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特集

Thinking about Future Education Research
in 21st Century African Society

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Japan Society for Africa Educational Research

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Introduction: Thinking about Future Education Research in 21st Century African Society

Takuya Baba
(Hiroshima University)

The former body of this society, Japan Society for Africa Educational Research, started as Africa Educational Research Forum in 2008, and has become the academic society in 2019 by commemorating its 10th anniversary. In this sense, the society is quite young. It is, however, engaged with such a new activity of connecting with African universities by taking advantage of its youth. This special issue has its youth in its base, and invites a few promising researchers to discuss future issues in educational research in Africa, in order to shed a light on an uncertain future, which is deepened by COVID-19 in early 2020. The original idea of this special issue has come from the special session, which was held in Miyazaki in October 2019.

At the beginning of the last issue of the journal, I wrote as follows:

“... the Japan Society for Africa Educational Research is the research body, which aims both at understanding Africa as an area and deepening our insights of the education in the area. Therefore, the inquiry is related to local language, history, culture, politics, economics, and so on in that area. In fact, we can find culture within a school and a classroom. And also, it is possible to see the educational activity in a larger context such as culture outside school and spread across the whole society.” (Baba, p.3)

In other words, it is important to interpret the educational phenomenon – teaching-learning – in relation to society.

First of all, I would like to look back at some characteristics of today's society. Globalization moves steadily with human history in the sense that human ancestors move from the African continent to every corner of the globe and that Magellan has found the globe-round navigation route. However, the worldwide prevalence of the COVID-19 pandemic, which has not yet been controlled as of December 2020, may be slowing down the trend of globalization, which was thought to be irreversible. A lot of messages and information are repeated in the mass media, about the number of newly infected patients and restriction of movement. People's mind is getting introvert and reflective.

Of course, recently it is possible to make a temporary personality movement in the cyberspace using the innovative TV conference system without physical movement. Looking at and experiencing TV conference in many scenes, we expect that this is not a temporary phenomenon but certainly will be expected to play a central role in coming days. In other words, while the movement of people, goods and money beyond national borders, which symbolize globalization, is restricted, new technology and methods are being created and the meaning and significance of global and globalization will be reexamined.

In the process of this reexamination, it is important to consider the “vulnerability of globalization” and the meaning of international cooperation at the wake of this pandemic. The immediate and short-term problem solving is sought at the local level. Thus, each government has created various measures and implemented them in anyhow top-down authoritarian approach. However, it is still far away from the complete settlement due to the second or third waves of this pandemic even in many developed countries. Such impact may prolong especially in developing countries, the possible continuous prevalence of this disease is pointed out. If such prevalence remains in the most economically and technologically fragile parts of the world, it will possibly cause a second or a third wave of this pandemic. In summary, the fundamental and long-term problem solving through reexamination should be sought at a global level.

Although what is written in the above may be magnified by the pandemic phenomenon, it has been there in terms of international cooperation and interests of individual countries, and the relationship between developed and developing countries. From such perspectives, it looks like a discussion regarding endogenous development, which occurred in the UN organization in the 1970s and the 80s. It has argued various ideas and opinions regarding the philosophy, economics,

politics and culture such as the contributions to the UN organizations, the existence of unique cultures within globalization, basic rights within the Charter of the United Nations.

The difference between this time and the previous time is the existence of high technology. Of course, there is an advanced technology of medicine for suppressing this pandemic. Furthermore, the biggest characteristic is that the information of each country is being shared simultaneously, due to the advancement of information technology. The occurrence of the problem may be slightly different from place to place, but sharing the information can be done almost simultaneously. It may be impossible to grasp all the emitted information, but this simultaneousness of this information is a very unique characteristic of globalization.

Secondly, what is important as the interest of this academic society is the situation of current Africa. Africa has been historically called Dark Continent and Burden to International Aids Efforts. However, in the 21st century, it sometimes calls attention from the world as it will be still growing in terms of population by the mid of the century. Some people may call the 21st century as the century of Africa. The African Union has released its future image in 2015, and proposed “African approach”, which mobilizes human and natural resources and pay attention to unique experience and culture.

Agenda 2063: The Africa we want (African Union Commission, 2015)

a. The People’s ownership and mobilisation: The continuous mobilisation of the African people and the diaspora in various formations, effective communication and outreach, and sustained and inclusive social dialogue on Agenda 2063.

g. Ownership of the African narrative and brand to ensure that it reflects continental realities, aspirations and priorities and Africa’s position in the world.

h. African approach to development and transformation, learning from the diverse, unique and shared experiences and best practices of various countries and regions as a basis of forging an African approach to transformation.

As reviewing the current situation and African context, this special session has advancement of technology, simultaneousness of information, International cooperation, endogenous development as a background of discussion, it is engaged with grasping the educational phenomenon in Africa as holistically as possible within the limited capacity. Thus three young and promising researchers are invited to discuss three perspectives such as the relation between society and education, teacher education and curriculum, and to shed light on emerging issues in coming days. Two African researchers (Democratic Republic of the Congo and Republic of Malawi) are as well invited to give comments on the three presenters and make their own points on the same merging issues.

Below is the list of presenters and commentators:

[Presenters]

Miku Ogawa, Osaka University: “Extension of the ‘timepass’ period from the perspective of social change in Africa”

Jun Kawaguchi, University of Tsukuba: “Teacher’s continuous professional development in the African context”

Satoshi Kusaka, Hiroshima University: “The role of curriculum studies in the spread of competency-based educational reforms in African countries”

[Commentators]

Bernard Yungu Loleka, Kobe University

Leah Anganire Burnett Msukwa, Hiroshima University

Extension of the “Timepass” Period from the Perspective of Social Change in Africa

Miku Ogawa
(Osaka University)

Abstract

African countries are impacted by various social changes within a global context. This article mainly focuses on educated youths' unemployment by using the term “timepass,” which describes the period in which youths search for jobs after completing their education. There are two reasons for the “timepass” period of youth unemployment: (1) rapid educational expansion, which arises despite (2) insufficient opportunities in the labor market. Using a case study conducted in rural Kenya from 2014 to 2019, this article also reviews the following as factors in terms of determining the “timepass” period: (1) availability of cash, (2) utilizing diversified tertiary education, and (3) access to information. As international organizations have emphasized the importance of education, it is important to build quality schools. However, it is also necessary to understand the opportunities available after education as a part of the education system, as people pursue basic education with the consideration of the opportunities available after their education. Taking this perspective into account while conducting academic research is also essential to respond to social changes in Africa.

Keywords: “timepass”, educated unemployment, decent work, Dore

1. Introduction

“Timepass” as a concept originated from a qualitative research conducted by Craig Jeffery in Northern India in 2004 and 2005 (Jeffery 2010a). He focused on unemployment among educated young men from the lower-middle class and rural areas, analyzing the “waiting” period after they completed their education and were looking for decent work opportunities. These youngsters were in jobless status even with their high educational background due to the credential inflation in their country. They stated that they were “just passing time” by labelling it as “timepass” in Indian English. The word “timepass” often comes across as meaning of a negative period. However, Jeffery suggests that this is not an expression of social suffering but rather an opportunity to acquire skills, produce culture, and engage in collective political protests (Jeffery 2010a; Jeffery 2010b). The idea of “timepass,” which is caused by educated unemployment, can be seen not only in India but also in other countries that have experienced rapid educational expansion.

As discussed by Dore (1976), educated unemployment caused by credential inflation has occurred across the world. The “late development effect” which is suggested by Dore describes the effect of adopting systems at a later stage than other countries. In the context of education system, the late development effect was discussed based on a comparison between four countries: Britain, Japan, Sri Lanka, and Kenya. In this context, he found that the later a country starts its modernization, the more quickly the “diploma disease” takes place as one of the negative sides of the “late development effect”. In a society with “diploma disease,” the level of qualification required for any particular job tends to rise over time. This is because of an excess of jobseekers, who thus enter educated unemployment (Dore 1980). In his analysis, Kenya was identified as the country with the most serious “diploma disease.” Further, he mentioned that this “diploma disease” tended to be worse in the “classless” societies of Africa, because everyone can easily join the race for success, than in class societies (Dore 1976).

Rapid educational expansion is taking place in African countries. The study conducted by Jeffery focused on India, and similar situations regarding youths might be observed in the context of Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA). This article tries to understand “timepass” in an African context by looking at the impact of social changes. There are two reasons for the “timepass” period of youth unemployment: (1) rapid educational expansion, which arises despite (2) insufficient opportunities in the labor market. In this article, the author briefly summarizes the two main causes of “timepass” in the context of Africa. Following this, an example of African youth from the fieldwork conducted in Kenya is described. From this example, the last chapter discusses the factors that contribute to extending this “timepass” period, as well as the factors that contribute toward ending it.

2. Educational expansion

2.1. Overall situation of expanding primary, secondary, and tertiary education

“In Africa, a degree is only important when you don’t have it.” This is a phrase that I heard both during my fieldwork in Kenya and in a post on SNS in 2019. This phrasing implies that academic qualification seems to be significant before you get it, but you realize how inefficient it is in the labor market after you get it. This is the “credential inflation” discussed by Dore.

Educational opportunities, including opportunities for primary, secondary, and tertiary education, are rapidly expanding in SSA. The significant increase of enrollment in primary education has improved under the policies urged by international consensus for ensuring “Education for All” since 1990 and has further been promoted by the “Millennium Development Goals” since 2000s. The net enrolment rate (NER) in primary education in SSA increased from 53.3 percent in 1990 to 60.6 percent in 2000 and reached 79.0 percent in 2018 (UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) database; Figure 1)¹. Gross enrolment ratio (GER) has also increased, from 73.4 percent in 1990 to 93.0 percent in 2000 (UIS database). It then reached 98.4 percent in 2010 and has since remained relatively flat. The number of enrolments in primary education has also drastically increased, almost tripling from 60 million in 1990 to 168 million in 2018 (UIS database).

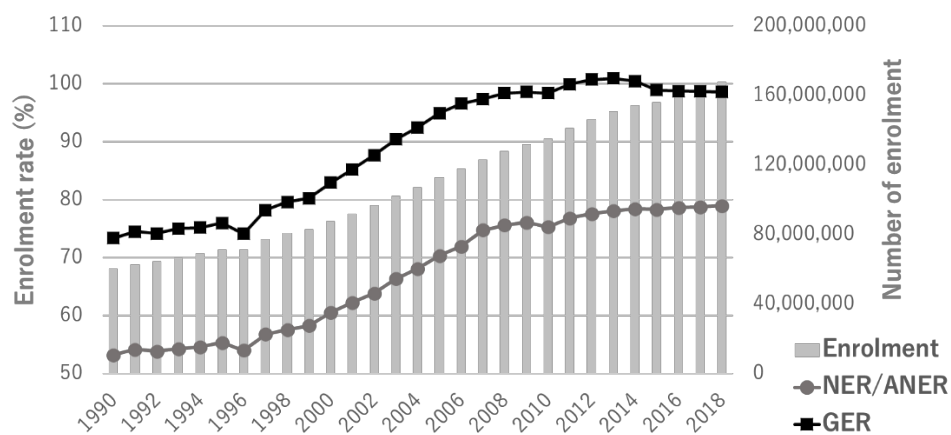


Figure 1. Expanding primary education in Africa (1990-2018)

Source: Created by the author based on the UIS database

*NER (1990-2006), AENR (2007-2018)

This rapid universalization of primary education has generated a new demand for secondary education. The necessity of investment toward secondary education has also been highlighted by criticizing situations wherein an enormous number of graduates of primary education have missed their spot in secondary education since around the 2000s (Verspoor 2008; Wanja 2014; Mingat et al. 2010; Fredriksen & Fossberg 2014). While this increase in the enrolment rate has not been as rapid as in primary education, it has nonetheless been gradually increasing. The UIS database shows that the NER in secondary education was estimated to be 18.7 percent in 1996² and then gradually increased, reaching 35.5 percent in 2018 (Figure 2). The GER has also increased steadily, from 22.6 percent in 1990 to 43.4 percent in 2018 (UIS database). While this increase has taken place at a moderate speed compared to primary education, the number of enrolments continues to change rapidly; this number in secondary education was 15 million in 1990 but increased to 60 million in 2018.

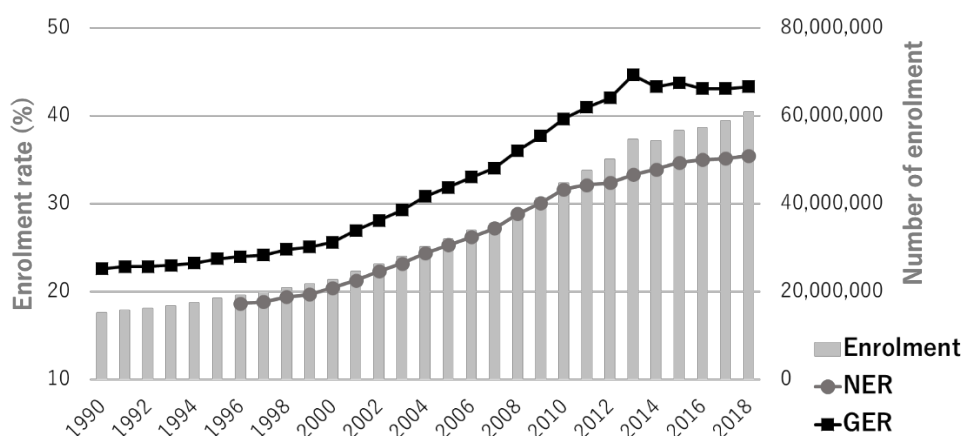


Figure 2. Expanding secondary education in Africa (1990-2018)

Source: created by the author based on the UIS database

Similarly, demand for tertiary education has also grown in response to the increase of secondary school graduates. The number of enrolments in tertiary education was estimated to be over 1 million in 1990. This figure doubled by 2000 to just under 3 million and has since rapidly increased to over 8 million in 2018 (UIS database). For example, in Ghana, the higher education sector has grown from just two institutions and less than 3,000 students in 1957 to 133 institutions and approximately 290,000 students by 2013 (Akplu 2016).

This massification of tertiary education is being realized by the increase in the number of institutions, courses, and campuses. For example, in Kenya, the number of vocational training centers was doubled in only four years (from 701 in 2014 to 1,502 in 2018; Kenya National Bureau Statistics (KNBS) 2019). The number of private technical and vocational colleges has also increased rapidly, from no such colleges in 2015 to 627 in 2017 (KNBS 2019). As the global education targets includes tertiary education³, paying closer attention to the tertiary education sector and the investment it has received would increase. However, the rapid massification of tertiary education has also been criticized, as it has had negative consequences on educational quality because the number of enrolled students has been in excess of capacity (Mohamedbhai 2014). This is very similar to the situation regarding secondary education in Africa, where the rapid expansion and increase in the number of students has led to criticism regarding its impact on the quality of education (Fredriksen & Fossberg 2014).

2.2. Decreased quality of education due to rapid expansion of tertiary education

The massification of tertiary education have been enhanced by its diversification and privatization. In the beginning, modern higher education in Africa had its roots in university colleges that were created by and affiliated with European universities during the colonial period (Mohamedbhai 2014). This education was mainly for the elite and was designed to help them become civil servants or teachers in secondary schools. These colleges and universities were in metropolitan areas and were geared toward the limited population of cities. However, in response to the excess demand for higher education, from the beginning of the 21st century, support and investment for higher education in SSA was renewed, and African universities began to undergo a revival (Mohamedbhai 2014). Higher education is regarded as one of the keys regarding the comprehensive development of Africa, and various governments have initiated several policies designed to establish quality education (Dei et al. 2019). However, as a result, higher education institutions have faced enormous social and political pressures to increase their enrolments, which has resulted in these institutions accommodating students well beyond their capacities in spite of critical shortages in human, physical, and financial resources (Mohamedbhai 2014; Tamrat 2017).

This massification of higher education has also been supported by private participation, which was especially promoted by the Structural Adjustment Programs of the 1980s (Tamrat 2017). There are also other factors, such as the increasing democratization of education, the collapse of the socialist ideology, the spread of free market economies, and the emergence of public-private-partnership thinking (Akplu 2016).

Private institutions have brought dynamism and competition into the sector and made higher education provision more

market-oriented than it was under public monopoly (Akplu 2016). As a result, the opportunities of higher education became increasingly diversified. For example, such institutions no longer cater only the traditional full-time students but admit students twice a year and offer flexible delivery schedules, such as weekend and evening classes, in order to target working professionals (Akplu 2016). These diversified opportunities have promoted an increase in the number of students. Thus, the overall pattern in SSA indicates that the number of private institutions is much higher than public institutions (Tamrat 2017). This is highlighted by the fact that the recorded number of private universities grew from 35 in 1969 to 972 in 2015 (Dei et al. 2019). Over the past quarter century, higher education in SSA has experienced significant increase in both the number of institutions and students who are enrolled.

The rapid expansion of private institutions, however, has raised concerns regarding the quality of higher education. In Africa, these institutions often lack basic resources, meaning they have to rely on faculty members who lack the requisite qualifications or part-time lecturers (Dei et al. 2019). There are a few for-profit and faith-based institutions that have met or exceeded expectations, while the majority of for-profit institutions are struggling to meet them (Akplu 2016). For example, this situation is crucial in Kenya. According to the news last year, more than 10,000 students enrolled for bachelor's degrees in 26 universities in 2019 will be getting "worthless" certificates, as these programs do not meet government regulations (Nyamai 2019). This case implies that rapid massification without strict regulations can lead to a loss of control in ensuring quality education.

2.3. The issue of graduates' unemployment

Further, this issue of rapid massification cannot be separated from that of graduate unemployment levels. This might be because of the spread of insufficient quality of education, which has resulted in the decreasing value of the degree, meaning graduates from tertiary education with worse quality degrees may face unemployment. On the other hand, the issue of unemployment is unavoidable in relation to demand in the labor market. The increase in the level of education among the population generates a parallel increase in the years of education required for high-income careers in the labor market. The reward for high academic qualifications as a way to create social mobility differs between when they are rare and when they are common.

This is, therefore, an issue of over-qualification. For example, a local media company in Kenya claimed that 26 percent of university graduates did not have a job, compared to 13 percent of graduates from middle-level colleges, as technical skills were more marketable (Michira 2018). Although a university graduate would generally earn more than a certificate holder, it is evident that there are more university graduates than the market requires (Michira 2018). This indicates that there is a risk of unemployment for graduates who have higher qualifications due to the inadequate development of the labor market.

While individuals' opportunity for education is increasing if the government expands the education sector budget sufficiently, the labor market is not as easy to change as it correlates to the social structure. As shown in Figure 3, wage and salaried workers among youth in Africa is extremely few numbers in comparison with other regions. Hence, the demand for the decent works that require high levels of knowledge and high skills cannot increase at the same speed as the expansion of educational opportunity. Thus, educated unemployed people in Africa need to continue to look for decent work opportunities to make their academic qualifications seem worthwhile under the sluggish growth in the labor market, which cannot correspond to the rapid expansion in education.

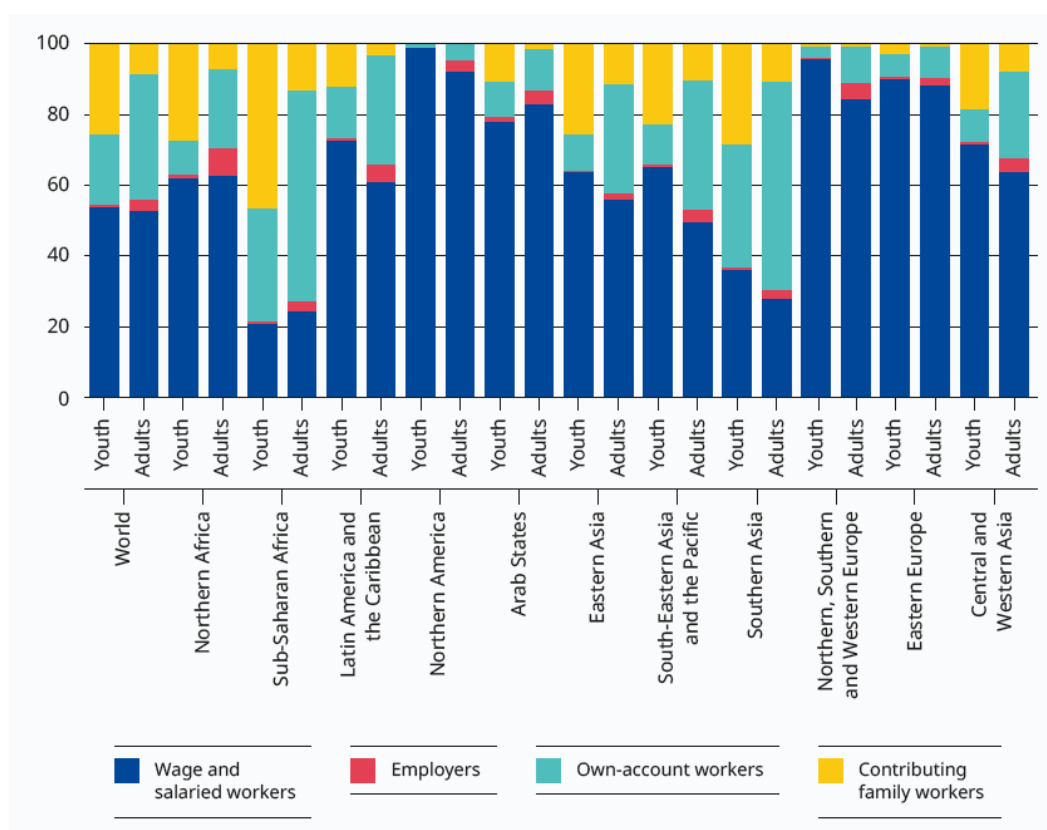


Figure 3. Employment status of youth and adult workers by regions, 2019 (%)

Source: ILO (2020, p.43)

3. Correspondence with labor market

As reviewed above, a considerable number of students have graduated annually from tertiary education institutions in Africa. However, the labor market has not been able to absorb the graduates of these universities because the economy remains primarily agrarian (Gebru 2017). This suggests that high graduate numbers will result in unemployment if more jobs are not created (Dei et al. 2019).

Population explosion may throw a society into a crisis in terms of satisfying basic human needs, such as housing, employment, and food (Miyamoto & Matsuda (eds.), 2018). In particular, the primary industry is directly affected by such an explosion. This chapter focuses on agriculture, which is one of the most common primary industries in Africa, and discusses the impact of current social changes on this sector. At present, although the population of Africa is not as high as in Asia, Africa has a much higher fertility rate (UN 2015). In particular, the fertility rates, in the period from 2010 to 2015, in Eastern, Middle, and Western Africa are almost 5.0 or even higher. By contrast, the fertility rate in Asia is below 3.0. Hence, Africa will continue to see an increase in its population. Such a large population increment creates pressure in both the education system and the labor market. This will be a huge challenge, especially given by this ‘Youthquake’ in SSA (Fredriksen & Fossberg 2014).

Agriculture has been the most common source of income in Africa. Approximately 60 to 80 percent of people in Africa are farmers (Sakagami 2017). The population increase therefore implies a decrease of land per person, leading to an increase in land prices. When inherited from parents, land is often divided among siblings and each portion is getting smaller. As a result, it is important for each family to buy new land to sustain existing living standards. Further, the income from farming is also unpredictable due to the frequent change in weather patterns and soil conditions, even in fertile areas (Saeteurn 2017). This is very different from the situation in Asia which has been alleviated by the “green revolution”⁴. While this revolution contributed to an increase in profits from agriculture in Asia, such a trend was not materialized in Africa due to its unstable climate. In fact, although the profit from the primary industry has increased in South Asia (SA), the recent growth seen in SSA has been sluggish (WB database).

This primary industry is therefore unstable and is no longer counted as a reliable form of work. Consequently, people have to look for alternative means of income, like setting up a side business or joining other industries. And as stated by Sawamura & Sifuna (2008), joining other industries is important for educated people because work related to the primary industry is regarded for uneducated people. They also mention that as these educated people have invested money in their education, they should find better jobs with higher remuneration. Social changes also encourage people to look for ways to earn money from other sources.

