carry-on the business as usual, i.e. using of lecture methods.

The study also determined the effects of pre-service teachers' exposure to a training programme in CL on their classroom practice in relation to their counterparts who were not so exposed. Findings from the study revealed that pre-service teachers' exposed to the CL training programme engaged students more actively in the class than those not so exposed. This indicates that the CL training programme was effective in improving the classroom practice of the pre-service teachers. As indicated in literature, teachers generally teach the way they were taught. It was not therefore surprising to see this category of teachers that were taught the rudiments of CL going to the classrooms to reflect the same.

The study among other things investigated the moderating effect of pre-service teachers' academic ability on their classroom practice. Table IV, revealed that high academic ability

teachers scored significantly higher than their low academic ability counterparts. The study therefore revealed that the pre-service teacher's classroom practice was also based on their academic abilities. It shows that the high academic ability teachers were able to engage pupils more actively in the classroom than the low academic ability teachers. The result therefore seems to indicate that teachers of a higher academic ability are likely to engage students more actively in the classroom than those of a lower academic ability.

This study also sought to determine the interaction effect of treatment and academic ability on pre-service teachers' classroom practice. The results showed that there was a significant interaction effect of treatment and academic ability on pre-service teachers' classroom practice. In other words, there is mutual working of these variables to produce a joint effect on the dependent measure. With the low academic ability teachers, those in the classroom group performed better than those in the conventional lecture method group. The same thing happened with the high academic ability teachers.

It was however discovered that the difference in the classroom practices of high academic ability teachers of the two groups was not much unlike the very wide gap in the performance of the two groups where the low academic ability teachers were involved. This implies that high academic ability teachers will perform better in the classroom irrespective of whatever method was adopted. This is a pointer to the quality of students to be admitted into the colleges of education.

CONCLUSION

This study serves as part of efforts by educators in Nigeria to abandon the long-standing practices of persistent teacher - dominated instructional strategies. Major findings of the study include the fact that training in CL has positively affected pre-service teachers' knowledge of CL and that teachers exposed to the training programme had better classroom practices than those not so exposed.

This shows that attention should be paid to the training of teachers in the essential features of CL. Thereby providing useful information to curriculum planners as regards the teacher-training programmes in Nigeria.

It was therefore recommended among others that the teacher-training programmes in Nigeria should include CL so as to equip pre-service teachers to effectively use the method in the future while teachers already on the field should also be trained through organized workshops, seminars, e.t.c. to expose them to the essential features of CL in order to improve their classroom practice.

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NEPAD and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs): The Challenges of African Governments

"African Renaissance: Opportunities and Challenges"

From the eighteen poorest countries in the world, seventeen are from Africa (Awake, 2005: 5)

By

Alain A. NDEDI YENEPAD

Email: yenepad@aim.com

Abstract

During the last half century, the economic performance of the developing world has been far from uniform. Developing countries were polarized into those that made great progress in catching up and those that were mired in stagnation. Many African countries belong to the second group. Therefore, what could be done in order to help these countries to move from the stagnation to sustainable growth and development? During the last five decades, many attempts were explored and undertaken without any remarkable results. In 2000, 189 states endorsed the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), covering an array of targets with aspirations of reaching these goals by 2015. One year after, the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD), a vision and strategic framework for Africa's renewal, was launched as a driver for African countries to move from long severe poverty, and consequently to reach the MDGs (NEPAD Dialogue, 2005). In this paper, we would like to share how economic development and cooperation among African countries, and actions developed within the NEPAD strategic framework are key elements in achieving the MDGs. The first part of the paper analyses the vision behind NEPAD programme, with emphasis on the role that various African governments must play. The second part discusses the importance of trade and economic cooperation for a sustainable development in the continent, with emphasis once again on the roles of various African governments.

INTRODUCTION

Since 1999, the World Bank has promoted cutting poverty as the ultimate goal of development and required all developing countries to draft a Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) as its principal tool to reach the above. In September 2000, during the United Nations Millennium Summit, the Millennium Development Goals, a set of numerical social goals to be achieved by 2015, were launched in this regard. In the African context, a programme for social economic development was initiated the following year. The next section analyses this concept by paving the way for options necessary for a sustainable development for the African continent.