As a result of the decline of primary industry, people often move from rural areas to urban areas to increase their earnings. For example, Lagos, Nigeria, has seen a significant increase in population, with the number of people living in the city which has increased by 50 times within the last 60 years (from 0.3 million or less in 1950 to 17 million in 2010; Miyamoto & Matsuda (eds.) 2018).

Against population growth in urban areas in SSA, the recent growth in secondary industry in those areas has been inconsistent. An increase was seen in profits from the manufacturing sector between the 1970s to the 2000s, but a similar increase has not been observed after this period (WB database; Figure 4). Further, the ratio of manufacturing in GDP is consistently decreasing in SSA, while it is comparatively steady in SA (WB database).

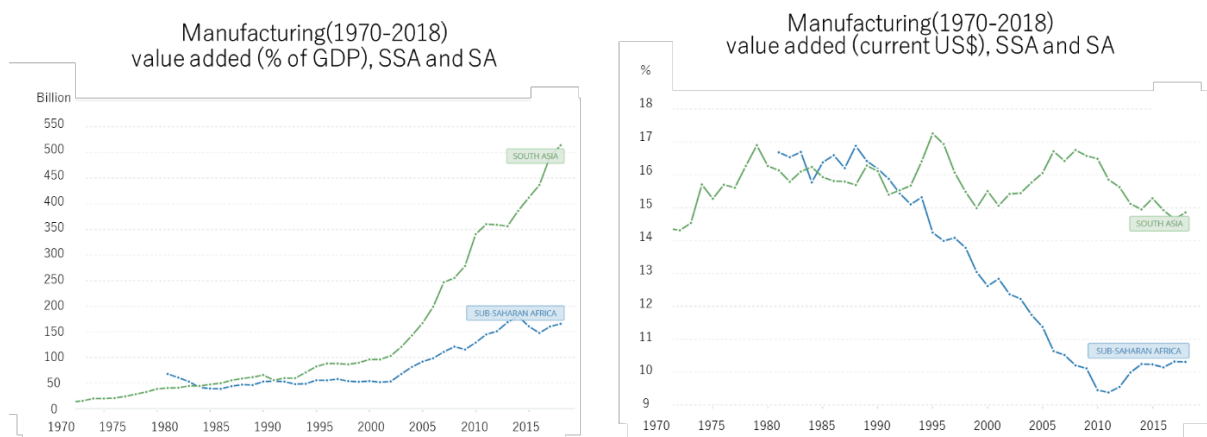


Figure 4. Comparison of the development of manufacturing between SSA and SA

Source: World Bank database

The slow growth of secondary industry in SSA can be attributed to the introduction of trade-liberalization policies and the opening of market between the 1980s and 1990s. The import of industrial products, such as second-hand and cheap new imports, had a negative impact on the manufacturing industry (Miyamoto & Matsuda (eds.) 2018). For example, in Ghana, textile and clothing employment declined by 80 percent from 1975 to 2000 (Kermeliotis & Curnow 2013). Though there are exceptional countries that were able to develop their manufacturing sectors, such as Zimbabwe and South Africa, this was partly as a result of the fact that these countries were recovering from long-term economic sanctions (Miyamoto & Matsuda (eds.) 2018). Several other countries, such as Ivory Coast, Kenya, and Madagascar, also achieved relatively high levels of development in this sector. However, in most cases, these countries relied heavily on foreign-affiliated companies, meaning they have the potential to be easily destabilized by the impact of policy changes in other countries. For example, in Madagascar, the number of workers in the clothing industry halved in the space of a year due to reforms in USA's tax system (Fukunishi 2016; Miyamoto & Matsuda (eds.) 2018). Although several attempts have been made in recent years to ban second-hand clothes in order to protect their local textile industries, such as in Rwanda, Tanzania, and Uganda, USA opposed such protections and placed pressures on these countries. As reviewed, the development of secondary industry in SSA confronts severe challenges that are under global economic influence.

In addition to the insufficient opportunities in the labor market, there is also the issue that the knowledge and skills acquired in schools are often disconnected from those required by industries.

According to the survey conducted in Ethiopia, students in university feel that their academic programs do not enable them to qualify for decent jobs because teaching and assessment in their universities remain traditional, despite very significant changes in the knowledge economy and in the competitiveness of the contemporary labor market (Gebre 2017).

It is also noted that universities and polytechnics may be overproducing graduates in social sciences and humanities (Yakubu 2017). As one of the reasons, private institutions which have enhanced the expansion of tertiary education are unable to meet the high financial requirement of investment in science and engineering programs, so that they often focused on offering programs in the arts, humanities and business (Yakubu 2017).

In these circumstances, current trial for the adoption of Competency-Based Curriculum (CBC) in Africa is expected to resolve the disconnection between education and the labor market (Ruth & Ramadas 2019). The CBC has been developed to respond with current technological advancement in the world. Although there is a necessity to adopt it in the context of Africa with modification or in a similar framework to the developed countries, the competency given by new curriculum is regarded as essential to apply in job market (Ruth & Ramadas 2019). Further, to respond to the mismatch between educated job seeker and labor market, some studies suggest the necessity of proper vocational guidance and counselling to equip the knowledge and skills that the labor market envisages (e.g. Gebru 2017).

Educational expansion and the development of labor market should be correlated by ensuring smooth transition from education to decent work opportunities. However, in the case of SSA, where the demand for labor is insufficient in industries, such transition from education to work is not yet feasible.

4. Another aspect of unemployment: A case of youth in rural Kenya

As reviewed, African societies has been influenced by various social changes. Though current African youths could start to have access to basic education and pursue tertiary education, they would often confront unemployment issues and fall into a period of “timepass”. This paper focuses on an example of the “timepass” of an African youth, Juma, from my fieldwork, which was conducted from 2014 to 2019. His example shows how rural youths struggle to find their way after completing secondary education.

4.1. After completing secondary education

Juma was born in 1995 in rural Kenya. He lost his father in 2004 and started to live with his aunt. His mother was alive, but she moved to her homeland for several years due to family problems caused by her husband’s death. While his aunt’s home was over 10 km from his original home, he commuted to the same school by bicycle. Although he could not afford to pay his school fees due to his family background, he finished secondary education at the age of 18 in the year 2012. At this time, he started his period of “timepass.”

He could not study further or find employment due to two reasons: first, he could not get the certificate of completion of secondary education as his school fees had not been paid; second, his score at the secondary leaving examination was below the standard required to get government support for accessing tertiary education⁵. As a result, he had to stay home and help with housework, such as gardening, preparing dishes, cleaning rooms, taking care of livestock, etc. in his aunt’s home. He also engaged in unstable work opportunities in the neighborhood to earn some cash. For example, he helped a widow who lived alone in a number of small ways, such as shopping for fruit and keeping her house clean. In return, the widow gave him a small allowance. Further, he tried to find opportunities that enabled him to fulfill his CV. For example, he joined a computer training program offered by an NGO, which cost 500 KSHs.⁶

The purpose of his “timepass” activities can be split into three main categories: (1) to fulfill his duty as a family member, (2) to earn some money, and (3) to study for upward mobility. Juma engaged himself in unstable opportunities to achieve these goals, and this period can be thus described as his “timepass” period after completing secondary education.

However, Juma’s situation regarding his “timepass” was criticized by his 23-year-old male cousin, who had finished college according to fieldwork conducted in 2015. In this year, this cousin had been engaged as a contemporary teacher at a secondary school while he continued to look for decent job opportunities after completing his diploma course. His situation can therefore also be understood as a “timepass,” because he was seeking a decent job while engaging a temporary duty. This cousin mentioned that “if we work as a teacher, it is better because I can get something from the students. When I teach something to the students, I can learn something from them at the same time. It is much better than doing nothing at home from 1st to 31st (in a month), even though I can earn just 7,000 KSHs. per month.” Further, he stated that “Juma doesn’t do anything after completing Form 4 (*secondary education). It is bad that he just does not

do anything.” This cousin interpreted Juma’s situation as “not doing anything,” though Juma was committed to his own activities around home.

By contrast, Juma understood his “timepass” period as waiting for an opportunity to take the next step. One interesting point to note is that, in 2015, he intentionally refused to end his “timepass” when he turned down an opportunity for paid monthly work of 4,000 KSHs. in a local supermarket, which he regarded as not worthwhile. He justified this decision by saying, “it is not my work,” and asked another female cousin to take the job instead. She took this job at the supermarket and worked from 8:00 AM to 6:30 PM from Monday to Sunday⁷. This cousin was 20 years old as of 2015 and was trapped in her own “timepass” period after finishing secondary education in 2011. She was enrolled in a diploma course to become an ECD teacher in college after completing secondary school, however, she dropped out due to her inability to pay the school fee in the first year. For Juma, while this work was suitable for his female cousin, it was not suitable for him, even though their academic qualifications were of almost same levels.

4.2. Joining tertiary education and end of “timepass”

After three years, Juma paid the outstanding school fee and was able to pursue higher education in 2015. He enrolled in a small branch campus of a public university in the rural area. As he could not get government sponsorship, he tried to save money by walking to the branch campus from his aunt’s home. He finished the two-year diploma course in 2017 after finishing an attachment at a local government office, which was a compulsory credit as an experience of practical work.

However, he still did not have a job and did not pursue any other formal education after the diploma. Consequently, he once again continued to help out at home and continued to pursue contemporary unstable work. He also did a few free online courses⁸ on his old phone, which had a tiny screen. After a year, he enrolled at the same campus to pursue a bachelor’s course in 2018. However, the course was not full time and was only held on weekends. He chose this course because he needed to continue helping with the housework at home due to his ongoing joblessness. However, being a “student” enabled him to present his status as something other than “doing nothing.” He always emphasized his status as a “student” when we talked and when he introduced himself. I felt that having the status of a “student,” which allowed him to represent himself as not “just being at home” would give him, as someone who was already 23 years old, a sense of pride and belonging and a purpose of preparing for the next life stages. He also continued his free online study by using a phone on weekdays.

The situation drastically changed in March 2019. Juma got a monthly paid job with the same local government where he had done the attachment for his diploma. He then gave up his bachelor’s course and stopped helping with the housework. This was because he felt that there was no obligation to help at home anymore, even on weekends when he was free from work at the office. His aunt accepted his decision and he subsequently did not do anything, even when his aunt came home late at night. He assigned a younger cousin to do the housework instead, though this younger cousin was always outside the home playing.

Further, he refused to eat with the rest of his family at home and often stayed out elsewhere until late. He would sleep in his room immediately when he gets home. A neighbor told the aunt that he had secretly started looking for rental accommodation to stay with his girlfriend. During fieldwork conducted in 2019, I heard about his girlfriend for the first time. He secretly told me the possibility of marriage when the aunt was out. Staying in a home together before formal marriage is becoming common in East Africa and is known as “come-we-stay.” Juma was in the beginning of preparing a modern style of marriage.

During his ‘timepass’ period from 2012 to 2018, Juma engaged in unstable ways of earning cash and also helped with housework. While he could finish a diploma course by taking advantage of diversified tertiary education, after secondary school, his education was largely based on self-study via online courses that were either free or did not cost much. He refused to take a monthly paid job and continued his “timepass” as he believed that the remuneration was not suitable for him. After struggling to find an opportunity to pursue tertiary education and a decent work opportunity, he was finally about to set up the next stage of his life, as represented by preparing for marriage.

5. How to end “timepass” and the result of ending it

Thus far, this article has discussed how Africa’s rapid educational expansion has created insufficient opportunities in the labor market, which has been the main cause of educated youths’ unemployment. One question that needs to be addressed, therefore, is what determines a “timepass” period? The case of Juma seems to provide the three factors: (1) availability of cash, (2) utilizing diversified tertiary education, and (3) access to information.

Juma entered a “timepass” period mainly due to lack of money. He could not access tertiary education because he did not gain his certificate due to unpaid school fee for secondary education. He needed to find a way for paying this off to pursue further education. Money is thus an important factor in continuing education and investing in yourself to gain decent job opportunities.

At present, African society is rapidly changing due to the increasing use of mobile phones. The M-PESA service introduced by Safaricom in Kenya in 2007 drastically transformed the mobility of money in Africa. While normal banking services are not used by 80 percent of the population in SSA, people became able to send money through mobile networks by using this service or similar services (Redford 2017). Although there are options to transfer small amounts of money for free, it charges a certain amount of fee for transferring money depending on how much they transfer.

Now this system prevails across the country, it is not easy to find shops that do not accept the usage of M-PESA, even in rural areas. Paying for school fees can also be done via M-PESA. Further, in fieldwork conducted in 2019, it was impossible to book an intercity bus delivered by Easy Coach, which is one of the most famous bus lines in Kenya, without paying the required amount in advance via a mobile banking system. Traditional fundraisings, called *Harambee*, were also advanced in accordance with the development of the technology. Individuals who were invited to the fundraising meeting but could not attend, also sent money via mobile banking systems, while online communication tools such as “WhatsApp,” a widely used SNS application, were utilized to help fundraising efforts, rather than sending invitation cards by hands.

This service enabled users to send money immediately and increased the mobility of workers, as they could move to urban or other areas far from their homes. Further, it also added an element of secrecy, as people could put their money in the account and send it without sharing information. Nakabayashi (1991) pointed out that money is personal wealth that can be saved in private, while traditional wealth, like cows, are obvious in the community. This invisibility of wealth might make a difference in the practice of redistribution within the community to ease economic disparity in Africa. These various changes surrounding money in African societies would influence the availability of cash both in negative and positive ways.

Regarding the second point, the issue of disparity has also taken place in diversified tertiary education. As reviewed earlier in this study, educational opportunities in tertiary education have been diversified, widening this window to various secondary school leavers. The case of Juma, he utilized an opportunity in the branch campus at a public University. Setting up branch campuses enable people who are in rural areas to access higher education. Those branch campuses in rural areas are often commercially oriented programs rather than academic programs, such as business studies, economics, and project management (Munene 2016). Juma had also taken the business studies course at his branch University.

However, questions are often raised regarding the quality of these branch campuses. According to Munene (2016), the Kenya Commission for University Education (CUE) ordered Kisii University, one of the public universities in Kenya, to close 10 of its 13 branch campuses and to relocate the 15,000 students affected to the main campus in 2016. This ruling came as a result of efforts by regulatory authorities to ensure the quality of higher education by moving students from low-quality branch campuses to the traditional, high-quality main campus (Munene 2016).

Munene (2016) discovered that rural campuses largely attract self-sponsored students who, as a result of their lower socioeconomic status, are unable to perform well enough in secondary school examinations to secure competitive government scholarships. Unfortunately, students from more privileged backgrounds take a larger share of government scholarships and, therefore, also take places at the well-resourced main university campuses. Consequently, students from underprivileged classes are overrepresented in branch campuses. It might be important to ensure an equal opportunity of higher education for all. However, ensuring this opportunity on its own without also ensuring its quality and financial soundness may cause the gap between poor and rich to widen. Munene also criticized this unfair situation in Kenya by stating that branch campuses “contribute to the failure to address issues of substantive equity in higher education” (Munene 2016, p.23).

Thirdly, access to information is also significantly important in determining how fast youths end their “timepass.” It is also related to the usage of mobile phones. Currently, cheap options for making calls and browsing the internet are increasing with the popularity of smartphones, and Juma used his phone to aid his personal studies during his “timepass” period. For example, in my fieldwork in Kenya, as of 2014, it was rare to see smartphones, and I bought a tiny phone with a small screen that could be used just for calling and sending text message. However, in 2015, relatively rich people, such as principals, had smartphones. By 2016, most young people either wished to buy a smartphone or already had. They did not use text messages anymore and utilized “WhatsApp” instead, meaning I also needed to buy a smartphone for communication purposes. Finally, in 2019, a lot of graduates from secondary schools already had smartphones and the old tiny phones had become far less common.

With widespread use of smartphones, job hunting also have become easier due to greater access to information. On “Twitter,” for example, the hashtag “#IkoKaziKE” is used both when people look for jobs and also when someone is needed to fill a vacancy. “Iko Kazi” means that “there is a work” in Swahili and “KE” represents “Kenya.” Personal connection and information from the community are still important in Africa in order to gain decent work opportunities. However, the ability to access various information through the internet is also becoming important. Finding an opportunity to pursue further study is also necessary. There is a lot of information on the internet about scholarships, and this enables students to find and apply for scholarships both within and outside the country.

This chapter reviewed three factors regarding how fast people can get out from their “timepass”. Each of the factors may impact the decision of when and in which status an individual ends his or her “timepass.” As Juma once refused the opportunity to end his “timepass,” people have different career visions and forms of self-evaluation regarding their abilities. The desire to find better opportunities may persist, even after gaining at least “decent” work, as captured by the saying of “seeking greener pastures.” The phrase “greener pastures” was utilized by youths who engaged in temporary work to describes themselves as “people who look for some better places to work.” As this phrase represents, educated youths continue to confront various challenges, though completing education on its own was already a severe struggle for most of them. In this sense, African youths must continue to learn to adopt current social changes and to overcome various challenges. Educational opportunities which includes the opportunities at a tertiary education and opportunities of life-long learning must play key roles on the development of people after their basic education.

6. Conclusion

The dimension of social change in Africa can be roughly summarized as a result of the expansion of the “market economy.” Educational opportunities are rapidly expanding in SSA, and this has been enhanced through private participation. Even tertiary education is spreading as a result of being diversified through private institutions, thus offering a variety of options and learning styles. The labor market has also been influenced by the international economy, especially in the context of secondary and the related tertiary industries, which has led to the rise of “timepass” periods. As a result, the availability of money to invest in education and having easy access to information both have a key influence on the duration of an individual’s “timepass.”

The increase in the number of jobless youths may represent an issue that places these countries in danger, as terror groups like al-Shabaab are increasingly targeting jobless youths for recruitment. On the other hand, their “timepass” periods may also enhance the development of youths’ capability by offering an opportunity for them to think about their careers and pursue an opportunity to invest themselves. From this perspective, “timepass” represents a period for youths to draw a blueprint for their lives after completing education.

However, in reality, several youths who are in this position of educated unemployment are confronted with challenges to end their “timepass.” This paper has provided a brief and rough summary of the situation in SSA, with the purpose of comparing it with other regions. Of course, it is also noted that there are multiple variations and differences within SSA and it is therefore necessary to understand the impact of social change in the context of each society. However, there are also common situations that may cause rapid educational expansion despite insufficient opportunities in the labor market.

As international organizations have emphasized the importance of education, it is important to reflect this emphasis by building quality schools. On the other hand, it is also necessary to understand the opportunities available after the

education as a part of the education system, as people pursue basic education with a consideration of the opportunities available to them as a result. Taking this perspective into account while conducting academic research is also essential to respond to social changes in Africa.

For future Africa educational research in relation to this topic, the first step is to accumulate examples of how young people like Juma, who have completed their basic education, get decent jobs afterwards and what kind of “timepass” they follow. It is important to analyze the dynamics of people moving to and from education and labor, and to reveal what challenges are there and how they overcome them. In this regard, it is also necessary to consider the impact of educational opportunities on their pathways. As we have seen in this paper, educational opportunities beyond basic education are rapidly diversifying. There have been many different types of tertiary education, however, it is not yet fully clear how the various educational programs are utilized and what role vocational training education plays. Further, it is also important to understand how these various educational opportunities are developed and what impact they have as lifelong learning for people. The accumulation of this research will enable us to explore how the global influences facing African societies today can be localized in their contexts, and how the process of integration can lead to the possibility of development in Africa.

Note

- 1) The UIS database sometimes includes estimations. The data of 2018 is the estimation of “adjusted net enrolment rate (NERA).” NERA is defined by UNESCO as the “total number of students of the official primary school age group who are enrolled at primary or secondary education, expressed as a percentage of the corresponding population.” The difference between NER and NERA is explained by UNESCO as follows: “while the Net enrolment rate (NER) shows the coverage of pupils in the official primary school age group in the primary education level only, the NERA extends the measure to those of the official primary school age range who have reached secondary education because they might access primary education earlier than the official entrance or they might skip some grades due to their performance.” (<http://uis.unesco.org/en/glossary-term/adjusted-net-enrolment-rate>)
- 2) The year of 1996 was the earliest year to provide information about NER for secondary education in the UIS database.
- 3) An increase of access to technical and vocational education and training (TVET) was included in the SDGs (Sustainable Development Goals) as target 4.3.
- 4) The “green revolution,” which enhanced the introduction of high-yield seed varieties and the massive application of chemical fertilizers, made significant contributions to agricultural productivity improvements in Asia in the 1960s (Sakagami, 2017).
- 5) His performance was below 46 as an adjusted standard deviation score, while it is necessary being over an adjusted standard deviation score of 69, according to the data in 2012.
- 6) 100 Kenyan Shillings (KSHs.) is almost equal to 1 USD at the rate on 2020-03-01.
- 7) At the beginning, she had enjoyed this work, saying “the lunch is nice.” However, she gradually began to complain about the working conditions as the place was far from her home (30 minutes by walk), and she ended up quitting in about three years. She then went to Nairobi to look for better jobs.
- 8) For example, about computers by using “Google Analytics Training” and “SoloLearn,” and about Germany by using “Duo Linco.”

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Teachers' Continuous Professional Development in the African Context

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Abstract

The purpose of this article is to discuss future research on teacher policies in African societies in the 21st century with a focus on continuous professional development for teachers. In this era of globalization, the definition of competencies and roles of teachers has been reconsidered in developing countries in Sub-Saharan Africa. This article grounds its research suggestions in an overview of recent changes in teacher education contexts from the EFA movement until the SDGs period, reviewing the changed focal points of educational development with global agendas. Attention is then paid to the role of teachers and hence what the ideal teacher's role would be in the understanding of educational outcomes. Considering diverse forms of education and images of "desirable" teachers in terms of "old model" and "new model" education, this article questions the feasibility of preparing teachers to engage in desired 21st century education models through teacher education. After reviewing the themes of previous research regarding teacher policy, this article proposes three research themes to be further developed in the future to advance the discussion surrounding teacher policy.

Keywords: Society 5.0, continuous learners, human-centered, aid agencies, local context

1. Introduction

Several countries in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) have made great efforts to expand teacher resources and enhance teachers' capacities to provide all children with quality education. Due to globalization and the adoption of new technologies within Society 5.0, many children in the future will need to be prepared for jobs which do not yet exist. International aid agencies and Western countries have influenced attempts to redefine educational systems from a framework of a learner-centered, competency-based style even in SSA countries (Chisholm & Leyendecker, 2008). In this complicated situation, many of those countries have also questioned the significance and specialty of teachers, leading to the implementation of new teacher education policies for nurturing up-to-date academic abilities. Amid the strong influence of neoliberal educational policies, non-formal and private schools have emerged to offer alternatives to formal education and "accountability" has become increasingly required of teachers. Moreover, academic and policy discussions regarding "teacher evaluation" in terms of quality assurance have increased.

Because of the financial difficulties of countries in SSA, it is a grave challenge for those countries to nurture teachers who can provide the style of education required by the new era while ameliorating their general lack of teachers. In this situation, where are "teaching professions" headed? What should technical assistance for teachers in SSA countries look like in the new era? With these questions in mind, this article suggests further research regarding teacher education policies in African societies in the 21st century, with a specific focus on teachers' continuous professional development.

This article is divided into two main chapters. The first chapter discusses the focal points of educational development from the Education for All (EFA) movement until the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) period, the diverse forms of education and images of "desirable teachers", and the feasibility of 21st century teacher education. The second chapter provides a short overview of previous research regarding teacher policy in this region and proposes three themes for further deliberation in future research.

2. Changes in situations surrounding teacher education

The situations surrounding teacher education in SSA have changed over the past 30 years. Teacher roles have also changed, especially in terms of the frameworks and paradigms surrounding classroom relationships. Considering these situations, the feasibility of educational system reform in SSA countries can be questioned.

2.1. The transition of global trends in educational development

The focal points and challenges of educational development can be examined during three separate periods of global policy agendas: EFA, Post-EFA, and SDGs. It should be noted in advance that most of the topics mentioned in each subsection are still of vital importance and that current issues of educational development are extremely diverse and interrelated with each other.

2.1.1. EFA period

Since the World Conference on Education for All in 1990, the EFA global movement sought improvement in enrollment rates in primary education in African countries. Governments of African countries, developed countries, and global aid agencies made huge efforts to reduce out-of-school children (OOSC). Among the successes from this effort was a decrease in the number of primary school-aged children who had not been enrolled in school from 100 million to 64 million in 2017 (UNESCO Institute for Statistics: UIS, 2017).

However, the rapid increase in the enrollment rate created another issue: the maintenance of quality education. Owing in part to the significant increase in the number of students, school capacities were exceeded and the quality of education, in turn, was eroded. For instance, in Malawi, many students ended up dropping out of school before attaining sufficient literacy (Chimombo, 2005).

The sudden expansion of enrollment rate also highlighted a lack of teachers. In order to alleviate the shortage of teachers, international organizations took initiative and implemented, in cooperation with governments, makeshift measures such as shorter pre-service teacher education, employment of contract teachers, and the advancement and employment of unqualified and under-qualified teachers. These easy, short-period and inexpensive policies caused a decrease in teachers' capacities and motivation over time (Aidan, 2010).

2.1.2. Post-EFA period

In response to the achievement of the EFA movement, policy attention changed from quantitative schooling to learning with quality. For instance, lessons learned from the EFA era created motivation to measure learning itself, which led to the development of new indicators for learning (Filmer et al., 2018).

This shift of attention to quality learning partly stems from parents' wishes for their children to obtain high-quality learning and eventually obtain decent jobs as a result. In this situation, educational content and forms regarded as "useful" such as science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) education and technical and vocational education and training (TVET) have attracted parents' support. The question of "does schooling and learning lead to job acquisition?" has also led to the accumulation of evidence in how smoothly an individual might shift from school to work. Given this, an increasing amount of research has been published regarding the competitiveness of labor markets after graduation, as in the School-to-Work Transition Survey (SWTS) started in 2003 by the International Labour Organization (ILO) (ILO, 2010).

However, the Post-EFA era has long suffered from side effects of the EFA momentum. Concerning teachers, international society has recognized not only the issue of a lack of teachers, but also the issue of quality of teachers. For example, the quality issues examined include teachers' motivations towards the teaching profession and the phenomenon of ghost teachers. Moreover, with the collapse of collegiality among teachers, the limited culture of teacher education has been highlighted, and consequently, the social status and morality of teachers in many countries have deteriorated.

Furthermore, the EFA movement, which intended to provide free access to public schools, has paradoxically resulted in the increased privatization of education. Because public schools could not maintain their quality of education, parents began to send their children to private schools and non-formal schools. This trend led to a rapid increase in the number of low-cost private schools in SSA. Teachers additionally began to open private extra-schools while teaching in public schools as a source of additional income.

2.1.3. SDGs period

The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), which recognize issues not only in developing countries but also in developed countries, have made countries reconsider the purpose of education and how education can best be provided to learners.

The project of deconstructing education relies on the question of, “What should the teacher’s role be in a 21st century society?” In the past, teachers were expected to enable students to master the contents of textbooks as efficiently as possible. In this fast-changing society and era, however, children might not necessarily be prepared for jobs that will emerge when they enter the labor market if taught with only textbook knowledge. Therefore, the skills and knowledge fostered by education also need to be redefined. This shifting paradigm has required teachers to transform their roles from teaching fixed knowledge, which exists over time, to teaching students how to ask critical questions and “assisting” students to think through non-routine problems so that they can address corresponding, changing knowledge requirements. Within this context, the process of redefining education might need to return to the important starting point of character building. Admittedly, UNESCO has already proposed that education should nurture individuals to develop personal integrity and balanced cognitive and non-cognitive skills through their declared four pillars of education (International Commission on Education for the Twenty-first Century, 1996). The above changes in the teaching profession will be additionally deliberated in later sections of this article.

2.2. Diverse definitions of learning and images of desirable teachers

The previous section summarized how the focal points of education have changed along with the shift of global policy agendas. In the SDGs era, there have been efforts to redefine the teacher’s role in the context of 21st century education. This section examines how the teacher’s role has been considered both in the “old model” and “new model” educational paradigms. In terms of the relationship of knowledge shared between teachers and students, teacher’s roles and understandings have also changed. The teachers are now expected to play a role of facilitator to accommodate students’ construction of knowledge in accordance with the changing educational situation.

2.2.1. The old model and the concept of teachers

In the old model, educational systems were established with a specific focus on nation-building. In other words, as shown in Table 1, the main intention of education was the transmission of “skills” and “knowledge” predetermined by a government to build a nation-state (Benavot et al., 1991). On that premise, schools functioned as facilities to efficiently convey knowledge that was determined necessary by the government. Teachers were thus regarded as government agents who played the role of teaching as efficiently and precisely as possible. Considering the roles of teachers and students, solid hierarchical relationships were established; teachers were the authority and students were supposed to obey teachers’ instructions through the teacher-centered instructional method, as seen in the “chalk and talk” style. (Leu, 2004).

Table 1: Old model and concepts of teaching

Acquired Concept for Learning	Role of Teacher	Role of Learner	Concept of Teacher
Skills & Knowledge	Demonstration & Expositor	Imitation & Comprehension	Craftsperson & Authority

Source: Author based on Tomasello et al. (1993)

In these situations, teaching was depicted with a “single-headed arrow” from teacher to learner (student), as shown in the left diagram in Figure 1. Teachers played the roles of “demonstrator” or “expositor”, and students were supposed to “imitate” the demonstrations and “comprehend” the instructional content. Also within this power hierarchy, teachers would give instruction as a response to students’ requests, as depicted with “reciprocal arrows” in the right diagram in Figure 1, maintaining the social role of the teacher positioned above the learner.

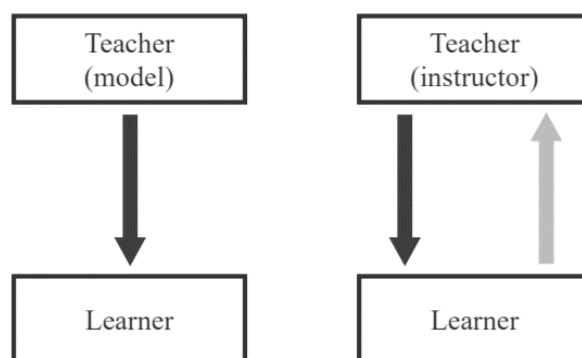


Figure 1: Relationship between teacher and learner in the old model

Source: Author based on Tomasello et al. (1993)

2.2.2. The new model and the concept of teachers

The new model, shown in Table 2 below, sees a drastic change from the old model. As explained in the previous sections, a turn in the concept of academic ability has raised questions regarding the form of education and teacher roles. The main intention of education has gradually shifted to nurture beliefs, respect, and creativity through learning. Also, given the discussion on the importance of teachers as continuous learners and reflective practitioners, teachers play new roles of managing information which students can use to create new knowledge and of collaborating or participating in a learning community. In this model, teachers are regarded as colleagues and/or consultants of students.

Table 2: New model and concepts of teaching

Acquired Concept for Learning	Role of Teacher	Role of Learner	Concept of Teacher
Beliefs & Creativity	Collaborator & Information Manager	Interpreter & Knowledge Constructor	Colleague & Consultant

Source: Author based on Tomasello et al. (1993)

Focusing on the new relationship between teachers and learners, shown in Figure 2, teaching is depicted as “reciprocal and symmetrical arrows”. Teachers cooperate with learners to obtain new knowledge in the learning process with no hierarchical relationship between them.



Figure 2: Relationship between teacher and learner in the new model

Source: Author based on Tomasello et al. (1993)

2.2.3. New definition of learning and global trends in images of teachers

Overall, as forms of education and images of desirable teachers have gradually changed from the old model to the new model, education has become inclined towards a constructivist approach. In the old model, it could be argued that the nature of learning stood from an objectivist viewpoint. Objectivism, as referred to in this article, recognizes a definitive truth with absolute knowledge and regards learning as conveying this truth and knowledge to learners. Constructivism, on the other hand, recognizes learning as a process where learners realize and create new knowledge through interaction with their own and other learners' experiences with emphasis placed on fostering learning attitudes and curiosity of learners.

This shift in forms of education concerns the incompatibility of existing knowledge with the rapid changes in technology and globalization. Newly defined concepts, which are considered more important than the acquisition of predetermined skills, are now required as Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) states

regarding the situation in the early 21st century:

Globalization and modernization are creating an increasingly diverse and interconnected world. To make sense of and function well in this world, individuals need for example to utilize changing technologies such as smartphones or other digital devices and to make sense of large amounts of available information. They also face collective challenges as societies such as balancing economic growth with environmental sustainability, and prosperity with social equity. In these contexts, the competencies that individuals need for their goals have become more complex, requiring more than the mastery of certain narrowly defined skills. (OECD, 2005, p.4)

To tackle this change, the OECD launched a project called DeSeCo (a portmanteau of Definition and Selection of Competencies: Theoretical and Conceptual Foundations) in 1997. The project aimed to provide “a sound conceptual framework to inform the identification of key competencies, to strengthen international assessments, and to help to define overarching goals for education systems and lifelong learning.” (DeSeCo, 2016). Competencies are defined as more than knowledge and skills, and “involves the ability to meet complex demands, by drawing on and mobilizing psychosocial resources (including skills and attitudes) in a particular context. For example, the ability to communicate effectively is a competency that may draw on an individual’s knowledge of the language, practical IT skills and attitudes towards those with whom he or she is communicating” (OECD, 2005, p.4). The DeSeCo project set up the conceptual framework of “key competencies”, which have three main categories that are interrelated with each other: to use tools interactively; to be able to interact in heterogeneous groups; and to act autonomously (OECD, 2005, p.5). These three categories are underpinned by an understanding that “the utilization of knowledge” is more valuable than “the acquisition of knowledge”. However, utilization of knowledge presupposes an acquisition of knowledge.

Because of these definitions of key competencies, the concept of academic ability has also changed from “what you know” to “what you can do”. For instance, OECD’s Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) applies the concept of key competencies, and each assessment domain (i.e. reading literacy, mathematical literacy, and science literacy) is assessed based on not only whether students can demonstrate learned knowledge but also whether they can apply their knowledge to a new situation.

Given this grand shift regarding the definitions of knowledge and learning, teachers are expected to demonstrate continuous learning and reflective practices. “Reflective practitioner” is a term originally developed by Donald Schön and encompasses people who “revisit their experiences and further analyze them to help improve their skills and enhance their future” practices (Plack & Greenberg, 2005, p.1547). Based on this concept, teachers are encouraged to be reflective practitioners, “with sufficient subject-matter knowledge and a grasp of a range of practical approaches so that they can make informed professional choices” (Leu, 2004, p.7).

Teachers are expected to assist students to nurture an attitude of appreciating existing knowledge and utilizing it to solve problems. It is possible, of course, to say that some knowledge and skills will become obsolete. Even so, there are also knowledge and skills that are of vital importance beyond generations. The attitude of scrutinizing information and knowledge without prejudice should above all be prioritized to avoid discarding knowledge and skills, like daily necessities.

2.3. The possibility of training teachers in SSA to meet global needs

Considering the kind of teachers needed in the global context described in the previous section, this section examines the adaptability or feasibility of implementing educational reform in SSA countries based on the global discussions around teacher roles. As previously mentioned, the role that society expects teachers to play is gradually changing in SSA as well. However, is it possible in SSA to train teachers to meet society’s demands? As discussed in the first section, the Post-EFA educational conditions have remaining side-effects due to an increased number of students. Under such circumstances, even teaching “normally” comes with difficulties since the number of teachers has not increased and monetary support, such as teacher pay, has not improved in many SSA countries. Consequently, teachers in public schools find themselves in severe situations, which has been referred to as “teacher bullying”, and many of them are leaving public schools for private schools or non-formal schools for better treatment.

The question then becomes how to encourage remaining public school teachers to provide education needed by society despite the harsh conditions they face. Admittedly, no one would be convinced to change their paradigms simply by being told that this type of education is needed by society. Generally, in Japan, teachers try their best even when they are in harsh conditions; however, is the same “strategy” used for teachers in Japan fruitful when it comes to teachers in SSA? Results would not change in SSA, even with a larger number of training programs in place. “Chalk and talk” in schools has continued in accordance with the old way of teaching. Many workshops have been conducted by international organizations and aid agencies to introduce learner-centered education, and a large percentage of workshop participants highly evaluated the teaching methods which were introduced. But has learner-centered education become a true takeaway for those teachers when they return to their schools, and do they employ those methods? The reality seems to be that newer, learner-centered methods are rarely tried.

Why are these newly introduced methods avoided? There are several reasons, the most important being that teachers themselves do not see them as beneficial in their contexts. If they think that there is no benefit from introducing a new instructional model, they will not put the methods in practice, no matter how many times they are told that those teaching methods do good and are necessary. For example, if national examinations are based on how much knowledge learners attain, parents and students prefer knowledge-acquisition education to learner-centered education. Herein lies the difference in intentions between governments and international organizations. There is also the fact that it is simply easier for teachers to maintain the status quo or not unlearn what they were taught in their youth. For current teachers, the pedagogy they need to use is different from the styles in which they were taught as children. While they can easily identify the disadvantages of introducing a new style of education, it is difficult for them to see the benefits.

To address this, first, it is necessary to reassure teachers by explaining the merits of using new techniques so that teachers find them interesting and are able to use them with ease. Those merits must be phrased to emphasize and guarantee a desirable education for society as well. It is necessary to create a structural system that encourages teachers to change their teaching methods. Specifically, changing teacher evaluation systems and/or test design is the paramount leverage for change in a holistic education system. Without this structural motivation, discussing co-teaching and cooperation with parents becomes merely “neat assertions” and does not make sense.

The second difficulty stems from a lack of teachers’ readiness concerning teaching skills. In SSA, there are still many teachers who do not possess basic subject knowledge and teaching skills. It would be difficult to call on such teachers to use advanced teaching techniques. For example, learner-centered education can nearly be impossible for teachers who cannot manage their classrooms. Teachers who lack experience and knowledge are afraid of allowing children to ask questions and avoid such classroom situations. To change this, proper teacher education in universities should be implemented.

There are also some hopeful observations for teacher education. The change in definitions of academic ability and teachers’ roles is a common phenomenon all over the world. Admittedly, the environment surrounding teachers and treatment of them are quite different from country to country in post-EFA situations. However, developed countries are also not necessarily advanced in terms of teacher education for adapting the new definitions of academic ability.

Horizontal collaboration can be used as a method for addressing the needs of the SSA context. For example, teachers from SSA would be more competent as facilitators than those from other countries. There are many aspects of education that the world can learn from their experiences.

Utilizing the internet and technology could also help rectify the described situation. Previously, one of the bottlenecks of improvement has been the weakness of traditional teacher training institutions such as lecturers and/or colleges in the infrastructure of the education system. These days, however, with the development of the internet, good educational practices can now easily be shared worldwide. The amount of information in social network services has rocketed insofar as it sometimes overtakes that taught in universities. While there are still problems, such as a lack of internet access, smartphones are an almost ubiquitous technology in rural areas in SSA. This means that teacher education could partly be implemented through digital technology, allowing SSA countries to overcome a limitation of other resources.

3. Future research themes

Understanding the situational changes of teacher education along with the shift in the definitions of knowledge,

learning, and teacher roles described in the previous chapter, this chapter discusses themes to be further investigated in future research. Three themes—aid agency approaches, human-centered research, and teacher mobility—are proposed after reviewing previous research.

3.1. Main themes in previous research in the African context

Previous research regarding teacher education in the African context can be approached from two perspectives: international standardized teacher policy reform and teachers as continuous learners.

3.1.1. International standardized teacher policy reform

Nowadays, in SSA countries, teacher policies (e.g. teaching methods, teacher education, and teacher placement) tend to be standardized beyond each country's context amidst the globalization of teacher policy. This movement of standardization and evaluation is based on redefined competencies and changes in teacher roles.

There is an apprehension that the prevalence of “teacher competencies” and “teacher evaluation” paradoxically hinders teacher quality, decreasing autonomy and motivation towards teaching. Especially in developing countries, teaching methods that are teacher-centered and teachers who are less motivated are regarded as “problems”, and thus teacher-policy reforms are initiated systematically, top-down. More concretely, as exemplified in System Assessment and Benchmarking for Education Results (SABER), which are collected by the World Bank, developing countries are quantitatively evaluated in terms of educational content and teaching methods.

However, some empirical research shows that even when a government has applied internationally-standardized teacher evaluations and/or teaching methods, teaching capacity and the quality of education have not improved (SACMEQ, 2017).

3.1.2. Teachers as continuous learners (reflective practitioners)

In addition to the above-mentioned arguments, teachers in SSA countries are also expected to be continuous learners and reflective practitioners (see Figure 3). In opposition to policies that are inclined to be standardized, reflective practitioners are expected to continuously improve their individual skills.

This conflict is seen in the introduction of internationally standardized indicators in teacher policy where it tends to ignore the local context and perspective of how teachers may adapt their educational practices utilizing available resources as reflective practitioners. To put standardized teacher policies into practice without considering the educational culture and how teachers are regarded at the local level would mistakenly encourage them to only follow the described standard without thinking deeply about its implications. This would thus result in the erosion of their knowledge and motivation for improving their teaching practices through utilizing resources in their schools, as those practices will not necessarily be evaluated in the terms of the described standards.

In summary, while global standards should be respected to some extent, teacher policies must be flexible enough to pave the way for teachers to employ their thoughts and ideas in teaching practices with consideration regarding educational cultures and how teachers themselves were educated. Therefore, there is a need to engage in strategies to clarify how teachers can be developed as continuous learners and what should be done for teachers to fully exert their skills in a school context while meeting the global standard of teacher policies.

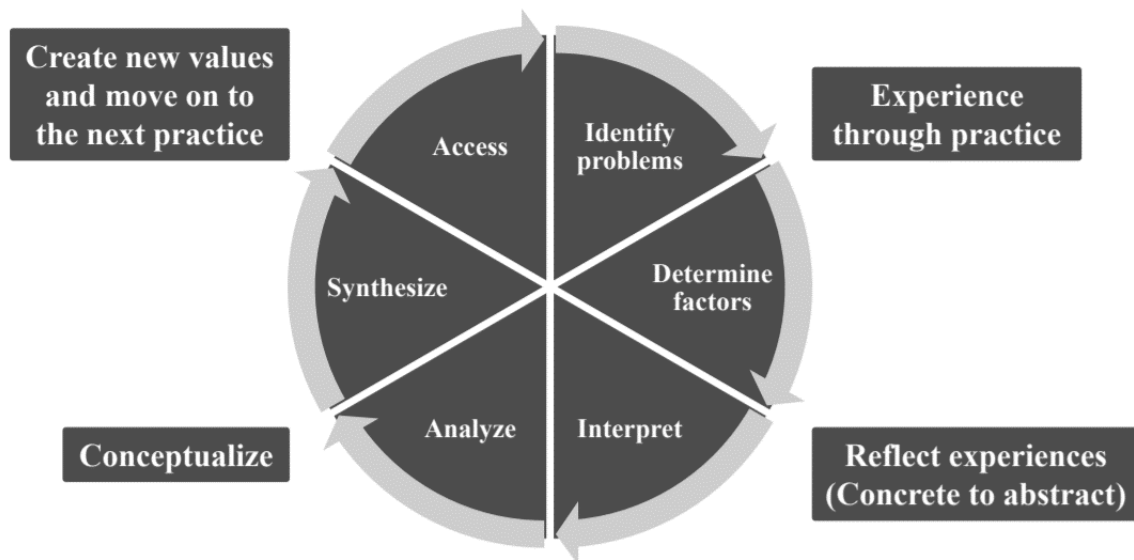


Figure 3: Conceptual framework of the reflective practitioner

Source: Author based on Schön (1987)

3.2. Future research themes and perspectives

The previous section examined the main themes of previous research regarding teacher education in the African context. Overall, in the future, countries in SSA need to make teacher policies suitable for their own cultural and social contexts. To do so, the question of “What kind of teachers are needed in the African cultural and social context?” needs to be asked repeatedly. In this section, three future research themes are proposed: aid agencies approach, human-centered research, and teacher mobility.

3.2.1. Aid agency approaches

Thus far, several aid agencies have focused on short-term projects which emphasize accountability to develop teacher policies. Because of the inclination towards accountability, agencies are likely to depend on measurable indicators and adopt projects with those indicators. Learning outcomes of students have been adopted as prime indicators in many teacher education projects since they are the easiest way to prove the success of those projects. As discussed in the previous section, it is possible to say this tendency is compatible with international standardized teacher policies.

However, aid agencies have underestimated the importance of educational cultures and how teachers are regarded at a local level. Particularly, as discussed above, agencies should recognize that teachers need to face changing situations in the process of reflecting on their own practices. Figure 4 describes these two different approaches and strategies by considering teacher characteristics and comparing major aid agencies.

The center and the bottom sections of the diagram show the common domains in which aid agencies engage with their projects (i.e. continuous professional development for teachers, teacher standards, teacher training, financial assistance to teaching materials, and classroom maintenance). The projects are divided into two perspectives: teachers as an entity are “good” or “bad” by nature. Teachers regarded as the former are willing to develop their teaching skills intrinsically, whereas the latter are innately lazy at developing their skills. JICA and UNESCO would be classified into the former perspective group whereas the World Bank, DfID and USAID would fall in the latter by their characteristic approaches. The former group might also be called “the Oriental idea” with the latter being “the Western (Occidental) idea”.

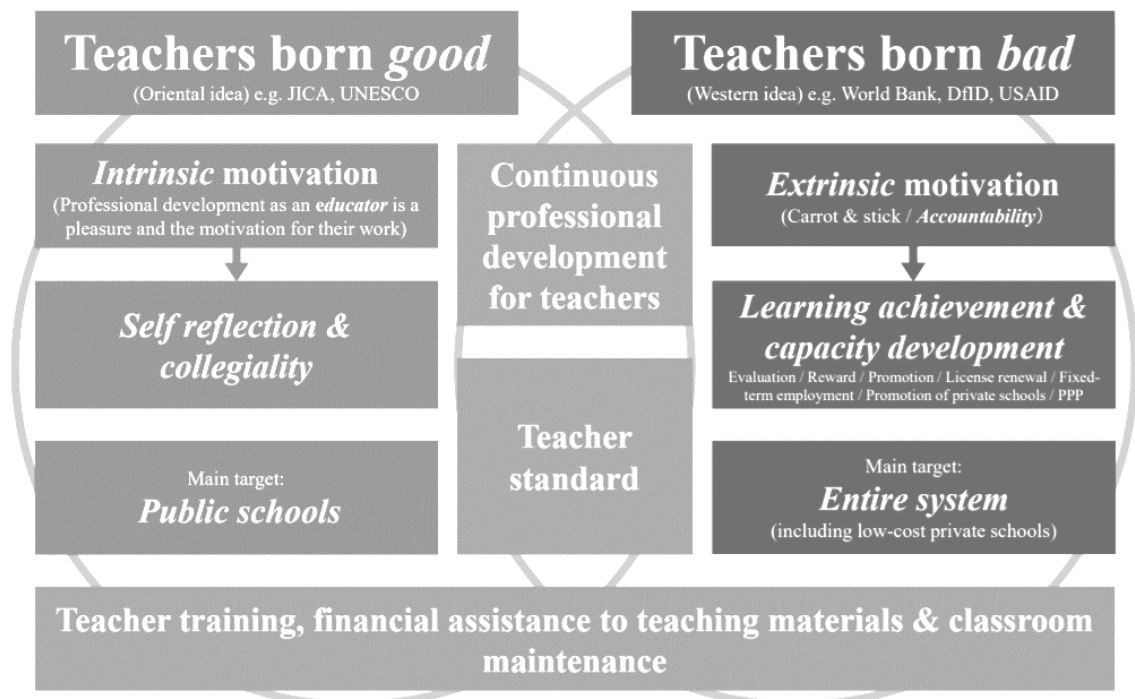


Figure 4: Approaches and strategies to teacher policy by premise regarding teachers

Source: Author based on Okitsu (2019)

The difference between the two approaches is seen where the emphasis is put within their projects. Aid agencies that stand on the “born-bad” side adopt approaches by which they intervene with a focus on the extrinsic motivation of teachers. Therefore, those approaches are compatible with the concept of accountability and the “carrot and stick” approach with the underlying premise of teachers as human capital. Indeed, Ginsburg (2017) indicates that teachers are regarded as human capital or human resources in USAID’s education strategy documents. Also, the outcomes of those projects are likely to be measured by the learning outcomes of students and capacity development. It is also worth noting that the main target of those projects is often the entire system in general, including low-cost private schools.