The New Partnership For Africa's Development (Nepad): Vision And Objectives.

The New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) is a vision and strategic framework for Africa's renewal. The NEPAD strategic framework document arises from a mandate given to the five initiating Heads of State (Algeria, Egypt, Nigeria, Senegal and South Africa) and by the African Union (AU) to develop an integrated socio-economic development framework for Africa.

The prepared plans focused on challenges that are common to most African countries; looking at projects that were critical to sub-regional and continental economic integration, policy reforms and increased investment in priority sectors and indicative flagship projects. Above all, they highlighted the need for country and regional ownership and leadership (NEPAD, 2004).

What is the need for the NEPAD programme?

NEPAD is designed to address the current development challenges facing the African continent. Issues such as escalating poverty levels, underdevelopment and the continued marginalisation of Africa needed a new radical intervention, spearheaded by African leaders, to develop a New vision that would guarantee Africa's renewal.

NEPAD primary objectives

According to NEPAD (2004), the primary objectives of NEPAD are amongst others:

- To eradicate poverty;
- To place African countries, both individually and collectively, on path of sustainable growth and development;
- To halt marginalization of Africa in the globalization process and enhance its full and beneficial integration into the global economy; and
- To accelerate the empowerment of women.

NEPAD key principles

According to NEPAD (2004), NEPAD is based on a number of key principles, namely:

- Good governance as a basic requirement for peace, security and sustainable political and socio-economic development;
- African ownership and leadership as well as broad and deep participation by all sectors of society;
- Anchoring the development of Africa on its resources and the resourcefulness of its people;
- Partnership between and among African peoples;
- Acceleration of regional and continental integration;
- Building the competitiveness of African countries and the continent;
- Forging a new international partnership that changes the unequal relationship between Africa and the developed world; and
- Ensuring that all partnerships with NEPAD are linked to the MDGs and other agreed development goals and targets.

TRADE: DRIVER FOR AFRICA'S DEVELOPMENT

State of the Africa's marginalization on trade

The marginalization of African countries in the international trade regime has been identified as a critical challenge for the continent. Africa's plight has worsened since the start of the 1980s

(referred to Africa lost decade) and the trends that have subsequently prevailed have included the inability of African states to diversify their exports as well as their dependence on agricultural products (NEPAD Dialogue, 2005: 12). The marginalization of these states has impacted upon their respective abilities to attain adequate levels of growth and development. According to figures from the World Trade Organization (WTO) World Trade Overview (2004), African countries account for merely 2.4 percent of exports and 2.3 percent of imports. Although the volume of Africa's trade has increased since the 1990s, the continent's share of trade has declined. In the WTO's (2004) ranking of leading importers and exporters, few African states featured. Of the 50 leading exporters, only three African states market share is small in comparison to both developed and developing states (WTO, 2004)

Growth driven by trade and investment: the way forward

According to Ohno (2002), for each African country, income trends and industrial shifts in GDP and exports can track the long-term growth path and the achievement of industrialization. The most important feature of African countries is that growth could be attained through the existence of economic interaction among them, but also through "market-friendly" policies and good governance. African countries, one by one, in order to realise economic growth, must participate in the dynamic production network created by private firms. Linked by trade and investment, a system of international division of labor with clear order and structure must exist. Under this system, industrialization will proceed through geographic widening on one hand, and structural deepening within each country on the other. In order to achieve all this, the different African countries must play a key role. The next paragraph addresses this important issue (Ohno, 2002).

The Roles Of Government

To actively respond to the challenges from regional and global networks as described above, African countries must undergo a great transformation. While the main players of economic development are undoubtedly private firms, simply deregulating and opening up the private sector does not generate sufficient impetus for growth if countries are saddled with underdeveloped markets, lack of human resources and technology, and low productivity, elements characterizing African economies. In order to kick start an economy trapped in the vicious circle of low income, savings, and technology, the role of government is crucial as an external agent imparting order and direction to the national economy.

African governments must take certain actions after economic integration in the region in order to get out the state of economic stagnation. Isolation leads to economic backwardness and that can destabilize the country. *Good governance* must be redefined in the African context. Components of good governance such as macroeconomic stability, structural reform, administrative efficiency and transparency, social participation, do not necessarily coincide with the conditions needed for growth driven by trade and investment in the African continent. Good governance is not enough.