The approaches that stand on the “born-good” side value teachers’ intrinsic motivation. This means teachers find pleasure in and are naturally motivated by their professional development process itself. As such, these approaches aim to nurture and enhance teachers’ self-reflection and collegiality to further develop intrinsic motivation. Consequently, these agencies mainly target public school systems.

With these two approaches, there is a need for research that takes both perspectives into consideration. Specifically, approaches that employ teacher “born-good” perspectives, as opposed to teacher policies inclined towards accountability and learning outcomes of students, are worth further development. As proposed in former sections, implications for nurturing an educational culture at a local level would be enhanced by considering how teachers regard the teaching profession, what they are motivated by, and how teachers can form solid relationships with their colleagues.

3.2.2. Human-centered research

The concept of teaching itself also needs to be reconsidered. However, in the context of educational development, the perspective that sees teachers as “born bad” is spreading, especially in aid agency thinking in Europe. With that perspective, teachers who are often absent, teachers who lack sufficient knowledge to teach, and teachers who are less motivated are seen as “problems” in light of educational development. Thus, those “bad” teachers are regarded to be extrinsically motivated and paid in accordance with their performance and attitudes towards the teaching profession.

In this situation, it has been suggested that it would be more efficient and cost-effective to replace all the teaching professionals with technologies as seen in other fields. For instance, there is an argument that it would be the most effective teaching practice for a teacher to be given an iPad and just read the contents in front of students. This idea has been put in place in Kenyan schools. In extreme terms, an age where robots with artificial intelligence serve as teachers

could come to pass in developing countries in SSA where “transmission” of knowledge remains the main style of teaching. To reason why a teacher should be human, the question of “what kind of academic abilities are needed” and “how teachers become capable of engaging with their educational practices as a reflective practitioner” must be further considered.

3.2.3. Teacher mobility

In developing countries in SSA, where a lack of quality teachers is a huge issue, teacher mobility also needs to be considered to provide continuous professional development for teachers. Thus far, previous research in the field of teacher attrition has confirmed the teaching profession’s role as a “stepping stone” for an individual’s career development despite limited data. Research has also indicated that teachers leave their jobs because of HIV/AIDS or other illnesses. However, in practice, the rate of attrition from HIV/AIDS, although high, has decreased gradually. Instead, attrition to other fields has newly emerged as one of the main reasons for a lack of teachers, and whether a teacher leaves their job or not partly depends on the opportunity for other employment (International Taskforce on Teachers for EFA, 2010). Attrition to other jobs can also be influenced by teacher policies on deployment and school management, according to research that considers the relationship between attrition and dissatisfaction with the teaching profession or motivation towards teaching (Bennell & Akyeampong, 2007).

On the other hand, recently there has been emerging research regarding teacher career development with the premise that the teaching profession is teachers’ final career goal, instead of being a stepping stone. One new phenomena is that teachers are concentrating on working in urban rather than rural areas. With this context, international teacher mobility is also worth noting. Recent research has found an impact of teachers crossing countries borders, supported by an ability to communicate with others in English, with countries with more job opportunities and/or higher pay becoming more attractive teaching environments. For instance, South Africa attracts teachers from other African countries to make up for its domestic lack of teachers (De Villiers & Weda, 2017).

4. Conclusion

In conclusion, future research themes and perspectives need to be considered in terms of teacher roles and human individuality to fully grasp the educational situation in Sub-Saharan African countries in the 21st century.

Future educational research needs not only the viewpoint of “top-down” policies such as global agendas to governments and governments to schools and teachers but also “bottom-up” in order to understand the situation in which teachers design their classes and improvise teaching materials with limited resources. Moreover, it is necessary to recognize the local educational and occupational cultures of teachers as “aspects that we can learn from” instead of as “variables” that hinder the positive effects of teacher policies to generate implications for new policies.

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The Role of Curriculum Studies in the Spread of Competency-Based Educational Reforms in African Countries

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Abstract

The term ‘competency’ has attracted attention due to the progress of globalisation in the 21st century and the qualitative changes in society, such as the emergence of a knowledge-based society. In recent years, competency-based educational reforms have spread globally. This study focuses on African countries and discusses the challenges in developing and implementing a competency-based curriculum to propagate the role of curriculum studies. Firstly, we reviewed the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development’s (OECD) definition and selection of competencies (DeSeCo) project and the skills proposed by an international research project known as Assessment and Teaching of 21st Century Skills (ATC21s), which underline competency-based educational reform throughout the world. Secondly, we discussed the key competencies defined by the East African Community as an example of competency-based curriculum reforms in African countries. Following this, their characteristics were clarified by comparing them with competencies prescribed by major countries and international organisations. We found that the competencies stipulated by all the countries and organisations including African countries, are very similar, and they can be divided roughly into three categories: basic literacy and numeracy, higher-order cognitive skills, and social skills. Thirdly, we examined practical challenges in the spread of competency-based educational reforms in African countries using Lersch’s learning model. Finally, we proposed three curriculum research issues in African countries to solve those problems: (1) curriculum for the acquisition of basic literacy and numeracy, (2) local competencies applying specifically to African countries, and (3) comparative analysis of competencies in African countries.

Keywords: competency-based curriculum, local competencies, curriculum reform, basic numeracy and literacy

1. Introduction

The term ‘competency’ has attracted attention due to the progress of globalisation in the 21st century and the qualitative changes in society, such as the emergence of a knowledge-based society. In recent years, our world has changed so rapidly, and it is difficult for even experts to predict what will happen in the near future. Therefore, individuals can use their knowledge to share their wisdom and work together to solve problems creatively to survive in a society.

In particular, this concept is being discussed throughout the world since it was advocated for in the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development’s (OECD) definition and selection of competencies (DeSeCo) project (Rychen & Salganic, 2003). In a society organised along the lines described above, one is not only required to gain knowledge defined by ‘what one knows’ but also to develop skills of ‘what one can do’ with that knowledge; hence, one is required to apply said knowledge and skills in real life and help to solve society’s problems. The idea of each individual learning in an idiosyncratic manner, acquiring information, synchronizing knowledge, and spawning new ideas and knowledge in an educational system is becoming an integrated goal (Collins & Halverson, 2009). To this end, the OECD DeSeCo project has merged these key competencies together and has had a major impact on the discussion of educational reform around the globe.

This trend is not limited to developed countries; it also applies to developing ones. In recent years, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) and the International Bureau of Education (IBE) have held workshops related to competency-based curriculum development in all African countries, and many of these nations administer competency-based curricula (UNESCO & IBE, 2013, 2015). Furthermore, L’Organisation Internationale de la Francophonie has provided financial assistance to 23 Francophone African nations, along with other types of support related to competency-based curriculum development (Bernard, Nkengne, & Robert, 2007; Roegiers, 2008). In addition, the East African Community (EAC) Common Curriculum Framework proposed by the EAC in 2013 as a regional framework in Africa has stressed the importance of competency-based curricula and suggested key competencies common to the EAC in primary education. The introduction of these curricula has also been actively discussed and promoted in nations aligned with the EAC.

With the rapid globalisations seen in recent years, most countries worldwide are becoming knowledge-based societies,

and this wave is moving toward African countries as well. However, factors such as children, teachers, schools, families, and societies vary across countries and regions; hence the issues and challenges facing competency-based educational reforms are not uniform across the globe.

In this article, we will focus on African countries, and we will discuss the problems they face in developing and implementing a competency-based curriculum to propagate the role of curriculum research. First, we will take a brief look at the global trends of thoughts related to competency-based curricula. Secondly, we will consider the challenges of developing and implementing a competency-based curriculum in African countries. We will take the EAC as an example. To conclude, we will propose the role of future curriculum studies in African countries and the challenges they face based on these considerations.

2. Global trends of thought in relation to competency-based curriculum reform

There are two major trends with respect to competency-based curriculum reforms: key competencies identified by the OECD's DeSeCo project and the skills proposed by an international research project known as Assessment and Teaching of 21st Century Skills (ATC21s). In this section, we will first examine the two competencies identified by major global organisations. In the next section, we will analyse and discuss key competencies identified by the EAC and other African countries.

2.1. Key competencies identified by the DeSeCo project

The DeSeCo project released a final report in 2003, defining the following key competencies: (1) the ability to use socio-cultural and technological tools interactively, (2) the ability to manage interpersonal relationships in heterogeneous social groups, and (3) the ability to act autonomously (OECD, 2005). The project also identified reflectiveness as the heart of the key competencies. Reflectiveness refers to the act of taking responsibility for one's own actions while positioning one's self at a certain distance from society and making a multidimensional judgment given different perspectives (Matsuo, 2016). It is believed that these competencies can be positioned in a three-dimensional coordinate and should be developed interactively with the other key competencies (Matsushita, 2010). Moreover, the competencies required to achieve personal goals for individuals have become complicated and are beyond the mastery of narrowly defined skills (Rychen & Salganik, 2003). Also, these three key competencies are mutually connected and are focused on considering how acquired knowledge and skills can be utilised in the real world and put into practice. As stated in one of the definitions, these competencies are not unidirectional, using socio-cultural and technological tools interactively. This means they are used by communicating with others and, therefore, contain cognitive and non-cognitive elements (emotional and social elements).

These competencies identified by OECD have been evaluated to include agreements from many countries' diverse perspectives, although they centrally involve major economic powers due to the nature of the OECD (Tatsuta, 2007). This means that from an economic perspective, individuals are expected to acquire core skills in the global capitalistic society, including productivity, market competitiveness, and suitable labour power. On the other hand, from the societal perspective, we can see that emphasis is placed on understanding public policy, democratic process and participation, social connectedness and justice, reinforcement of human rights, and autonomy in response to global inequality and personal alienation. Thus, these concepts have been defined as essential tools for every individual to acquire the ability to respond to essential and complicated demands and challenges and attain overall success. In other words, these can be described as global competencies applicable to both developed countries and all other regions around the world, including African countries.

2.2. 21st-century skills as defined in the ATC21s

21st-century skills refer to the skills required to survive in the 21st century, which is an era of digitalisation, as defined by the ATC21s. The ATC21s is a project undertaken by three major companies—Intel, Cisco Systems, and Microsoft—and several countries, including Australia, Finland, Portugal, Singapore, the United Kingdom, and the United States

(ATC21s, 2010). The research group devoted its effort to analyzing the role of standards and assessments in promoting learning, taking into consideration the use of technology in transforming assessment systems and education. The project stipulates that individuals mainly need to acquire four types of skills, shown in Table 1, to enhance their problem-solving and communication abilities. Miyake, who attended the development conference of the ATC21s, described these as in-demand skills across the globe, regardless of country or region, and called for schools to transform education based on these skills (Shirouzu, Miyake, & Masukawa, 2014). The basis for these skills is that we live in an age of uncertainty where unexpected problems arise one after another. There are many instances where opinions that we took for granted become obsolete. In such cases, we immediately have to respond with a new approach. Therefore, in this age of uncertainty, it is important to acquire enduring knowledge that can be used when needed, rather than temporary knowledge that is easily forgotten. These skills have been adopted in educational curricula in many countries worldwide.

Table 1. 21st-century skills stipulated by ATC21s

Skill	Content
Ways of thinking	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Creativity and innovation • Critical thinking, problem-solving, and decision making • Learning to learn, metacognition (knowledge about cognitive processes)
Ways of working	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communication • Collaboration (teamwork)
Tools for working	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Information literacy • Information and communication technology (ITC) literacy
Skills for living in the world	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Citizenship —local and global • Life and career • Personal and social responsibility, including cultural awareness and competence

Source: Binkley et al. (2012)

3. Competency-based curricula in African countries

As stated earlier, many African nations have changed their educational direction to develop competency-based curricula through recent reforms. Whatever change it may be, at least it is called competency-based. The years and names of recent curriculum revisions in African countries are summarised in Table 2.

Table 2. Recent curriculum reforms in Sub-Saharan African countries

Country	Year	Main Reforms
Angola	2005	Outcome-based approach
Benin	2014	Competency-based approach
Burundi	2004	Objectives-driven pedagogy
Cameroon	2013	Competency-based approach
DRC	2002	Whole-person development
Ethiopia	2009	Competency-based approach
Gabon	2013	Competency-based approach
Ghana	2014	Life skills
Kenya	2016	Competency-based approach
Lesotho	2009	Curriculum and assessment policy
Madagascar	2008	Competency-based approach
Malawi	2017	New secondary school curriculum
Mali	2011	Competency-based approach
Mauritania	2007	Competency-based approach
Mauritius	2007	Competency-based approach
Mozambique	2003	Competency-based approach
Namibia	2015	Revised curriculum for basic education

Country	Year	Main Reforms
Nigeria	2011	Trade subjects
Rwanda	2012	Competence-based, entrepreneurship education
Senegal	2005	Competency-based approach
South Africa	2011	Outcome-based education
South Sudan	2018	Competency-based approach
Swaziland	2010	Competency-based approach
Tanzania	2005	Competency-based curriculum
Uganda	2006	Thematic curriculum
Zambia	2013	Outcome-based curriculum
Zimbabwe	2006	Two-pathway education

Source: Based on Fleisch et al.. (2019, p.8)

Here, we will take up an example of the common curriculum framework proposed by the EAC in 2013 as a regional effort in Africa (Table 3). The ECA has a common vision in school education for the smooth transfer of education, economy, labour, and services among member countries. Based on this vision within school education and the idea of social capital as something desirable, a common curriculum framework for primary school education was proposed (EAC, 2014). The framework indicates seven key competencies: 1) communication, 2) mathematical competencies, 3) personal and social competencies, 4) learning to learn, 5) ICT, science, and technology skills, 6) creative and critical thinking, and 7) cultural considerations (EAC, 2014). The detailed descriptions of learning outcomes for each competency are shown in Table 3. The report mentioned that these seven competencies are developed by examining the goals and aims of education in society in five participating countries.

One of the characteristics of competencies defined by the community is a category called ‘cultural awareness’ described as ‘the ability to appreciate own and other people’s customs and traditions.’ Then, two learning outcomes are set, which are ‘develop a sense of identity and respect own culture’ and ‘appreciate, respect, and be tolerant of other people’s culture.’ (EAC 2014, p38). A competency focused so much on cultural awareness does not exist in other countries or international organisations shown in the next section. Therefore, it is a unique perspective, which exists only in the ECA. There are several possible reasons why cultural awareness was set as a competency. African countries are diverse, comprising many ethnic groups. Therefore, it is extremely important for each citizen to be culturally aware and respect the culture of their own country and ethnic group, as well as those of others. In addition, the acquisition of cultural awareness is one of the educational goals of all five countries in the ECA. Therefore, it is possible to make it common recognition as the ECA by setting ‘cultural awareness’ as a key competency. This point of view closely relates to the challenges of competency-based curricula in African countries and the roles of curriculum studies explained in Sections 5 and 6.

Another characteristic is the competency ‘creative and critical thinking.’ This includes terms like critical, courage, communication, creativity, and entrepreneurship. Although these competencies are essential for living in any society, one may argue that they are even more critical in African nations because of their greater diversity and more complicated social structures.

The descriptions under the ‘communication’ and ‘learning to learn’ competency categories, as defined by the ECA, are similar to the descriptions under the three key competencies proposed by the OECD’s DeSeCo project. This implies that non-cognitive abilities needed to carry out adequate and effective communication are also needed in diverse social and cultural groups in the ECA. The category ‘learning to learn’ has been defined as one of the key competencies, and this indicates that meta-learning has been identified as an important competency. A learning outcome connected to this competency is ‘to develop the desire and interest for lifelong learning and personal growth,’ which highlights the importance of acquiring autonomous thinking with a view to improving one’s learning ability as each individual undertakes lifelong learning.

Table 3. Competencies in the common curriculum framework for East African communities

Key Competencies	Learning Outcomes
Communication	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Communication means the ability to express and interpret concepts, thoughts, feelings, facts, and opinions in both oral and written language (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). - Focus on improving the learner's understanding of the language demands in the required learning areas.
Mathematical Competence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Develop and apply mathematical thinking in order to solve a range of problems in everyday situations. - Demonstrate an understanding of quantitative and logical aspects in different fields.
Personal and Social Competence	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Cover personal, interpersonal, and intercultural competence and all forms of behavior that enable individuals to participate effectively and constructively in social and working life, particularly in increasingly diverse societies, and to resolve conflict where necessary. - Psychosocial competencies that are commonly taught through life-skills education should be emphasized here.
Learning to Learn	Learning to learn is the ability to pursue and persist in learning and organize one's own learning, including effective management of time and information, both individually and in groups.
ICT, Scientific, and Technological Competencies	ICT, scientific, and technological competencies entail a confident, efficient, and effective use of science and technology to access, assess, produce, store, present, and exchange information and communicate and participate in collaborative networks.
Creative and Critical Thinking	These are integral to activities that require a learner to think broadly and use skills, behaviours and dispositions. They are fundamental in enabling a learner to become an independent thinker. They involve logical reasoning, resourcefulness, imagination, interpretation, analysis, explanation, and sequencing in all learning areas.
Cultural Awareness	Cultural awareness entails empowering learners to appreciate their own and other people's customs and traditions. The learner should appreciate and be tolerant of the similarities and differences in the various cultures.

Source: EAC (2014)

4. Commonalities and differences of competency

The definitions of competency by the three aforementioned organisations and several countries are shown in Table 4. Based on recent worldwide competency-based educational reforms, competency can be divided roughly into three segments: basic literacy, which deals with language, numbers, and information; higher-order cognitive skills, which centers on thinking and learning skills; and social skills, which are associated with the relationship with society and others, as well as autonomy in those relationships (NIER, 2016). Content categorised in 'basic literacy' consists mainly of skills that are acquired in the study of mathematics and ICT and the utilisation of information. 'Higher-order cognitive skills' include problem-solving abilities and critical thinking skills. Moreover, the ECA, Australia, and the United States define metacognitive skills as 'learning to learn' and as a discrete layer of competency. In terms of those two competencies, basic literacy, and higher-order cognitive skills, the classifications are quite similar for all organisations and countries.

That is, these competencies can be regarded as global competencies required to live a better life in the current or future society. The global characteristics in these competencies represent the common features found by abstracting a rough framework from the concrete lives of citizens in the capitalist society as generic skills and attitudes. However, they should be dependent on the context of societal and cultural differences among countries and regions, but they are ignored.

Even when social skills are dealt with, all countries and institutions use similar terms to represent global competencies. However, the sociality within social skills must be largely dependent on the social, cultural, and historical influences of each country and region. It is obvious that concepts such as collaboration and communication related to culture differ according to countries and regions and largely depend on local characteristics. They are deeply connected to school traditions, local customs, school culture fostered by locals, and the classroom culture formed by teachers and students. In other words, competencies classified into social skills are rooted in the society and culture of the country or region, and hence, can be seen to have strong local characteristics. The local nature of competencies will be discussed later in this article.

Table 4. Competencies stipulated in major organisations, countries, and regions

	DeSeCo	EU	Australia	USA	ECA
Basic Literacy and Numeracy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using tools interactively - Use language, symbols, and texts interactively - Use knowledge and information interactively - Use technology interactively 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Communication in the mother tongue - Communication in foreign languages - Mathematical competence and basic competencies in science and technology - Digital competence 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Literacy - Numeracy - ICT and technology 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Information literacy - ICT literacy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Mathematical competence - ICT, science, and technology competence
Higher-Cognitive Skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reflectiveness - Metacognitive skills (thinking about thinking) - Creative abilities and taking a critical stance 	Learning to learn	Critical and creative thinking	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Creation and innovation - Critical thinking and problem-solving - Learning to learn - Collaboration 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Critical and creative thinking - Learning how to learn
Social Skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Acting Autonomously - Acting within the big picture - Forming and conducting life plans - Defending and asserting rights, interests, limits, and needs - Interacting in heterogeneous groups - Relating well to others - Co-operating and working in teams - Managing and resolving conflicts 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Sense of initiative and entrepreneurship - Social and civic competencies - Cultural awareness and expression 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Ethical behavior - Personal and social skills - Intercultural understanding 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Career and life - Personal and social responsibility - Citizenship - Communication 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Personal and social skills - Recognition of your own and other people's culture - Communication

Source: Updated NIER (2013) by author

4.1. Challenges in competency-based curriculum reform in African countries: risk of underestimating basic knowledge and skills

Lersch (2010) interpreted competency as a unification of knowledge and ability and emphasised on the importance of acquisition and application of knowledge for the development of generic competencies. He also took into consideration the development of generic competencies in terms of ‘transfer of learning’ and represented it as an area bound by two arrows: the vertical arrow representing knowledge as ‘vertical learning transfer’ and the horizontal arrow representing ability as ‘horizontal learning transfer’ (Figure 1). Therefore, generic competencies are the combination of those two arrows, which means their application is beyond the limitation of school subjects and situations. A focus of this article is that although generic competencies can be beyond the school situation and utilized globally, there are competencies that specifically apply or are necessary to each country or region.

To interpret this in light of the significance of knowledge, if a person has not acquired sufficient knowledge (vertical learning), there is limited room for improving the ability to apply them (horizontal ability). As a consequence, the individual cannot be expected to develop generic competencies. This means that developing generic competencies presupposes the existence of underlying generic abilities, such as basic knowledge and skills. As a concrete example, many countries and institutions consider information literacy as basic literacy and critical thinking skills as higher-order cognitive skills. When a person needs to critically analyse graphical information, if she or he has not already acquired basic literacy, such as the skills to read a graph and understand the information, she or he will neither be able to understand the content of the graph nor critically interpret that information. When quantitative expansion and shift to generic competencies occur, there is a risk of underestimating the importance of acquiring basic knowledge and skills. This would be because of the focus on the superficial meaning of ‘competency-based’ education in spite of insufficient mastery of basic knowledge and skills. In addition, if the teachers are not sufficiently skilled, they may interpret generic skills in their own ways. The lessons would be in danger of lapsing into simply activity-based learning.

Though this is not applicable only in African countries, recent overemphasis on the term ‘competency-based’ may direct people’s attention to developing the ability to survive in the existing international competition and on education to develop a workforce. It forces people to pursue education for social adaptation from an early age. However, to interpret this in association with Lersch’s model, it is difficult for a person to acquire the ability to apply and use knowledge and skills in society unless she or he has already acquired profound basic knowledge and skills.

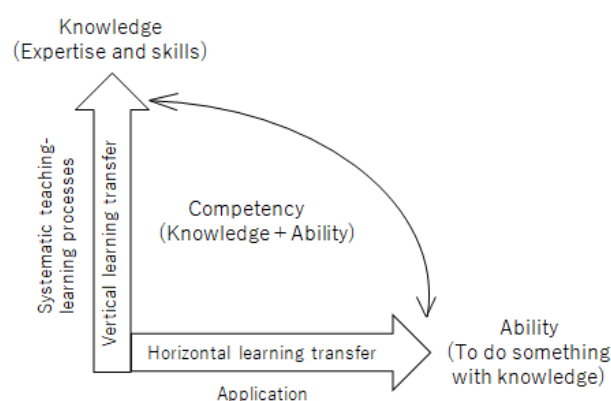


Figure 1. Acquisition of competency

Source: Lersch (2010)

4.2. Dilution of the viewpoint of locality in the notion of competency

So far, we have analysed the notion of competency from the global perspective, but the development of these competencies takes place in schools that exist in local spaces across a country. Furthermore, students’ daily lives also take place in local contexts. This means that global competencies must be realized in a local environment, that is, in a specific country or region. If the emphasis is laid only on the global nature of the term ‘global competencies’, and the attempt is

to foster these competencies not considering their local contexts, they may be able to attain only global competencies without satisfying the local needs.

In addition, there are many ethnic groups in Africa that have their own traditional society and culture. To live in such a society and maintain or take the tradition forward, there might be local competencies applicable only to the individual society. To ensure that these competencies are developed, it is vital to understand global competencies explained in previous sections from a local perspective and to purposely include them in education. In other words, it is essential to consider the relationship between globality and locality in competencies and to interpret global competencies from a local perspective and include them in school education. Some concrete examples to illustrate this point follow. As shown in Table 4, the category 'social skills' contain 'cultural awareness' and 'cross-cultural understanding'. It points to the ability to understand and know other cultures. The question is, how can we understand and know other cultures? The first step is to understand our own culture. The ability to understand and respect other cultures stems from respect and understanding of one's own culture. At the same time, it might also be possible that an understanding of other cultures would lead to a deeper understanding of our own culture. Furthermore, many institutions and countries identified 'problem-solving skills' as a kind of social skill, implying that the ability to solve global problems can be applied to local problems and vice versa. For example, when considering how to solve climate change, which is a global-scale issue, students should think about what they can do in their local context, such as reducing the amount of firewood for cooking, reducing waste, and so on. As the neologism '*glocal*' implies, we are living in an age where social connections with other communities are indispensable. Under the name of global competency, competencies that have a global perspective have been sometimes over-emphasized. However, it is necessary to also be aware of a person's locality to gain a deep understanding of competencies from a global perspective.

5. Conclusion: roles and challenges of curriculum studies in African countries

To conclude, I would like to present three possible research issues for future curriculum studies in African countries: (1) curriculum for the acquisition of basic literacy and numeracy, (2) local competencies, specifically in African countries, and (3) comparative analysis of competencies within African countries. (1) and (2) are related to contents of curricula, and they relate directly to the discussion in this article. (3) is an issue related to methodology of curriculum analysis; it is important to compare with not only developed countries but also neighbouring countries when finding the characteristics.

5.1. Curriculum for the acquisition of basic literacy and numeracy

The quality of education in African countries continues to be a top priority. Here it means that children have to gain basic literacy and numeracy during the early stages of primary education for development at a later stage. Therefore, further theoretical and practical research is needed to develop a curriculum that ensures this need. Strategies for promoting basic literacy and numeracy acquisition that are different from those of developed countries will be needed. It is imperative to conduct research from both theoretical and practical perspectives to design a curriculum that ensures children acquire basic literacy and numeracy in African countries. In this sense, surprisingly, we do not have much evidence of African children's learning conditions.

5.2. Local competencies applying specifically to African countries

As stated in the 'Dilution of the viewpoint of locality in the notion of competencies', it is necessary to interpret global competencies from a local perspective and ensure that it is included in school education. To address this, we again emphasize the importance of research.

The first aspect includes how global competencies defined by each institution and country can be realized in local communities in Africa. Each institution or country has defined global competencies as the abilities needed to live a better life in the 21st century. However, these are implemented through schools that exist in each individual region and country. Empirical research is required to capture global competencies from a local perspective and to develop and execute a curriculum tailored for each social environment.

The second aspect emphasises the particular competencies that can be applied to local and communal spaces in African countries. For example, Gerdes (1986) proposed to critically discuss the instances in school education where mathematics is taught in isolation from mathematical activities found in the life of each society. He developed an area of research termed 'Ethnomathematics'. In an era of globalisation that is rapidly transforming traditional cultures and societies rooted firmly in African countries, are there any particular competencies required to survive in each community? If there are, what are they? It is extremely important to consider them in today's globalised society. This is because each society's particular competencies become indicators of the differences between traditional cultures and global practices. As a result, we can reconstruct and inherit societies and cultures traditionally rooted in African countries without being swallowed up by the wave of globalisation.

5.3. Comparative analysis of competencies within African countries

The last point is related to the methodology of knowing the global trends and characteristics of each culture and developing a strategy for curriculum revision. In Section 2, we compared competencies as defined by international institutions and countries and focused on the similarities and differences among them. It is important to discuss the characteristics of different countries' curricula by identifying the similarities and differences as a strategy for curriculum development and revision. By analysing our own country's curricula at the meta-level through comparison with other countries' and the reasons and backgrounds for the differences, we will understand the characteristics and problems of our own country's curricula. This will enable us to develop strategies for improvement. Many developing countries try to use the strategies identified by comparing their curricula with those of developed countries during curriculum reform. However, the curricula in developed countries are based on extremely different environmental factors, including the school environment and non-physical factors, such as the quality of teachers. These are very different compared to what is seen in African countries; hence, it would not be feasible to straightforwardly apply the same strategies in the African context. When comparing to developed countries' curricula and referring the result, the focus and method of comparison need to be refined considering the social and cultural differences. In addition, although it is not recommended that the curricula of developed countries should be flatly rejected, a comparative analysis within African countries, especially neighbouring countries with similar cultural traditions and those dealing with similar conditions with respect to education, would provide beneficial suggestions for improving the current status of education.

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Contributing to Future Research Issues of JSAER Journal

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1. Internal efficiency of education

Attempts to answer questions about the future of education and education research in Africa can be a very intimidating prospect, and even one of the most challenging exercises for any researcher, simply because the problem of education and research in Africa is a complex one, requiring solutions at the global, regional, national level, and even more importantly, at the local level, within the context of each African country. We would like to acknowledge the significant efforts made by Dr. Miku Ogawa from Osaka University, Dr. Jun Kawaguchi from University of Tsukuba, and Mr. Satoshi Kusaka from Hiroshima University, each of whom did commendable work in shedding light on the issues of education and research in Africa with respect to education and the impact of various social changes within a global context, but also concerning the continuous professional development of teachers and the role of curriculum studies in the spread of competency-based educational reforms.

The questions that need to be asked are whether the root of the above-mentioned issues is the internal efficiency of education and also what are the solutions to addressing them, in the context of sub-Saharan Africa (SSA). According to UNESCO (2020), the internal efficiency of an education system is the optimal use of inputs (resources) in producing outputs (graduates). Some of the key inputs that determine the rate of educational development in a country include students, personnel, physical facilities, curriculum and finance. In this commentary we argue that, if educational systems are more internally efficient, they will produce better results, their students will attain a minimum level of knowledge, and most importantly, the students who pass through such systems will get good jobs and build better futures for them and their families. This is unfortunately not the case in SSA, where, for example, despite significant investments in public education, weak inputs such as poor facilities are still built, undertrained teachers are still employed, and inappropriate curricula, teaching methodologies and instructional materials are still adopted. As a matter of fact, school systems have become less flexible and responsive to change, and more resistant to improvements in quality. In light of the extremely rapid expansion of education on the continent, without increased efficiency the possibility for quality improvement is highly unlikely given the resource levels that are allocated to education. This indicates a need to understand the dynamics of internal efficiency in determining youth employment, teacher education and curriculum development in SSA.

Generally, in order to measure internal efficiency in education, a researcher needs to employ cost-effectiveness analysis on the cohort of students. Cost-effectiveness analysis refers to the consideration of decision alternatives in which both their costs and consequences are systematically taken into account. It is a decision-oriented tool, in that it is designed to ascertain which means of attaining a particular educational goal is the most efficient (Levin & McEwan, 2001). For example, there are many alternative approaches available to pursue such goals as raising the levels of reading and mathematics in a country. The cohort analysis on the other hand, simply tells the history of a particular level of education to the time the group of students left the level.

1.1. Education and youth unemployment

As rightly pointed out by Dr. Miku Ogawa from Hiroshima University, the discussion on social changes now taking place in Africa, and that discussion's influence on both the model of education and unemployment among educated young people, is timely. Considering the above, although access to education systems has expanded substantially in all SSA over the past five decades, for those children enrolled, the existing primary, secondary, and tertiary education systems continue to be plagued by low internal efficiency. This is particularly true given the fact that while the current generation of Africans entering the workforce has more years of schooling than ever, it is also the generation with less relevant functional skills for a productive life. To address this challenge, increased and consistent attention needs to be given to educational inputs in SSA, since low internal efficiency causes poor acquisition of knowledge and skills, leading to poor quality of labor,

and finally lowering employability. According to the World Bank (2014), half of the population in SSA is under 25 years of age. Moreover, the World Bank also estimates that each year between 2015 and 2035, there will be half a million more 15-year-olds than the year before. By the same token, when populations in much of the world are rapidly ageing, the African Development Bank (AfDB) claims that Africa is the continent with the youngest population, and is projected to have over 840 million youth by 2050. Thus, as new generations of Africans enter school and graduate in greater numbers, expectations of higher productivity and earnings must be matched with initiatives and efforts aimed at transforming educational inputs on the continent, to ensure that these expectations, and the aspirations are to some degree fulfilled. Without any such transformation, the rewards that young people can expect to reap in the labor market will surely fall as more graduates enter the workforce (Edudzie, 2019).

1.2. Education and teacher development

It is true, as aptly stated by Dr. Jun Kawaguchi from University of Tsukuba, that teachers' education in SSA suffers from several severe shortcomings, especially with regard to the new roles and competences of teachers, which in turn call for continuous development of the teaching profession that fits education for the 21st century. If we return to the discussion regarding internal efficiency in Education and the politics surrounding it, we would argue that, in the context of SSA, improvements in the quality of education and learning are crucially dependent on the inputs of teachers, whose quality has a significant relationship with the internal efficiency of education (Adeyemi & Adu, 2012).

In other words, a policy shift is needed to intensify efforts in teacher training and in-service support for teachers, to help them acquire higher qualifications that would enhance the internal efficiency of education. To begin, much work needs to be done to provide SSA teachers with professional development opportunities and the acquisition of information society skills (Society 4.0) through lifelong learning. Lifelong learning means a diversified education system with literacy as the keystone, adapted to the individual and available throughout the individual's life span. The lifelong learning agenda in SSA must encompass the whole spectrum of formal, non-formal, and informal learning from preschool to post-retirement, combining foundational skills, social and cognitive skills, and the skills needed for specific jobs, occupations, or sectors (Edudzie, 2019). The greatest benefits of lifelong learning, according to Laal (2012), can be summarized by the following three categories: lifelong learning facilitating the ability to cope with a fast-changing world, the enabling of higher pay by providing newer and better job opportunities, and the promotion of a more enriching and fulfilling life.

Moreover, in order to reap the full benefits of the above-mentioned teachers' professional development through lifelong learning skills, education systems in SSA need a shift to the use of a whiteboard instead of the usual papers and books. In addition, the education systems in SSA should ensure that teachers are trained to utilize new forms of literacy and teaching methods based on digital skills. It is argued that modern technological resources are a higher priority key to raising standards than paper-based resources, and an important limitation in SSA is the lack of teachers' confidence regarding their own skills in using information tools, and their inability to incorporate these tools in teaching. Furthermore, to ensure stronger linkages between teachers' competence and internal efficiency through life-long learning, there also needs to be a shift in the systems from lecture-based, theoretical, and passive learning, to experiential, immersive learning, including interactive, participatory courses, seminars, and simulation games across all disciplines. To put it another way, a competency-based education in which the position of a teacher changes from that of a lecturer to a learning coach and mentor would be ideal, as this would provide learners with concrete and successful learning experiences.

1.3. Education and curriculum implementation

Finally, as Mr. Satoshi Kusaka from Hiroshima University said so well in his presentation, both developing and implementing a curriculum in Africa remain Herculean tasks, especially in light of competency-based approaches. Returning again to the discussion on internal efficiency in education, it can be argued that, in SSA, the curriculum currently contributes to the low level of efficiency in the education system. This is attributable to the fact that the majority of operating curricula on the continent are not relevant to the needs of the labor market. In addition, teachers, who are the executors of a curriculum, are not usually involved in its design. This usually results in a disparity between the contents of the curriculum and what is actually taught and applied (Senimetu, 2017).

On the basis of the above, it is therefore important to insist that, if the curriculum constitutes a set of skills and knowledge that the students are expected to achieve by the end of a period, it is also an important input in the education system in SSA because it is a measurable standard that keeps students and teachers accountable for their learning. To this

end, the curriculum for education must reflect the needs of the individual and society as a whole in addition to staying abreast of the fast-paced and continuously evolving world, and this is not currently the case in SSA.

What we see now in SSA is potentially catastrophic. For instance, despite new realities ranging from economic and political globalization to technological shifts and demographic challenges, the curriculum content, some of which dates back to the colonial past, as well as the structure and delivery methodology of the educational system, have not changed in nearly half a century. Even after the main curriculum reforms in the early 2000s, no practical change has been observed. Consequently, many students have developed what Edgar Morin calls “ignorant knowledge” because of the type of curriculum used. One must also consider the fact that Africa is a multilingual and multicultural society where languages overlap and collide. In the example of the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), over 250 local languages are spoken, of which only four, along with French, are nationally used in the education curriculum as languages of instruction. Even so, in SSA, the inadequacy of a formal curriculum implies that from early grades, children are often taught in languages which are neither their first nor their mother tongue. This may have a considerable impact on school performance at all levels of the system and seriously affect the internal efficiency of education.

2. Expectations for our engagement in future education research in Africa

Based on the principle that any research should be conducted only to address an issue, as the case may be, the major concerns in SSA are still about access and quality in its education system. Despite the expansion of education systems in the region, the World Bank (2015) estimates that around 89 million youth, aged 12-24 years, are out of school. This is nearly half of all the youth on the continent. In addition to this, over 10 million children drop out of primary school every year. The World Bank also predicts that, in the next decade, an estimated 40 million more youth are expected to drop out and face an uncertain future due to inadequate skills. At the same time, even those who are fortunate enough to complete primary and secondary education often leave with literacy and numeracy skills far below expected levels. At this rate, it seems increasingly unlikely that Africa will achieve SDG 4.1 either now or before the end of the century. Goal 4.1 of the SDGs, states that by 2030, all girls and boys should complete free, equitable, and quality primary and secondary education leading to relevant and effective learning outcomes.

While there are well-documented access and quality factors in SSA schools that negatively affect the learning of children and youth in the region, efforts to address these factors, especially for out-of-school children and youth, are not always cross-sectoral, integrated, systemwide, or driven by leadership at the highest levels. For future education research in Africa, I expect our association (JSAER) to engage in research studies that show how educational inputs such as the quality of educational management, school curricula, teacher education, and methods of delivering education, impact the learning outcomes of children and youth, and how these issues are linked to challenges of future employment in the region.

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Comments on Areas of Focus for Future Research of JSAER

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On 11th October 2019, during the 24th Japan Society for Africa Educational Research (JSAER) conference, Dr Miku Ogawa, Dr Jun Kawaguchi and Mr Satoshi Kusaka shared their ideas on what the future of education and research in Africa should be focusing on for the socio-economic development of African countries. The three presenters suggested that research should focus on areas that could assist in: creating educational opportunities suitable for the changes in the society (Ogawa); developing teacher professional development policy for improving the teacher education (Kawaguchi); and developing relevant (local) curriculum for the acquisition of basic literacy and numeracy (Kusaka). The three areas seem to be pointing towards policy and curriculum development, the first step to policy and curriculum implementation. There is a saying that “every journey begins with the first step”. This means that if policy and curriculum development is effective, then policy and curriculum implementation follow suit. It is however evidenced through research studies and reports that policy and curriculum implementation in Africa face a lot of challenges. Most of them are believed to have been rooted in its developmental stage. Lack of ownership of policy and curriculum among implementers is one of them. This paper seeks to share evidence of what is missing at the developmental stage that causes this challenge. That will give a stand as to whether future research should specifically consider such areas or not. Besides, knowing areas of research is not enough, it is also crucial to take ownership of doing research which can bring forth the anticipated results of the suggested areas of future research into reality. This paper also seeks to share the current stand of ownership in research across some African countries and how JSAER can assist to establish the desirable ownership for the concerned stakeholders.

Boughton & Mourmouras (2002) in International Monetary Fund (IMF) Working Paper defined ownership as “a willing assumption of responsibility of policies by officials in a borrowing country who have the responsibility to formulate and carry out those policies, based on an understanding that the program is achievable and is in the country’s interest”. On the other hand, Molund (2000) defined ownership as the right to use, control, and transfer. Ownership is one of the strategies stipulated in the Paris Declaration required for supporting developing countries for effective use of aids to sustaining the countries’ development. This must begin at the development stage and relies on taking a balanced direct control and responsibility of the project from designing until the implementation period to sustain the progress of the project between the host and the intended beneficiaries. Unfortunately, a study by Kamai (2016) describes ownership in sub-Saharan Africa as a serious paradox. The study further describes that there is weak African ownership which is often quoted as a major disappointment in development and aids results. Similarly, ownership through allowing participation of all stakeholders as stipulated in education Ministries of various countries for effective implementation of policies and curricula is at stake. Evidence from some research studies and reports indicates lack of ownership in policy and curriculum implementation among implementers such as teachers and parents, especially in Sub-Saharan African countries. For example, in the case of Malawi, in 2001 Kadzamira & Rose found disjuncture and dilemmas in implementing the Free Primary Education because policy process was rushed and did not include wide spread consultation of local stakeholders (teachers and parents) who are also implementers. Worse enough, this policy resulted in some challenges still existing to date such as high teacher-pupil ratio, large classes, shortage of teachers, just to mention a few. Kadzamira and Rose’s evaluation might have helped in recognizing the inclusion of teachers and parents in policy making. Despite the education policy indicating advocacy of participatory approach, Nampota (2012) still noted lack of ownership of policy among parents in Malawi due to poor participation in policy formulation. Nampota observed that parents are only informed of policy implementation during school management meetings. In Kenya also, Omwancha (2012) noted lack of ownership among the community on raising awareness for the re-entry policy of girls who drop out of school. This advocating policy was observed to not have increased the number of girls in secondary schools. The assumption drawn from this incidence was that the community might not have taken part in the policy formulation. Similarly, in Nigeria, a study of Ajulor (2018) noted the unsuccessfulness of policies due to neglecting the participation of the target beneficiaries and that resulted in sabotage and disowning the implementation of such policies. In the same way, UNESCO IICBA (2016) documented lack

of ownership among rural, remote and peri-urban teachers in implementing the teaching policies for quality teaching and learning in Africa.

In terms of curriculum, a study by Hidiwakusha (2018) also found poor participation of primary school teachers in the national curriculum development process in Namibia. The study found 70 % of primary school teachers could not participate in the curriculum development process. It is likely that most primary school teachers in Namibia fail to take responsibility of policies. From the brief analysis of the literature review above, lack of participation at the policy formulation stage seems to be a common cause to lack of ownership of policy and curriculum among implementers. UNESCO noted that lack of teachers' participation especially in national curriculum development, has resulted in excluding familiar issues from classroom experiences that teachers can easily handle. Since policymakers in the ministries have little or no experience on the reality of school contexts, they fail to connect the real conditions and policy-making while inputting unrealistic views leading to lack of alignment between curriculum systems which also affects the ownership of the curriculum, and thus remains a fundamental weakness in teacher policy formulation in SSA.

Roach, Bradley, & Alexander (2008) defined alignment of curriculum as the extent to which curriculum learning objectives and assessment relate to guiding educators' efforts to facilitate students' progress towards the expected students' outcomes. Mhlolo & Venkat (2009) described alignment of curriculum as a genesis of quality in any educational system. Earlier on, in South Africa, Mhlolo & Venkata (2013) found that the higher-order thinking skills (HOTS), problem-solving skills, and critical thinking are not tested as consistently stipulated in the curriculum. The study perceived that lack of alignment on HOTS endangered the teaching and learning of such skills in the mathematics classrooms. Recently, Matachi & Kosaka (2017) also noted an exclusion of HOTS in the national assessments, despite the advocacy of developing the same skills in the secondary school mathematics and science curriculum of some developing African countries. Matachi and Kosaka later concluded that the weak alignment between the two-sectors of the curriculum is one reason for teachers' reluctance in using the learner-centred approaches and hence insufficient development of HOTS among students. Based on the above literature, the weak alignment of curriculum among policy, instructional practices and assessment seem to be a hindrance to quality teaching and learning process despite the provision of teacher professional development.

Having clarified some specific areas for future research, it is necessary to understand the extent of research development in Africa. Research studies have reviewed that there is lack of ownership in African at all levels, and that negatively affects the improvement of quality education. Previous studies revealed some clear signs of lack of ownership in improving research at the national level; on the governments and policymakers' part. Ngongalah, Emerson, & Musisi (2018) and Kumwenda et al. (2017) found that government and policymakers in African countries lack interest or motivation and uptake of research. Kumwenda et al. (2016) further found that lack of interest by the government and policy is due to research results, especially for young researchers, that cannot directly influence policy, and this discourages most young people to consider research as a key to development. This may be a reason why the African governments allocate insufficient funds in research. For example, Kumwenda et al. (2016) cited that in 2011, when worldwide expenditure on research was 1.77% of the total global gross domestic product; Kenya spent 0.1% of its GDP; and South Africa spent 0.76% of its GDP on research. Insufficient funds result in poor sustenance of research in institutions. The study noted that due to the lack of research funds, skilled African researchers eligible for promoting quality research and motivating novice researchers emigrate overseas in search of better opportunities other than research. As such, novice researchers lack mentorship and end up lacking interest in research. This leaves behind a gap that cannot be easily covered up unless the government takes up ownership in research.

Recommendations made by Ngongalah, Emerson, & Musisi (2018) and Kumwenda et al. (2016) were that the government should start showing interest and increase funding for research to keep both novice and skilled researchers within their career which may not happen in a fortnight. They also recommended collaborations between experienced and novice researchers which almost half of the respondents (44.8 %) indicated could help research production and output in Africa. The latter idea if possible should be a complement of the suggestion made during the 22nd JSAER held at Fukui University. JSAER can stand to be the best platform to enhance this collaboration and that will enlighten and motivate the African researchers 'less experienced in research' to own research as the key solution to education problems. Therefore, the author stresses the need for JSAER particularly from the Japanese side 'more experienced in research' to deepen the collaboration with African researchers to promote research that can be accepted by the government and policymakers. Thus, it will motivate the government(s) to increase funding for research.

In order to strengthen this collaboration, an appeal to African researchers who are members of JSAER is not to take

this opportunity for granted. It is required for African researchers to take a lead in research and possibly develop the self-driven zeal that will help them easily focus on the areas highlighted by the three presenters. In doing this, Malawi and other developing African countries will potentially improve the education system for socio-economic development.

Finally, it is observed that lack of participation of the relevant stakeholders and weak alignment of policies and curricula leads to lack of ownership among the implementers hence failure to achieve the anticipated objectives. It may be a good idea to extend the future research to finding appropriate solutions to improving participation of all stakeholders, particularly teachers and parents, and curriculum alignment between instruction and assessment in order to boost the persistent lack of ownership of policy, curriculum and research. Focusing on these specific areas may help to develop relevant teacher professional education policy, contextual curriculum and relevant skills for surviving in the 21st century as suggested earlier by Kawaguchi, Kusaka and Ogawa, respectively. Thus, it may improve the quality of education for the socio-economic development of African countries.