Another most basic task for African countries is to establish a *stable political regime and social unity*, which are the preconditions of economic development (Ohno, 2002). The NEPAD programme encourages countries to undertake policies of good governance and democracy; the Peer Review Mechanism is the main illustration. Countries like Ghana and Rwanda have been reviewed, and several are willing to undertake the process. However, there is no real legal instrument or enforcement for countries, which are not in the right track regarding issues of good governance.

Once social stability and policy consistency are attained as basic conditions, African governments have three important roles to play namely the creation of a market economy, the promotion of international integration, and finally, the mitigation of the negative aspects of growth; elements developed in the next paragraphs.

The creation of a market economy

In poorest or transition countries, the case of many African countries, domestic markets are extremely primitive. In terms of productivity, organization and human resources of these countries have not reached a stage where mere deregulation can unleash the latent market power to sound development (Ishikawa, 1990). Each country must constantly and flexibly mix market and government according to its development stage. Naturally, this mixing must be done by the government. To create a market economy, rules and frameworks such as laws, deregulation, privatization and free trade are important but not enough. The government must also pay attention to these initiatives and take actions on the real sector concerns, such as trade, investment, technology and industrial structure. Finally, competitiveness must be given pragmatic support and concrete contents. (Ohno, 2002)

The promotion of international integration

African countries cannot afford to isolate themselves from the rest of the world, especially during this era of globalization. However, opening its doors to international companies without any mechanism of regulation can definitively destabilize national economies. Integration initiates growth through internal dynamism. The timing, sequencing and scope of opening up to foreign organizations are extremely important. African countries must design an integration timetable, which gives sufficient incentive for enterprise efforts while avoiding crisis and social instability (Ohno, 2002). A delicate balance between liberalization and protection is required.

Mitigation of the negative aspects of growth

Many African countries experience issues of poverty and income gaps due to the legacy of “political independence” of the 1960s. Apart from these problems, economic growth creates a set of new problems. Foremost among them is the emergence of income gaps among individuals, regions, and tribes. This situation is experienced in Equatorial Guinea, Mozambique among others. Environmental pollution, issues associated with urbanization such as rural-urban migration, traffic congestion and housing shortages, and social evils such as crime, corruption, drugs and prostitution, tend to arise. Economic growth is sustainable only when the opportunities and fruits of growth are perceived to be shared equitably by the standards of that society (Ohno, 2002). African countries must opt for economic policies aimed at ensuring a real balance of the mentioned elements.

SUMMARY

In the current development strategy featuring MDGs and PRSP, the close relationship between economic growth and poverty reduction is known and recognized by scholars in the field of development economy.

At the operational level, budgeting and aid modality discussions over pro-poor policies are quite active, while the implementation of growth strategies which are concrete, feasible and specific to individual poor countries are just beginning. Countries like South Africa are already on track.

Despite the frequent protestations of social movements in South Africa, she is on track. However, these policies need to be accelerated. The gap between the rich and the poor is widening day after day, with all its consequences. If nothing is done, violence, crime, prostitution, and other social vices will continue to increase.

To realise growth through trade and investment, the criteria for *good governance* develops earlier must be redefined and be applied in the African context. Democracy in Africa does not have the same meaning in Europe; and good governance in South Africa is quite different from good governance in Zimbabwe. We must understand the fact and accept it. However, political stability and social integration are absolutely necessary. Beyond that, there must be a strongly committed and economically literate leadership, a technocrat group to support it, an administrative mechanism to execute economic policies consistently, and popular support for growth-oriented development strategy. *African countries have never lacked technocrats and scholars in various fields; however, Africa lacks political will. We need political will in this regard.*

At the level of individual country policies, African countries must undergo the process of transferring of industrial research and policies formulation from developed countries. This method was used by East Asian countries during the 1960s by Japan, and more recently during the 1980s by the likes of South Korea, Singapore, and Taiwan. African countries can use the same mechanism. We have many scholars working for big corporations in America and Europe. They could be used in this regard. The “domestication” of foreign skills needs only to be adapted to the African context.

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