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セネガル現職教員研修支援の公平性効果¹⁾

—教員の内容理解、生徒の学習達成、中期的ダイナミズム—

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要旨

SDG4 が掲げる通り公平な教育機会の提供は地球規模の課題・目標だが、国際教育協力プロジェクトのもたらす公平性効果に関する実証研究の蓄積は乏しい。本稿ではセネガルの現職教員研修プロジェクトを事例に、教員、生徒の算数試験における得点を検討した結果、次のような公平性効果を描出した。介入前後で教員 (N=368)、生徒 (N=2,100) の成績は伸張し、同時に成績格差は縮減した。成績が向上した学校では、生徒間の成績格差が縮減した。プロジェクト介入においては効率性と公平性が同時に成立することが示唆される。さらに、介入直後には得点の標準偏差の縮減が顕著だが、その後縮減は一旦抑制され、介入後 7 年程度を経て再度、縮減傾向が回復する。また、介入直後には成績下位層の成績伸長が顕わだが、実践持続に伴い次第に成績上位層の伸長が優勢となる。その傍らで裨益から置き去られた学校が支援対象の 10% 程度あり、プロジェクト介入の公平性効果の限界を示す。教育プロジェクトの公平性効果の発現には、指標の平均のみならず格差にも着目し、置き去り群に対する追加的措置を講じつつ、7 年を超える継続的な取り組みが不可欠であると示唆される。

キーワード 公平性、格差、途上国、学びの危機、授業研究

1. はじめに

生徒の学力格差の縮減は、教員の授業実践が導く生徒の学習によりもたらされる。従って、現職教員研修には、日々の教員の授業実践の刷新を促す作用が期待される。本稿は、現職教員研修を支援する国際教育協力プロジェクト（セネガル）を題材に、同介入が教員の力量、生徒の学習達成にもたらす格差是正のありようを探求する。

セネガルを題材とした学校効果研究では、就学期間が学力格差の抑制に貢献する一方で、保護者の教育方針や家計状況、学校の質の影響は比較的小さい (Glick & Sahn 2009) という指摘がある。セネガルの進級・留年制度は厳格で 2 年連続の留年に自動的に退学処分となる。学力不振が退学可能性を高め、社会・経済的脆弱層にとっては不利な状況である。低学年時の学力担保が脆弱層の留年・退学の抑止や就学年数の伸長に貢献し、総体的な公平性向上に貢献する可能性が示唆される (Glick & Sahn 2010; 国際協力機構・国際開発センター 2012)。

セネガルの現職教員研修については、授業実践に重きを置いた教師教育への移行が課題である。Akyeampong et al. (2013) はセネガルを含むアフリカ諸国 6 カ国の教師教育の分析から、新任者研修が、現場で支配的な教員中心型の授業実践を誘発し、着任後の授業では生徒が置き去られ、貧困層子弟の学習達成は限定的であると指摘する。また、Miyazaki (2016) は本稿と同一プロジェクトの事例研究であり、グループ活動など「児童中心型」の授業法を教員は実践できるようになった一方で、生徒の学びに応じた実践に乏しく、生徒の学習達成は制約的であったと指摘する。国際協力機構はセネガルを含めアフリカ諸国で理数科を対象に現職教員研修を支援しているが、これを総括する先行研究 (Matachi & Kosaka 2017; 小野 2019) も、上述 Miyazaki (2016) と同様の指摘をする。さらに、現職教員研修支援が生徒の学習にもたらす影響データの収集や、効果の検証が不十分であると複数の研究が指摘する (ODE 2015; Carrillo et al. 2016; 高坂・松原 2018)。例えば ODE (2015) はアジア地域を対象とした豪州による教員研修支援事業の総括的論考だが、これら事業は教員の変容に注目する一方で、生徒の変化や学習達成を看過しがちであったと指摘する。

翻って、世界各国の教員政策・施策を事例に、生徒の学習達成の関連を検討する先行研究には一定の蓄積があり、メタレビューも存在する。例えば、Naylor & Sayed (2014) は、現職教員研修領域の政策、施策、プロジェクト等の介入効果を検討したメタレビューである。同論文は生徒の学習達成において教員は中心的な役割を担うとして、教員の重要性を再確認する一方で、現職教員研修政策・施策の、生徒の学習にもたらす効果は様でなく、介入の質にばらつきがあると指摘する。また、Carrillo et al. (2016) は現職教員研修施策に関する先行研究 21 編 (計 47 分析、先進国 35、途上国 12 を含む) のメタレビューである。同論文は、現職教員研修は、算数 (読み書きよりも)、初等教育 (中等よりも)、期間が長い (60 時間以上)、教科内容理解 (教育学的知識よりも) である場合に、学習達成に貢献する可能性が高まると指摘する。

これら先行研究を通じ、生徒の成績は代表値 (平均値) で捕捉される一方、その背後の格差や公平性を扱うものは管見の限り見あたらなかった。システマティックレビューを試みたある研究者が、先行研究の蓄積に乏しいため、教育分野の諸介入の公平性効果の検討を断念せざるを得ないと言及するほどである (Petrosino et al. 2012)。途上国、先進国を問わず、現職教員研修施策、ひいては教育全般の諸介入の公平性効果について、実証蓄積の必要性が指摘されている (Naylor & Sayed 2014)。

2. 本稿の意義、研究設問と方法

セネガルでは、貧困層の学習改善に貢献する現職教員研修の重要性 (Akyeampong et al. 2013) が指摘され、学力が進級・落第・退学に強く影響 (Glick & Sahn 2010) するところ、低学力層の成績向上が公平な教育提供の鍵を握る。しかし、上に見た通り、現職教員研修を含め教育介入のもたらす公平性効果についての先行研究は、セネガル内外にて乏しい。ほとんどの国際教育協力プロジェクトでは、教員に対するなんらかの研修・講習機会が内在する点を鑑みるに、現職教員研修や国際教育協力プロジェクトのもたらす公平性効果の探求、実証の意義をここに見出せる。そこで本稿では、「どのような介入が効果的か?」「学校因子と社会経済因子のどちらが優勢か」を問う学校効果研究の分析枠組みを下敷きに、プロジェクト介入の前後でどのような公平性効果が顕れるかを探求する。

ところで、本稿は公平性をプロジェクトの効率性と対照して検討する。効率性は総量や平均・中央値などの中心性傾向を示す統計量の大きさ、他方公平性は、分散、ジニ係数などの散らばりを示す統計量・測度の小ささに関わる。この両者は、論理的には必ずしもトレードオフでないが、公共政策が常に双方を同時に改善するとは限らないという意味で消極的に対置される (橋野 2013)。本稿では、効率性を橋野 (2013) の整理した 5 つの効率性定義²⁾の内「3. 平均的水準の優位としての効率性」の意味で用いる。平均的等の代表値による効果測定分析が主流である実情の傍らで、およびどんな層が裨益するのか／しないのかという本稿の関心にとって、左記効率性定義が最適であるためである。その理解の上で、本稿は「現職教員研修支援の介入前後で、教員の力量、生徒の学力の格差はどのように変化するか?」を主設問におく。具体的には、標準偏差が縮減する変化を公平性効果として便宜的に捉える。例えば平均値が伸長し、標準偏差が縮減する場合には全体の効率と公平は両立することになる。

なお、後述の通り本稿の事例は、公平性の改善を実務上のプロジェクト目的や成果として明示していない。予めプロジェクトデザインが明示しない効果を検討する点で、本稿は実務的なプロジェクト評価とは一線を画す点に留意を要する。しかし、もとより公平性は教育の営為を基底する一理念である (Williams & Cummings 2005; Barrett et al. 2006 ほか)³⁾。また 2015 年に採択された SDG 4 は「すべての人々への包摂的かつ公正な質の高い教育を提供し、生涯学習の機会を促進する」と目標文言において「公正」に言及した。個別の国際教育協力プロジェクトによる公平性実現への期待が、今後顕在化する展開も予見できよう。従って、実務的な目標・成果設定における公平性標榜の有無を問わず、プロジェクトの公平性効果を建設的に問う試みには、学術・実務両面での意義を認められよう。

3. 理数科教育改善プロジェクト (PREMST)

3.1. 事例の概要

セネガル国教育省は、就学需要の急増⁴⁾に応答し、通常 9 か月間の教職課程を 6 か月間に短縮、これを修了した者をボランティア教員ないし契約教員として登用してきた (1995 年～2012 年)⁵⁾。手薄となった教職

課程を現職教員研修により補完すべく、同国教育省は省令により、CAP (*Cellules d' Animation Pédagogique* : 教員活動クラスター) で実施される研修 (以降「CAP 研修」と呼称) への参加を教員に義務付けている。CAP 研修には、月 4 回の研修をホストする中心校とこれに参加する複数の周辺校の教員が参加する。セネガルの教員は任用後、順次契約教員、正規教員への登用機会を得るが、その登用試験には授業実技が含まれる。多くの CAP 研修は、授業実技試験のリハーサル の機会として、年配のベテラン教員が若年教員の授業実技をやや権威的に批評する場として機能し、あるいはそれすら形式化していた (国際協力機構 2013)。

そこで、教育省は授業研究の導入による CAP 研修の活性化に着手し、国際協力機構は、理数科教育改善プロジェクト PREMST (*Projet de Renforcement de l' Enseignement des Mathématiques, des Sciences et de la Technologie*) フェーズ 1 (2007-2011)、同フェーズ 2 (2011-15) を通じた技術支援を提供した。プロジェクトのフェーズ 1 は、教員の理数科教授能力の向上を目的に、(i) CAP 研修に授業研究を導入し、(ii) 教科知識の強化と、授業実践方法を解説した研修教材「モジュール」(計 15 冊)を開発した (Miyazaki 2016)。続くフェーズ 2 は「理数科に関して生徒の学習を支援するための教員の指導力が向上する」を目的に、4 つの成果 (「再構成された CAP 研修の制度化」「トレーナーの研修実施運営能力の強化」「教員の教科内容および教授法にかかる知識の向上」「授業研究の CAP 研修および校内研修での定期的な実施」) を掲げた。

フェーズ 1 で策定された 15 冊の研修教材 (「A モジュール研修」) に加え、フェーズ 2 では授業研究に関する校長向けの研修 (「B 授業研究研修」) が追加策定された (国際協力機構 2010, 2015)。これら教材に基づく研修は、講義、演習、ワークショップから構成され、1 日間から 6 日間の「州研修」「県研修」が展開した。中央トレーナー (11 名) が「州研修」において県トレーナー (約 600 人) に対し「A」「B」の伝達研修会を催し、県トレーナーは、「県研修」を通じて全国約 2,000 人の校長や指導主事に伝達する。そして、校長や指導主事は、自校が参画する CAP 研修の改善に取り組む。このように、本事例の研修構造は、州、県、CAP の三層が構成するいわゆる「カスケード研修」の構造である。教員は、CAP 研修に定期的に参加し自身の教科知識を補完し、授業実践を省察し、もって日常の授業実践と生徒の学習改善に変容を及ぼす、という具合に、教員経由で生徒の学習改善が企図された。「A」「B」の各研修は、フェーズ 1、2 を通じ、段階的な地域的拡大が企図された (国際協力機構 2011)。これら研修の展開と、本プロジェクトの事前・事後調査 (後述) のタイミングは表 1 に示す通りで、フェーズ 1、2 の介入時期に応じた分析が可能である。

表 1 事前調査 (2012 年 2 月) と事後調査 (2015 年 2 月) のタイミング

	フェーズ 1	フェーズ 2			
	2007-11	2012	2013	2014	2015
パイロット 3 州	A (策定・実施)	B (策定)	B (策定)	B (実施)	B (実施)
第 1 次拡大 5 州		A (実施)	A (実施)	B (実施)	B (実施)
第 2 次拡大 6 州				A (実施)	A (実施)
事前・事後調査		▲事前 (2 月)			▲事後 (2 月)

(注) パイロット 3 州 : ティエス、ファティック、ルーガ

第 1 次拡大 5 州 : カオラック、カフリン、ジュルベル、マタム、サンルイ

第 2 次拡大 6 州 : ダカール、タンバクンダ、ケドゥグ、ジギンチョール、コルダ、セドゥ

(出所) 筆者作成

3.2. 分析方法とデータの制約

本稿が集計したのは、PREMST フェーズ 2 の事前調査 (2012 年 2 月) と事後調査 (2015 年 2 月) データである。同調査では、州、県、学校の各階層の無作為抽出により、8 州・県から合計 113 校、教員約 600 人、生徒約 2000 人が調査対象となった (表 2、表 3) ⁶⁾。なお、本稿には次のような分析上の限界・制約がある。教員や生徒の社会経済的背景や学校属性を勘案した分析は多くの示唆をもたらそうが、これら情報は本事例では収集されていない。またデータには統制群は含まれないため、本稿では介入前後の変化に焦点をあてる。

表2 PREMST2の事前・事後調査の調査対象数

	州	県	教員			生徒		
			学校数	事前	事後	学校数	事前	事後
パイロット3州	Fatick	Foundiougne	9	34	30	7	107	81
	Louga	Linguère	14	95	99	13	294	302
第1次拡大5州	Matam	Kanel	15	90	95	15	378	370
	Kaolack	Nioro	15	81	73	15	350	298
	Kaffrine	Koungheul	15	73	77	12	217	242
第2次拡大6州	Tamba	Goudiry	15	45	57	6	154	154
	Dakar	Guédiawaye	15	143	143	15	448	442
	Kolda	Kolda	15	51	59	8	201	182
合計			113	612	633	91	2,149	2,071

(出所) 筆者作成

表3 本事例で検討した調査の対象と方法論

調査対象	方法論
生徒	試験(算数): 各調査対象校の(調査時点の)小学6年生
教員	教員用試験 授業観察(LOS*): 試験を受けた生徒を担当する教員

(注) LOS: Lesson Observation Sheet

(出所) 筆者作成

4. 分析結果

教員(試験、LOS一後述)及び生徒(試験)の得点の集計結果を表4に示す。

表4 教員(試験、LOS)、生徒(試験)の得点(事前・事後)

	教員						生徒			
	得点(両方受験者)		学校平均		LOS		得点		学校平均	
	事前	事後	事前	事後	事前	事後	事前	事後	事前	事後
平均	23.78	25.05	23.36	24.83	1.31	1.40	11.53	12.56	11.29	12.48
標準誤差	0.27	0.25	0.38	0.36	0.04	0.04	0.09	0.09	0.32	0.28
中央値	24	25	24	25	1.30	1.45	11.5	13	10.9	12.5
最頻値	25	27	24	25	0.67	1.00	11	13	12.4	14.6
標準偏差	5.21	4.82	3.88	3.68	0.47	0.40	4.52	4.12	3.10	2.71
分散	27.14	23.20	15.09	13.51	0.22	0.16	20.43	17.56	9.55	7.34
範囲	30	29	22	22	2.05	1.75	26	25	12.4	13
最小	5	8	11	16	0.31	0.47	0	1	5.24	6
最大	35	37	33	37	2.37	2.22	26	26	17.6	19
標本数	368	368	102	102	113	113	2149	2071	91	91
T検定										
T(自由度)	5.15(367)		4.63(101)		2.09(113)		11.96(4518)		4.06 (90)	
P(T<=t)	0.000**		0.000**		0.038*		0.000**		0.000**	

(注) *5%水準で有意、**0.1%水準で有意

(出所) 著者作成

4.1. 教員、生徒の教科知識理解の変化

集計によると、教員(40点満点)、生徒(30点満点)の平均得点はともに介入前後で伸長し、かつ、標準偏差は縮減した(表4、図1)。教員(N=368、事前・事後の試験両方受験者のみ)の得点は23.78から25.05へ、生徒(事前N=2,149、事後2,071)の得点(平均)は11.52点から12.57点へとそれぞれ伸長した。教員、生徒ともに事前事後の平均点には有意差が認められる。得点分布は教員、生徒ともに右方に遷移しているの

で（図 1）、総体的な成績の伸長と、支援対象内の格差縮減がなされたといえる。並行して、教員の授業内容にも変化を見ることができる。本プロジェクトの授業観察シート LOS は授業評価ツールで、3 つの領域（教案の質（9 項目）、教員の態度（14 項目）、生徒の態度（9 項目）、合計 34 項目から構成される。この評価ツールに基づく LOS スコアは 1.31（N=113）から 1.40 に伸長する傍ら、標準偏差は 0.47 から 0.40 に縮減した（表 4）。つまり、LOS にみる授業の質も全体として向上し、教員間の授業の質のばらつきは縮減した。

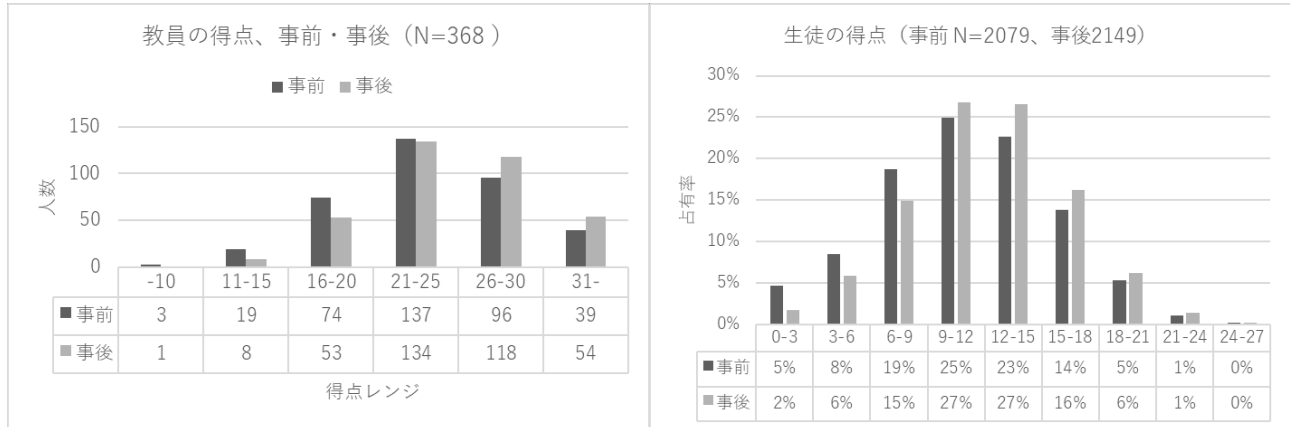


図 1 得点の分布【左：教員（40 点満点）、右：生徒（30 点満点）】

（出所）筆者作成

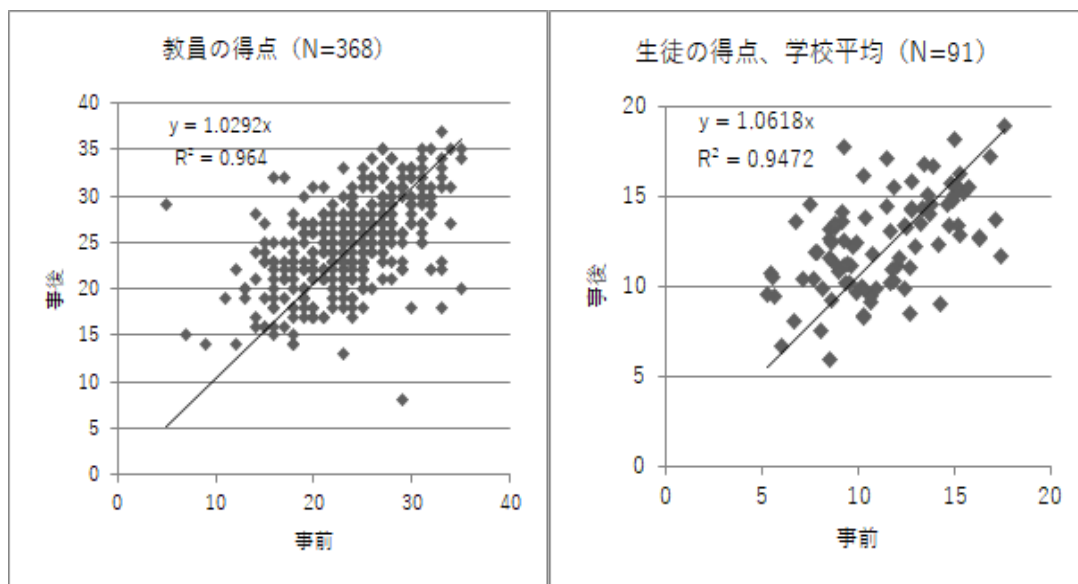


図 2 事前・事後の得点の散布図【左：教員（40 点満点）、右：生徒（30 点満点学校平均点）】

（出所）著者作成

4.2. 生徒得点（学校平均）と得点格差（校内）の動向

生徒の得点伸長を反映し、生徒の得点（学校平均）の高い学校が事後に増えている。事後の生徒得点（学校平均）分布に着目すると、9～15 点の中位群を中心に 9 点未満の下位群、15 点以上の上位群の 3 群から全体が構成されたとみることができる（図 3）。この便宜的な類別に従って生徒得点の標準偏差（事前・事後）を集計した。その結果、介入前後で上位を維持ないし上昇した学校は、校内格差縮減を達成し、対照的に、下位を維持ないし下位に脱落した学校では、校内の学力格差が縮減していない様子を見てとれる（図 4）。

介入前後で伸長、好調を維持した学校には、3. 事後に下位群（9 点未満）から中位群に上昇（20 校）、6. 事後に中位群から上位群（15 点以上）に上昇（8 校）、7. 事前事後ともに上位群（15 点以上）を維持（9 校）が

該当する⁷⁾。これらの学校の生徒の成績のばらつき（標準偏差）はいずれも事後に縮減した。他方、介入前後を通じて低迷、ないし下降した学校は、1. 事前事後ともに下位群（9 点未満）（4 校）、2. 事後に中位群から下位群（9 点未満）に脱落（4 校）、5. 事後に上位群（15 点以上）から中位群に脱落（6 校）が該当する（図 4）。伸長・好調維持の学校群と比較すると、この低迷・脱落学校群の標準偏差の縮減幅は抑制的で、とくに「2. 中位群から下位群に脱落」の 4 校では、標準偏差の増加が顕わである。学校単位での学力向上には、学校内の学力格差の縮減が不可欠であるといえよう。

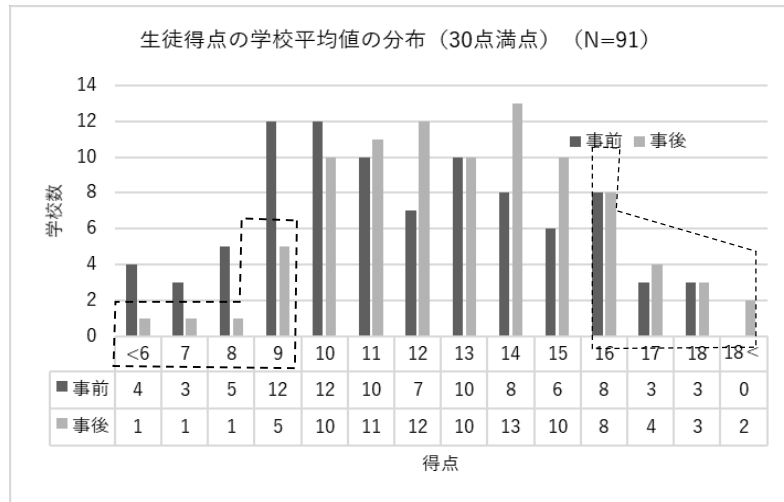


図 3 生徒得点の学校平均値の分布

（出所）筆者作成

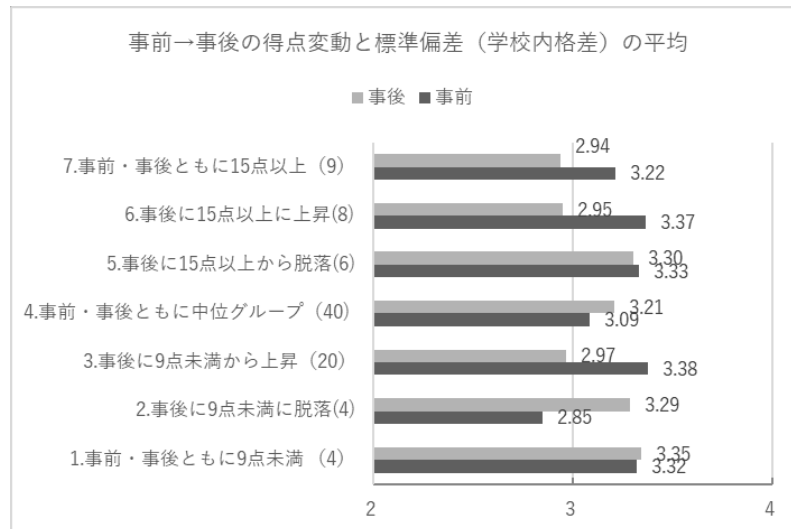


図 4 事前・事後の得点動向と標準偏差

（出所）筆者作成

4.3. 介入到達後の期間に応じた公平性効果

先述の通り、本事例には、介入の到達時期が異なる 3 つの州群が存在する（パイロット州、第 1 次拡大州、第 2 次拡大州）。フェーズ 1 以来参画する「パイロット 3 州」では、事前調査時点で、学校への介入到達（教員の CAP 研修等への参加開始）からおおよそ 4 年、事後調査時点では 7 年が経過している。対照的に、最後発の「第 2 次拡大州」では事前調査時点で介入未達、事後調査時点では 1 年が経過というように、調査時点における介入期間の違いが存在する。表 5 に 3 つの州群（便宜的に「端緒期」「移行期」「継続期」と呼称）について、介入到達後から調査時点までのおよその期間を示した。

表 5 3つの州群と学校への介入到達時期

	「端緒期」 第2次拡大6州	「移行期」 第1次拡大5州	「継続期」 パイロット3州
支援開始フェーズ	フェーズ2	フェーズ2	フェーズ1
学校への介入到達時期	2014	2012	2008
事前調査（2012）は介入到達から	未到	未到	4年
事後調査（2015）は介入到達から	1年	3年	7年

(出所) 筆者作成

また各州群の教員と生徒の得点の分散、標準偏差（事前・事後）等の集計結果を表6、図5に示す。

表 6 得点平均と標準偏差の変化（3つの州群の比較）（教員、生徒）

	教員						生徒					
	「端緒期」 第2次拡大		「移行期」 第1次拡大-		「継続期」 パイロット		「端緒期」 第2次拡大		「移行期」 第1次拡大-		「継続期」 パイロット	
	事前	事後	事前	事後	事前	事後	事前	事後	事前	事後	事前	事後
平均	23.08	24.11	23.67	25.49	25.38	26.26	11.92	12.40	10.72	11.93	12.64	14.36
標準誤差	0.450	0.399	0.407	0.401	0.543	0.499	0.181	0.147	0.128	0.136	0.205	0.207
中央値	23	24	24	26	25.5	26	12	12	11	12	13	14
最頻値	25	25	24	26	23	27	11	12	8	11	11	13
標準偏差	5.676	5.034	4.657	4.588	4.795	4.403	5.143	4.103	3.940	4.116	4.101	4.046
分散	32.21	25.34	21.68	21.05	22.99	19.39	26.45	16.83	15.52	16.94	16.88	16.3
範囲	30	27	24	21	21	21	26	23	23	25	26	24
最小	5	8	11	14	14	16	0	1	0	1	0	1
最大	35	35	35	35	35	37	26	24	23	26	26	25
データの個数	159	159	131	131	78	78	803	778	945	910	401	383
F検定 分散比	1.271		1.030		1.186		1.032		0.917		1.571	
P(F<=f) 片側	0.066		0.433		0.228		0.380		0.092		0.000***	
F境界値 片側	1.300		1.336		1.458		1.182		0.898		1.124	
T検定 t (自由度)	-1.703 (316)		-3.180 (260)		-1.182 (154)		-5.877 (1523)		6.511(1841)		-2.042(7819)	
P(T<=t) 両側	0.0894		0.002**		0.239		0.000***		0.000***		0.041*	
t境界値 両側	1.967		1.969		1.975		1.963		1.961		1.962	

(注) *5%、**1%。***0.1%水準で有意

(出所) 筆者作成

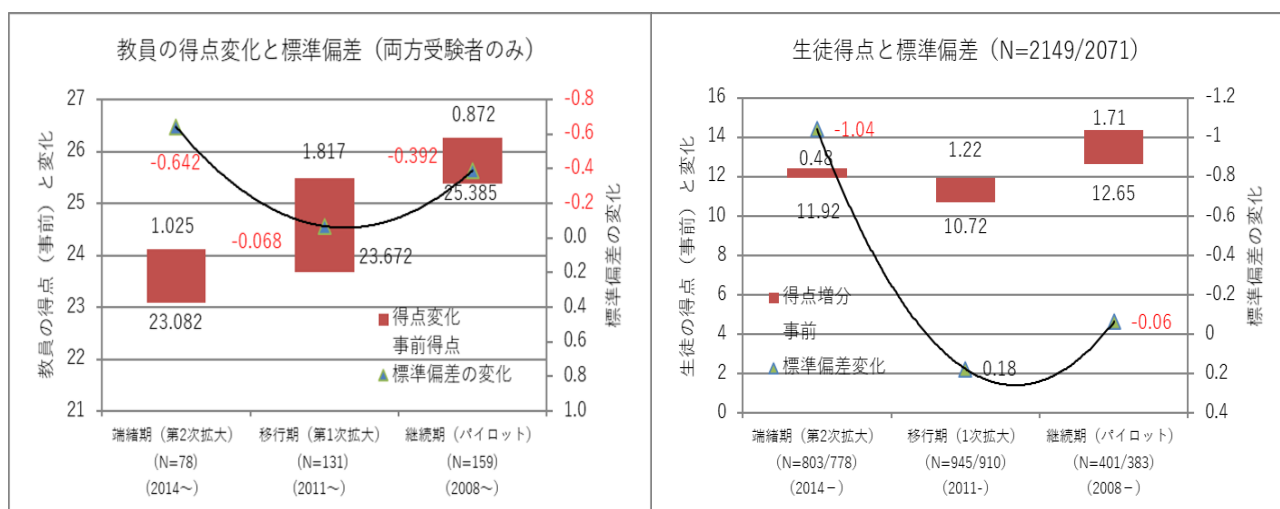


図 5 得点平均と標準偏差の変化（3つの州群の比較）（左：教員、右：生徒）

(出所) 筆者作成

教員についてみると（表 6、図 5 左）、すべての州群で事後の平均得点が伸長するが、その幅は移行期において相対的に大きい（1%水準で有意差）。他方、生徒得点（図 5 右）も教員と同様、すべての州群で平均得点が伸長するが（端緒期、移行期は 0.1%水準、継続期では 5%水準で有意）、継続期の伸長幅が最大である。教員（介入後 3 年程度の移行期が最も顕著であった）に比較すると生徒の成績伸長が顕著となる時期は遅く、時間差が存在する。

続いて得点の分散をみると、継続期の生徒を除き、事前・事後に有意差は認められなかった（F 検定）。その上で、3 州群の教員、生徒得点の標準偏差には次の動向が認められた（表 6、図 5）。まず、介入到達後の時間が短い端緒期（第 2 次拡大州）の得点の標準偏差は事前・事後で縮減した。第二に、しかしながら移行期（第 1 次拡大州）には標準偏差の縮減は抑制的である。第三に、継続期の学校（パイロット 3 州）では標準偏差の縮減幅が再度回復する。このように、介入前後の標準偏差の変化には、端緒期の縮減、移行期の縮減抑制、継続期の縮減回復へと至る U 字状を描く時系列的なダイナミズムが存在する（筆者はこれを便宜的に「公平性効果の U カーブ」と呼称する）。これらの生徒、教員の得点（平均、標準偏差）の動向からは、介入の効率と公平性の両立には 7 年程度の中期的な取り組みを要すると示唆される。

5. 結論と考察

以上の検討から、本事例の介入前後では次に示す公平性効果が認められる。教員、生徒の成績は総体的に改善傾向を示し、同時に標準偏差、成績格差は介入前後で縮減した（4.1）。また介入前後の得点伸長に乏しい学校、ないし低下した学校では、校内の成績格差の改善が進展せず、対照的に伸長した学校では校内の格差が縮減した（4.2）。以上はプロジェクト介入では効率性と公平性は両立することを示す。さらに、標準偏差にみる公平性効果は、介入直後にいわば瞬発的に露わとなるが、その後停滞し、継続期に向け再度回復基調に戻る中期的ダイナミズム（U カーブ）が描出された（4.3）。以上が本稿の研究設問、「プロジェクトの公平性効果」の探求結果である。

ところで、介入到達後まもない「端緒期」の学校では、生徒の成績伸長は限定的だが標準偏差が縮小している（表 6、図 5 右）。これは、「成績格差の縮減は学校総体の成績伸長に不可欠である」という本稿の第 2 の結論と矛盾するようにも見える。そこで、得点レンジ毎の生徒の占有率（事前・事後）を集計した（次頁 図 6）。

端緒期（図 6 左上）では事後の平均（12.40）を含む 12-15 レンジの占有率の伸長が顕著である。同時に下位の得点レンジの生徒占有率は縮減する一方で、上位の得点レンジの占有率は伸長に乏しい。全体として、端緒期の学校では、生徒得点は全体的に右方に遷移するのではなく、平均に寄せて分布し、結果標準偏差を縮減する作用をもたらしたといえる。

さらに、各州群について生徒占有率の変動が顕著な得点レンジに着目すると、介入到達後の期間が長くなるほど、右方（得点の高いレンジ）に遷移する傾向が観察できる（図 6 右下、表 7）。生徒占有率の縮減が顕著なのは、端緒期では低得点レンジ（0-3、3-6）だが、継続期では 6-9 レンジ、継続期には 9-12 レンジへと遷移する。同様に、占有率が伸長する得点レンジは、端緒期においては、12-15 レンジだが、移行期には 15-18 レンジ、継続期には 18-21 レンジへと右方に遷移する。

表 7 得点レンジ別の生徒占有率の変動%ポイント（事前・事後）

州群 \ 得点レンジ		0-3	3-6	6-9	9-12	12-15	15-18	18-21	21-24	24-27
端緒期	2 次拡大	-3.5%	-4.3%	-1.2%	1.9%	7.8%	2.8%	-2.6%	-0.6%	-0.5%
移行期	1 次拡大	-0.3%	-2.2%	-8.2%	-2.3%	1.8%	7.2%	3.0%	0.5%	0.4%
継続期	パイロット	-0.5%	-2.7%	-7.0%	-5.1%	-0.4%	1.5%	11.1%	1.9%	1.3%

（出所）筆者作成

再度、図 6 に戻り、低得点層の代表として、各州群の 6-9 レンジの生徒の占有率に着目すると、端緒期の占有率には事前、事後で大差ないが（12%→11%）（図 6 左上）、継続期では事後に占有率が半数以下に減少

する（11%→4%）（図 6 左下）。同様に高得点層の例として、18-21 レンジの生徒占有率に着目すると、端緒期の学校では微減傾向を示すが（12→9%）、継続期にある学校では倍増（8→19%）の勢いである。介入到達後の期間が長いほど、成績低位層、上位層両方の学習達成を促し、総体的に生徒得点を底上げする作用が強まる動向が認められる。

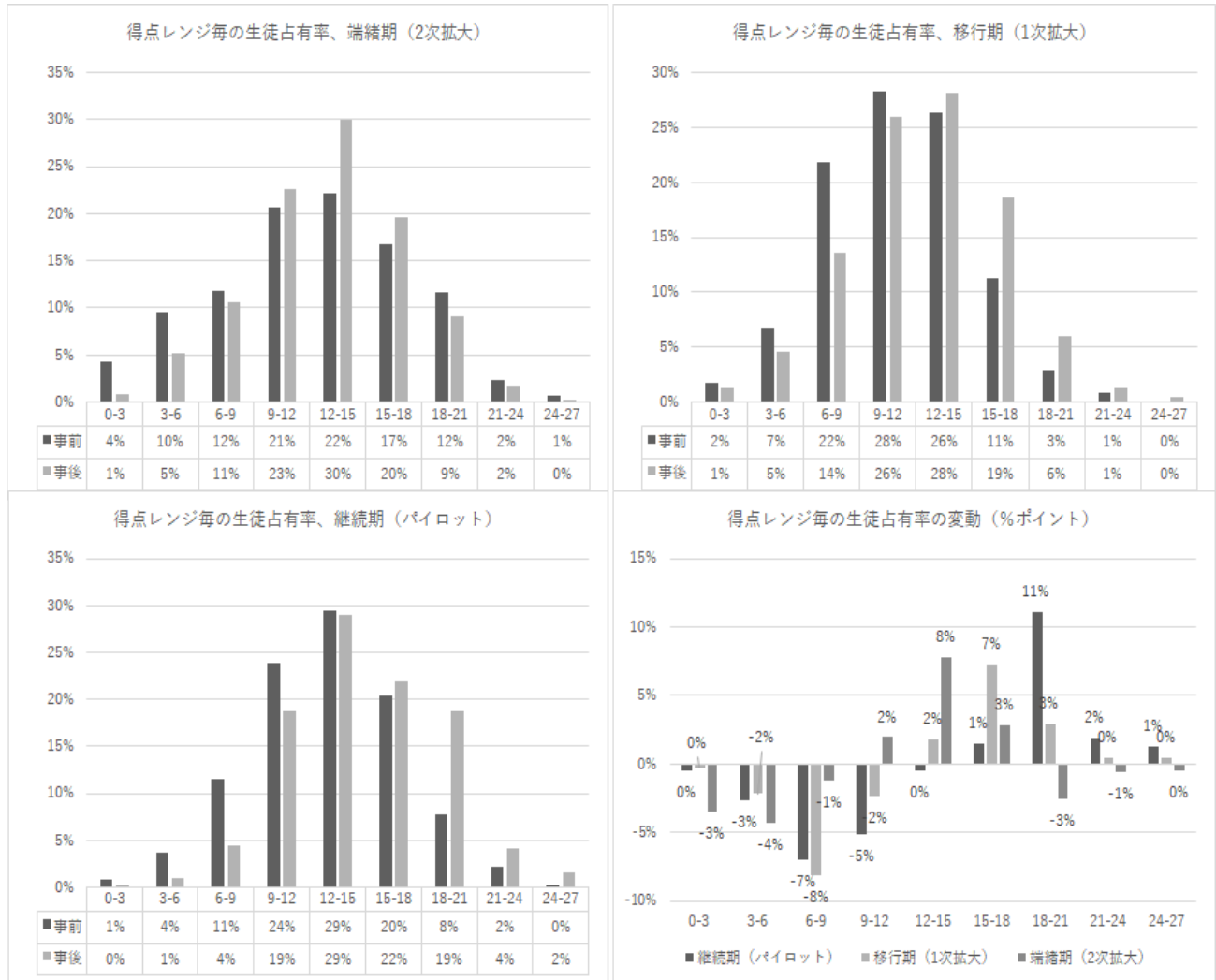


図 6 得点レンジ毎の生徒占有率（%）

（注）左上：端緒期、右上：移行期、左下：継続期、右下：得点レンジ毎の生徒占有率

（出所）筆者作成

この現象は次のように解釈できよう。介入到達後間もない端緒期の教員の力量改善は、低得点層の生徒の成績伸長をもたらす効果があるが、成績上位層の伸長に大きな影響を及ぼすには至らない。しかし、教員の移行期、持続期を跨ぐ継続的な力量形成は、成績下位層のみならず、成績上位層のさらなる伸長をもたらすほどに進展したものと推察される。

このように、授業改善を通じた生徒の学び改善は、まず低得点層の縮減としてあらわれるが、平均点のみに着目するとこうした動向を察知しにくい。代表値のみならずヒストグラムで示されるような裨益対象者の構成に着目し、便益帰着分析的な視点からの分析が、教育分野の公平性効果の測定においても有用であるとわかる。

6. 政策的示唆

セネガルの現職教員研修や、国際協力機関の施策に関連し、本稿からは下記の示唆を得ることができる。第一に、教員の継続的職能開発において低学年時の基礎的学習の担保を主流化することの重要性が示唆される。学校単位での成績改善には学校内の成績格差の縮減を要するが、これには基礎学力の担保が重要である。例えば、校内人事で低学年に能力の高い教員を配置し、低学力層の学習支援に貢献する教員を積極的に評価・登用するなど、研修・校内人事両面からの政策・施策展開が重要である。第二に、現職教員研修においては脆弱校に対する追加的・補完的な支援措置の必要性が示唆される。本事例では、91校の内、事前事後を通じて下位グループに甘んじる学校、事後に下位群に脱落する学校がそれぞれ4校、合計8校（全体の10%弱）あった。現職教員研修においては、そうした脆弱校は常に一定程度存在すると前提・予見し、予め追加的・補完的な支援策を事業デザインに内包する必要性が示唆される。第三に、教員の力量改善を通じた生徒の学習改善、学力格差縮減には、中長期的な介入の必要性が示唆される。教員間、生徒間の学力格差の縮減は、は介入直後に一旦進展するがそののち停滞を経て回復に至るには、学校への介入到達後7年程度の期間が必要であった。最後に国際協力機関には、上記の各示唆点を踏まえ、低学年、低学力層の学力向上、脆弱校への補完的支援、（単発ではない）継続的な教員支援施策を、積極的に支援することの重要性が示唆される。

7. さらなる研究課題

本稿は「教育的介入の前後で教育格差は縮減し得る」という一事例を示したに過ぎない。更なる研究課題として以下が示唆されよう。第一に本稿が提示した公平性効果のありようは本事例に特有なのか、ないしは一定の普遍性を有するのか、実証研究の蓄積が要請される。第二に、データ制約により、統制群との比較や、教員や生徒の社会経済背景、学校属性を加味した検討は適わなかった。これらを加味して定義された脆弱層へのプロジェクト裨益の検討は本稿では未踏である。第三に、本稿では、事前には同様の成績であったにも関わらず、事後に改善した学校、伸び悩む学校の両方が認められた。こうした差異をもたらす学校内部のメカニズムや過程の析出は、公平性効果の促進・制約因子の発見に貢献しよう。

注

- 1) 本稿は、日本比較教育学会第53回大会（2017年、東京大学）における口頭発表を加筆・修正したものである。本稿は筆者個人の見解であり、国際協力機構の見解を示すものではない。
- 2) 橋野（2013）は教育の効率性の類型として、「1. 節約としての効率性」、「2. 業務の標準化・機械化としての効率性」、「3. 平均的水準の優位としての効率性」、「4. 技術的効率性」、「5. 配分的効率性」に大別する。
- 3) Williams & Cummings (20050) は、一般的に教育を基底する諸理念として、（教育機会への）アクセス（access）、公平性（equity）、質（quality）、効率性（efficiency）、妥当性（relevance）の5領域を指摘する。同様に Barrett ら（2006）は「教育の質」を定義する観点として、効果（Effectiveness）、効率性（Efficiency）、平等（Equality）、妥当性（Relevance）、持続性（Sustainability）を挙げる。
- 4) 小学校数は2000年の4,751校（うち私立校は413校）から2011年には8,529校（同992校）に、就学者数は、2000年の1.1百万人から2011年には1.7百万人に増加した。この間、総就学率は2000年の67%から2011年には112%へと伸長した。この間小学校の教員は2000年の22,301人から2010年には50,369人に増加した（国際協力機構、国際開発センター 2012、MEN2015）。
- 5) ボランティア教員の資格要件は高卒 BAC かつ教職課程修了試験合格資格 CFS である。以前は中卒 BEFM 者の CFS 保持者もボランティア教員として採用されたが、2010年に学歴要件が改訂され、BAC 以上のみがボランティア教員として登用される。ボランティア教員の登用後は2年を目途に契約教員に移行し、その後教員資格試験や審査に合格すると正規教員に登用される（国際協力機構・国際開発センター2012：33）
- 6) 分析に用いるデータの一部欠落のため、表2中の調査対象数は、後述の諸分析の標本数と合致するとは限らない。
- 7) 事前下位群から事後上位群に上昇した学校は認められなかった。

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Equity effect of in-service teacher training support in Senegal: a dynamism across teachers and students in learning

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Abstract

Achieving equitable, quality education for all is a global development agenda as SDG4 stipulates. However, the existing research body insufficiently informs if there is an equity effect of educational intervention. The present study explores the equity effect of a project-sized intervention in education by examining an in-service teacher training project in Senegal. The study examined the data on math comprehension of 368 teachers and 2100 students from 91 schools in 8 provinces across Senegal collected through multistage random sampling.

The Project observed an equity effect; math comprehension improved while disparity diminished before and after the intervention for both teachers and students. For a school to gain mean score, reduction in learning gap within a school is indispensable; when a school fails to reduce the learning gap within, it also fails to gain the mean score. Further, there was a dynamism involving efficiency and equity. While mean score continuously improves, diminish in SD (standard deficiency) is most evident upon arrival of the intervention at target school, then SD reduction is limited during the next 3-5 years, to recover by the seventh year finally. The observed dynamism coincides with a shift in the beneficiary group: upon intervention arrival at school, it benefited students with a lower score, before benefitting students with a higher score as intervention period get longer. Such a dynamism suggests an interaction between teacher capacity development and student's achievement.

Equity and efficiency are not necessarily trade-offs but can co-exist with project-sized intervention; however, a considerable portion of the target (approx. 10%) are left behind in the Project. Those left behind schools may exist in any project setting, and they need supplemental support. The study suggests that attention to the learning gap within a target group and continuous (not one shot) intervention is indispensable to materialize the equity effect of a project-sized educational intervention.

Keywords

equity, learning disparity, learning crisis, developing countries, lesson study

難民の継続的な教育活動を阻害する要因に関する考察 —エジプト・カイロにおけるスーダン難民を事例として—

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要旨

本研究は、難民の初等から高等教育にいたる継続的な教育活動を阻害する要因について、カイロのスーダン難民を事例に考察する。難民にとって教育は安定した生活を獲得するための重要な手段であり、国際社会は多くのプロジェクトを実施しているが、難民の就学率は依然として低い。エジプトのスーダン難民研究は、行政的な制限や家計の問題が、就学の阻害要因であると指摘してきたが、書類や家計の問題解決によって、難民は継続した教育活動を行うことができるのだろうか。そこで本研究は、カイロにてスーダン難民7世帯を対象に半構造化インタビューを実施。その結果、難民に対する厳しい労働環境、学歴の形骸化、教育費を捻出する困難さが確認された。また、スーダン難民はエジプトとの二か国間合意に基づき、無償のエジプトの公立学校へ入学できるが、ホスト社会におけるいじめや差別の経験から、不安定な家計状況にも関わらず彼らは自分たちが運営する有償のコミュニティスクールを好むことが確認された。これらより本研究では、難民の継続的な教育活動を阻害する要因として、スーダンの中高等教育修了証を得ればエジプトの大学に入れるという教育特権がエジプトの学校に通う理由を排除していること、また、難民の抱える心理的・社会的ストレスが、家計の問題以上に彼らの教育活動に影響を与えているのではないかと考察する。

キーワード エジプトのスーダン難民、継続的な教育活動、難民の心理的・社会的ストレス

1. はじめに

現在、難民の亡命先（ホスト国）での滞在が長期化するにつれ、難民の教育は安定した生活を獲得し、生活の質を向上させるための手段としてその重要性を増している。こうした中、国際社会は難民をホスト国の公教育に包摂し、難民が初等から高等教育において質の高い教育を受けることを目指している。その結果、多くのプロジェクトが進行しているが難民の就学率は世界平均と比較してまだ低い。どのような要因が難民の就学・進学を阻害しているのだろうか。難民の教育研究が明らかにしてきた難民の就学・進学の阻害要因をみると、ホスト国の国民とも共通する課題があることがわかるが、両者の阻害要因は別々に論じられてきた。そこで本研究は、難民の就学・進学の阻害要因が、ホスト国において個人が難民であることに起因する「難民特有の課題」であるのか、または難民およびホスト国の国民の「両者の共通課題」であるのかを確認するため、これまでの難民の教育研究を基に、就学・進学の阻害要因を6つに分類した。①行政的な制限 (Moro 2002; Anselme & Hands 2010; Ensor 2010; Dryden-Peterson 2011; UNHCR 2019)、②心理的・社会的ストレス (Ensor 2010; Dryden-Peterson 2011; Abu-Amsha et al. 2019; UNHCR 2019)、③個人の能力・情報の不足 (UNHCR 1994; Ensor 2010; UNHCR 2019; Abu-Amsha et al. 2019)、④家計の問題 (Moro 2002; Anselme & Hands 2010; Ensor 2010; UNHCR 2019)、⑤文化規範 (El Jack 2010; Anselme & Hands 2010)、⑥通学を含む学校環境 (UNHCR 1994; Ensor 2010; UNHCR 2019)、である (1.2.節表2 参照)。これら6つの阻害要因が難民特有の課題であるかの程度を確認したところ、ほとんどの難民の就学・進学の阻害要因が、ホスト国の国民と共有する課題であり、学校内よりも学校外の難民の生活と密に関わっていることがわかる。そこで本研究は、都市に住む都市難民に焦点をあて、また都市難民の生活の困難さが研究により明らかにされつつも、その生活と就学の関係性がほとんど研究されてこなかったエジプト首都カイロのスーダン難民に着目する。7世帯の聞き取り調査および文献を基に、上記の①行政的な制限および④家計の問題の阻害要因に焦点をあてて分析を行った。その結果、難民に対する厳しい労働環境、学歴の形骸化、教育費を捻出する困難さが確認された。これらを踏まえ、難民の初等から高等教育にいたる継続的な教育活動を阻害する要因を、カイロのスーダン難民の事例を基に考

察する。

1.1. 難民の教育支援の重要性と国際的な取り組み

現在、難民の亡命先での滞在が長期化しており、避難した国で2世や3世が生まれている。こうしたいつ母国に帰れるかわからない、いつ第三国定住の機会が巡ってくるかわからない、といった不透明な未来に備えるため、教育は難民にとって有効である（Crisp et al. 2001; El Jack 2010; Dryden-Peterson et al. 2019）。また、国際的な難民支援を行う国連難民高等弁務官事務所（UNHCR）にとって、教育支援は、難民の不安定な将来を支え、生活の質を向上させる手段として、重要な任務の一つとなっている（国連 UNHCR 協会 n.d.）。安定した生活を獲得するため、難民にとって教育は重要な手段となるのである。

第二次世界大戦後、世界人権宣言が採択され、庇護を求める人々の基本的人権の保障が注目されるようになり、1951年、難民認定の規定や難民の権利などを定めた「難民の地位に関する条約（難民条約）」が批准された。この難民条約の第22条において「締約国は、難民に対し、初等教育に関し、自国民に与える待遇と同一の待遇を与える」（UNHCR 駐日事務所 n.d.）と、公教育に関する事項が含まれた。初等教育への支援が注目される中、UNHCRは高等教育に着目し、1966年に高等教育の奨学金制度を開始した（Dryden-Peterson 2011）。その後、1990年のジョムティエン会議において制定されたEFAの目標達成に向け、UNHCRの教育支援の焦点は個人に対する奨学金から万人に対する教育制度へと移行した（ibid）。2000年以前においては、難民の帰還が適切な対応策として考えられていたが、難民のホスト国滞在が長期化したことをうけ、次第に難民もホスト国の公教育に包摂することが推奨されるようになった。そして2012年、UNHCRは教育指針を刷新し、ホスト国の公教育に難民の子どもを包摂するアプローチを採用すると発表した（Dryden-Peterson et al. 2019）。2018年には、国連総会が「難民に関するグローバル・コンパクト」を採択し、「（難民が）初等・中等・高等教育を受けることができるように、質が高くインクルーシブな国の教育制度の構築に向けて」貢献することを国際社会に課した（UNHCR 駐日事務所 2019, p.18-19）。このように、難民の教育支援は、EFAといった就学アクセス拡充の世界的潮流や難民のホスト国滞在が長期化したことにより、個人に対する奨学金支援から普遍的な教育制度支援へと移行した。また、難民をホスト国の公教育に包摂し、彼らが初等から高等教育において質の高い教育を受けることを目指している。

こうした国際的な動きはホスト国の教育政策に影響を与え、難民の就学アクセスは向上しつつある。例えば、難民条約批准国のトルコは、すべてのシリア難民の子どもを公立学校に包摂することを決定し、それに関するプロジェクトを実施している（UNESCO 2018, p.61-62）。そして、UNHCRは各教育段階において就学率の向上が見られたことを発表した（表1）（UNHCR 2019）。

表1 各教育段階における難民と世界の就学率比較

	難民		世界
	2018年以前	2018年	2017年
初等教育	61%	63%	91%
中等教育	23%	24%	84%
高等教育	1%	3%	37%

（注）2018年以前の難民の就学率の具体的な年号は不明。

（出所）UNHCR（2019）をもとに著者作成；難民の就学率は2018年のUNHCRの統計データ、世界の就学率は2017年のユネスコ統計研究所の統計データが参照されている（ibid）。

表1より、確かに難民の就学率は向上していることがわかるが、世界との格差がみられ、特に中等教育以降、差が開いている。これらの数字に従えば、難民の子どもの過半数が初等教育にアクセスできているが、中等教育以降の教育を受けているのは4分の1以下である。難民にとって豊かな生活を送るための準備であるはずの教育は、難民に十分に享受されておらず、彼らの生活を向上させることは困難な状況にある。それではどのような要因が難民の就学・進学を阻害しているのだろうか。

1.2. 難民の就学・進学の阻害要因における先行研究

これまで難民とホスト国の国民の就学・進学の阻害要因は別々に論じられてきた。しかし、難民の教育研究が明らかにしてきた難民の就学・進学の阻害要因をみると、ホスト国の国民とも共通する課題があること

がわかる。難民の就学・進学・進学の阻害要因が、ホスト国において「難民特有の課題」であるのか、または難民およびホスト国の国民の「両者の共通課題」であるのかを区分し、難民の就学・進学問題に切り込む視点が必要ではないだろうか。そこで、本節では難民特有の課題と両者が共有する課題が何かを検証するため、まず先行研究および UNHCR の報告書に基づいて、難民の就学・進学の阻害要因を、①行政的な制限、②心理的・社会的ストレス、③個人の能力・情報の不足、④家計の問題、⑤文化規範、⑥通学を含む学校環境の6つに分類した（表2）。番号は著者が便宜的に付けたものである。次にこれら6つの阻害要因が難民特有の課題であるかの程度を3段階に分けた（表2）。以下、この3段階の区分に沿って、難民の就学・進学の阻害要因が、難民特有の課題あるいは両者の共通課題であるかを確認する。

表2 先行研究より明らかとなっている難民の就学・進学阻害要因

項目	阻害要因の具体例	難民特有の課題性
①行政的な制限	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ・身分証明書や修了証明書などの公的書類の不携帯により、ホスト国の行政手続きが行えない（Moro 2002; Anselme & Hands 2010; Ensor 2010; Dryden-Peterson 2011; UNHCR 2019） ・出身国の修了証明書の互換性が認められない（Anselme & Hands 2010; UNHCR 2019） ・難民のための補習授業の不足（Anselme & Hands 2010） 	高：難民に特化した対策が必要とされているため
②心理的・社会的ストレス	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ・難民という立場に対する他者からの暴力や暴言を受けた経験。（Ensor 2010; Dryden-Peterson 2011; Abu-Amsa et al. 2019） ・学校に通う年齢が学齢期から離れるほど高くなる退学の可能性（UNHCR 2019） 	中：課題は難民に限定されないが、課題の根本は難民化したことに起因するため
③個人の能力・情報の不足	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ・教授言語と母語の違い；授業理解度の低下、語学習得の苦労（UNHCR 1994; UNHCR 2019; Abu-Amsa et al. 2019） ・可能な教育機会に関する情報の収集不足（Ensor 2010） 	
④家計の問題	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ・不安的な収入（Moro 2002; Anselme & Hands 2010; Ensor 2010; UNHCR 2019） ・家族からの圧力；家計の稼ぎ手としての期待（息子）、出費を減らすための早婚（娘）（Anselme & Hands 2010; UNHCR 2019） 	低：難民も含めたあらゆる背景をもつ人びとへの教育支援が必要とされているため
⑤文化規範	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ・女子は家事労働や弟妹の面倒を見るべき、などの考え方（El Jack 2010） ・女子の早婚（Anselme & Hands 2010） 	
⑥通学を含む学校環境	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ・長い通学時間、危険を伴う通学路の存在（Ensor 2010） ・ホスト国の公立学校の受入れ生徒数が飽和状態にあること（Ensor 2010; UNHCR 2019） ・難民受け入れに対する訓練を受けた教師の不足（UNHCR 1994） 	

まず、難民特有の課題性が高い阻害要因として①行政的な制限があげられる。命からがら逃げてきた難民にとって、身分証明書などを携帯していないことも多く、労働や住居、学校などの行政手続きが行えないことがある（Moro 2002; Anselme & Hands 2010; Ensor 2010; Dryden-Peterson 2011; UNHCR 2019）。UNHCR（2019）は、初等教育1年の未就学の主な理由は、公的な書類が用意できないことだと報告している。また、特に中等、高等教育においては、出身国の修学歴が認められず、学業を辞める若者がいると指摘されている（Anselme & Hands 2010; UNHCR 2019）。一方、難民でなくとも、出生証明書を持たないため公立学校に入学できないインドの貧困世帯の事例研究（Mousumi & Kusakabe 2019）もある。こうした行政的な制限は難民に限らず就学・進学の阻害要因と成り得るが、難民の場合、書類不備が前提に関わらず、それを難民に求めるホスト国の陥穽が指摘できる。欧州のいくつかの国では「難民のための欧州資格パスポート」の制度が設立され、教育資格を持たない難民に、本人が保持する資格、技能などの情報を掲載した書類を発行する取り組みがあり（Council of Europe 2016）、現在欧州以外にも広まりつつある。このように、行政的な制限の課題に対して難民に特化した対策が必要とされ、普及しつつある。したがって、①行政的な制限の阻害要因は、難民特有の

課題性が高いと区分する。

次に、難民特有の課題の程度が中ほどの課題は、②心理的・社会的ストレス、③個人の能力・情報の不足である。難民という立場は、時にホスト国の国民から差別や暴力の対象とされることがある。こうした不快な経験が初等から高等教育全ての段階において阻害要因になっていると指摘されている (Ensor 2010; Dryden-Peterson 2011; Abu-Amsha et al. 2019)。また、難民にとって、ホスト国の教授言語は母国語と異なることが多く、授業の理解度に支障をきたす (UNHCR 1994; UNHCR 2019; Abu-Amsha et al. 2019)。これらの差別や暴力の経験によるストレス、教授言語の課題による学習効果が就学・進学 of 阻害要因となるのは、難民に限ったことではない。例えば、スイスの義務教育以降の若者を対象とした縦断調査では、否定的なライフイベントが退学に影響することが明らかとなっている (Samuel & Burger 2020)。また多民族国家においては、教授言語と母語が異なり、その学生の母語を理解する教師を雇用しなければ、その学生は授業から取り残され、退学の可能性が高まるという議論がある (SRI Executive 2020)。よって、これらの2つの課題は難民に限った問題ではないと評価できる一方、課題の根本は難民となったことにありともいえる。ゆえに、②心理的・社会的ストレス、③個人の能力・情報の不足は、難民特有の課題性が中程度だと位置づける。

最後に、残りの④家計の問題、⑤文化規範、⑥通学を含む学校環境は、難民特有の課題の程度が低い、すなわち難民とホスト国の住民が共有する課題である。これら3つの課題、例えば、低い世帯収入 (Moro 2002; Anselme & Hands 2010; Ensor 2010; UNHCR 2019)、女子は家事労働や弟妹の世話をすべき、早く結婚すべき、といったジェンダーに関わる文化規範 (El Jack 2010; Anselme & Hands 2010)、家の近くに学校が無く、遠くまで通学する危険性 (Ensor 2010)、教員の質の問題 (UNHCR 1994) が、難民の就学・進学 of 阻害要因と指摘されてきた。それと同時に、公正性の側面から収入レベルに基づく差別なくあらゆる子どもたちへの教育の提供が目標とされており (UNESCO 2014)、上記の女子の就学や、通学の危険性、教師の質の確保は、難民に限らず持続可能な開発目標達成のために解決すべき課題であるといわれている (SRI Executive 2020)。よって、④家計の問題、⑤文化規範、⑥通学を含む学校環境は、難民も含めたあらゆる背景を持つ人びとへのアプローチが必要な課題であるという特性が高いため、難民特有の課題性が低いと位置づける。

表2のように、先行研究から明らかにされてきた難民の就学・進学 of 阻害要因の多くは、難民に限定された特別なものではない。また、6つの阻害要因のほとんどが、学校内ではなく、学校外における難民の生活と密に関わっていることがわかる。そこで本研究は、難民キャンプという閉ざされた環境ではなく、都市で自由に生活し、経済活動を送る都市難民に焦点をあてる。さらにその中でも都市における生活の困難さが研究により明らかにされつつも (例えば Jacobsen et al. 2012; Fábos 2007; Miranda 2018)、その生活と就学 of 関係性がほとんど研究されてこなかったエジプト首都カイロのスーダン難民に着目する。カイロに難民キャンプは無く、難民がホストコミュニティと同じ社会空間で生活している。また、エジプトのスーダン人に関しては、経済活動を目的として移住した移民と、本研究が対象とする難民が計6万人程度在住している (UNDESA 2019)。そして彼らは、パレスチナ人、シリア人に次ぐ大きな移民コミュニティを形成している (ibid)。

エジプトのスーダン難民研究は、Ensor (2010) や Moro (2002) を除いて、ほとんどの研究がスーダン難民の教育環境は厳しいと言及する程度で、彼らの教育活動に影響を与える社会の課題についてはふれてこなかった。また Ensor (2010) も2枚の報告書に①行政的な制限、②心理的・社会的ストレス、③個人の能力・情報の不足、④家計の問題、⑥通学を含む学校環境が阻害要因だと列挙したのみである。Moro (2002) は、エジプトのスーダン難民は、難民認定に時間がかかり入学に必要な書類を準備できないこと (①行政的な制限)、保護者の収入が低いこと (④家計の問題) が就学 of 阻害要因であると指摘したが、これらを引き起こす問題には触れていない。書類が簡単に手に入り、また親の経済状況が良くなれば、カイロのスーダン難民の就学・進学問題は解決するのだろうか。この問いを考察するため、本研究は Moro (2002) が問題視した①行政的な制限と④家計の問題に着目し、難民の就学・進学 of 阻害要因と関わり合う社会の課題を明らかにし、難民の継続的な教育活動を阻害する要因を考察することを目的とする。他の4つの阻害要因については、本研究が目的とする社会の課題を明らかにするために議論すべき阻害要因であるが、紙幅の都合上別稿にその議論を譲りたい。

分析はエジプト首都カイロのスーダン難民に着目し、質的手法を用いて行う。本調査では、Moro (2002) が指摘した、特に公的書類を用意するのが難しい難民申請者 (asylum seeker) および違法移民に聞き取りを行うことができなかったため、①行政的な制限については、文献を基に現状を概観する。そして、④家計の問題については、インタビュー結果を基に分析する。

2. 調査概要

本研究の調査は、2019年11月から12月のうちの3週間、カイロにてスーダン難民7世帯（表3）を対象に、半構造化インタビューを実施した。7世帯のうち、親子2世代で生活しているのは4世帯（A, C, E, G）である。調査対象者や研究協力者のスーダン人が行政的な指摘を受けることを怖れていたため、安心してインタビューを受けてもらえるよう、調査世帯はランダムではなく紹介を介して慎重に行い、本調査協力への同意が得られた場合のみインタビューを行った。インタビュー時間は1世帯あたり40分～2時間半で、英語、またはアラビア語から英語の通訳を介して行った。通訳を行ったのは、自身もスーダン難民である表3の難民Aである。

これらの世帯調査に加えて、3校の難民が経営するコミュニティスクール（community school; parallel education）¹⁾を訪れ、校長へのインタビューと参与観察を行った。これらのコミュニティスクールのうち1校は、スーダン人が運営（H校）、もう2校は南スーダン人が運営（I校、J校）する私立学校である。H校は就学前～初等教育、I、J校は就学前～中等教育までの生徒を受け入れている。そしてH、I、J校全てがスーダンのカリキュラムで学び、スーダンの修了証試験を受けることを目指している。2011年にスーダンから独立した南スーダンであるが、本国でもスーダンのカリキュラムが使用されているため、カイロのコミュニティスクールもそれを踏襲しているとI、J校の校長は説明した²⁾。

表3 調査対象者

番号	性別	年齢*	職業	最終学歴	世帯構成**
A	男性	32歳	無職	学部3年	自身、妻、娘2人（KG）
B	男性	37歳	コミュニティリーダー、レストラン勤務	学部3年	単身
C	女性	26歳	無職	学部4年	自身、甥（P2）、姪（P2）、姪
D	男性	55歳	コミュニティスクール教員	学士	自身、妻
E	女性	36歳	ハウスキーパー	学部1年	自身、娘（KG）
F	男性	39歳	路上販売	学部4年	単身
G	女性	31歳	無職	ディプロマ	自身、娘（特別支援学校）、息子（KG）

（注）*年齢は2019年時点。**（ ）内は、現在通う教育機関。KG：就学前教育、P：初等教育。

3. エジプトの難民に対する教育措置と実際

先行研究から、公教育入学の行政的手続きや学修歴証明の難しさが確認されたがエジプトの難民はどうだろうか。エジプトの難民全体の粗就学率は、初等教育では83%、中等教育では80%（2019年）であり（UNHCR n.d.）、世界的な難民の就学率より高い³⁾。エジプトは、初等段階において難民を公教育に包摂するという難民条約の第22条の1を留保しているため、制度上では難民はエジプトの教育機関へのアクセスが認められていない。しかし、シリア、スーダン、南スーダン、イエメンなどのエジプトの難民人口の多数を占める国籍は教育機関へのアクセスが認められている。彼らがエジプトの教育機関へ入学するためには、パスポートなどの法定居住許可のある身分証明書、出生証明書、出身国大使館からの書状の提出が最低限必要である（Afifi 2003）。エジプトは初等教育、前期中等教育、後期中等教育⁴⁾において修了証書試験があり、合格すれば修了証を得て次の教育段階に進むことができる。大学進学においては、基本的に外国人がエジプトの後期中等教育の修了証書を取得していない場合は、エジプトに居住している場合であっても、外国人料金が適応され、エジプト人よりも多額の授業料を外貨で払う必要がある。一方で、エジプトの後期中等教育の修了証書を得た外国人は、エジプト人と同じ金額の学費で大学に通える（Dryden-Peterson et al. 2019, p.359）。

スーダン人に焦点をあてると、1992年、スーダン・エジプトの合意に基づき、スーダン人はエジプト教育機関への入学が認められたのと同時に、スーダンの修了証明書の互換性も認められた（Moro 2002）⁵⁾。すな

わち、スーダンの中等教育修了証をもってれば、エジプトの後期中等教育修了証を持っていないとも、エジプトの高等教育機関への入学が認められ、さらに学費もエジプト人と同額になるということである。

以上のようにエジプトの難民受入れ措置は、国籍によって差異がある。その中でもスーダン移民・難民は初等から高等教育におけるエジプト公教育へのアクセスおよび、スーダンの教育課程の修了証明書が認められる教育特権を有している。Moro (2002) は、難民認定を得ていない難民認定申請者や違法移民は、必要な書類を用意することが難しく、彼らの教育が問題だと指摘した。その一方で、難民認定を受けた難民も、多くがエジプトの公教育の外にいるという (ibid)。さらに、カイロのスーダン人は難民だけでなく移民もコミュニティスクールを好むことが、I 校校長や難民 A、その他の被調査者⁹⁾からの情報より明らかとなった。すなわち、書類の問題よりも、他の問題が難民の継続的な教育活動を阻害しているのではないだろうか。次節では Moro (2002) が指摘したもう一つの阻害要因である家計の問題に着目する。

4. 家計の問題

なぜ難民の収入は安定しないのだろうか。この家計の問題と関わり合う社会の課題を、調査対象者の語りや生活状況から分析した結果、難民に対する厳しい労働環境と学歴の形骸化が明らかとなった。それらの結果を踏まえ、コミュニティスクールへの通学が難民世帯の収入からどれほど困難かを検証する。

4.1. 難民に対する厳しい労働環境

第一に、難民の収入が不安定な理由は、難民の労働が法的に認められていないためである。エジプトは難民条約加入国でありながら、難民条約第 24 条 (労働法制及び社会保障) を留保している。よって、難民はエジプト人と同等の働く権利が認められておらず、十分な労働の権利を有していない (Afifi 2003, p.3 ; UNHCR 2018, p.74)。その結果、多くの難民が就労許可の不要なインフォーマルセクターで働いている (Fábos 2007 ; Jacobsen et al. 2012 ; Miranda 2018, p.15)。

本研究の調査対象者もインフォーマルセクターで働いていた。調査対象者はエジプトにおける難民の就業について以下のように語った。

(エジプトで難民が) 正社員として雇用されることは不可能だよ。(労働) 契約も社会保険もない。奴隷みたいだよ。… (中略) …難民は法に頼れない。たとえハラスメントを受けたとしても、法は我々を守ってくれない。(難民 A)

妻はこの 6 か月間、エジプト人の家庭でベビーシッターの仕事をしているよ。休みは日曜だけ。ベビーシッターの前も (エジプト人の家庭で) ハウスキーパーの仕事をしていたよ。(難民 D)

難民 A は難民の就業環境を奴隷のようだと表現し、どうすることもできない法の現状に言及した。また、難民 D の妻のように週休 1 日の仕事は多いという。そのため、J 校のコミュニティスクールの就学前段階のクラスは、毎日開校していた。このように正社員という安定した雇用を得ることや、法の保護を受けることは難民にとって困難であり、毎日のように働いても安定した生活を確保することは厳しいといえる。

4.2. 学歴の形骸化

本研究は、難民に対する法的な就業制限が、学歴と収入の比例関係を崩し、特に高学歴の難民の収入に影響を与えると考える。本調査の調査対象者は、高等教育を退学または修了している者たちであった (表 3 参照) が、教師を除いて学歴が問われない単純労働に従事する者がほとんどであった。学歴と収入が比例しない例として難民 F に着目したい。

難民 F はスーダンの大学で 4 年の全課程を修了したが、反政府活動に参加したことを理由に修了証を発行してもらえなかった。大学の授業とは別に、スーダンの紅海関税局が行う通関業務の講義を受講し、税関に関する知識を有しているが、現在エジプト人の友人の支援を受けながら、路上で古本を売って生計を立てるホームレスである。彼の収入は不安定であるが、平均すると 1 日に約 100EGP (エジプト・ポンド : 1USD=15.8EGP⁷⁾) である。彼のように個人の学歴や技能が考慮されないまま、難民という法的身分が、低賃

金のインフォーマルセクターに就労機会を狭めているといえるだろう。

難民がアクセスしやすく、学歴を要する職業としてコミュニティスクールの教員⁸⁾がある。しかし、教員の給料は良いとはいえず、本調査の調査対象者でコミュニティスクール教員である難民 D の月収は 1,700EGP であった。これは 2019 年のエジプトの最低賃金の 2,000EGP (約 116USD) (Reuters 2019) を下回っている。また、エジプト人家庭でのハウスキーパーやベビーシッターが 3,000-3,200EGP であることから教員の月収の低さが明らかである。高い学歴が求められる教員ではあるが、その給料は国の最低賃金以下である。一方、学歴を必要としないハウスキーパーやベビーシッターなどの職業が教員の給料を上回っており、難民の収入は学歴と比例関係にないといえる。

以上のように、難民の不安定な収入は、法的な制限があること、難民の学歴と収入が比例せず学歴の形骸化が起きていることが示唆された。それでは、これらの収入からコミュニティスクールの教育費を捻出することはどれ程困難であろうか。

4.3. 教育費を捻出する困難さ

難民の収入の不安定さを見てきたが、調査対象者らの月収は、1,700-3,200EGP とエジプトの最低賃金と同程度であった。そのうち彼らの家賃は 800-4,000EGP であった。家賃が 1 か月 4,000EGP のアパートメントに住む難民 G は、2 世帯で暮らしており、1 世帯あたり家賃は月収の半分程度を占めていることが確認された。家賃の支払いは難民にとって大きな問題で、カイロのスーダン難民 565 世帯へのインタビューを行った Jacobsen ら (2012) の調査においても、85%が家賃を支払えなかった経験があることが明らかになっている (p.37)。今回、生活の基盤である衣食住のうちの住居以外は具体的に調べる事が出来なかったが、難民 A は食費に関し「僕たちはエジプト人みたいに外食する余裕はないよ…」と住居費以外も切り詰めている生活の現状を語った。

それでは、コミュニティスクールの教育費はどの程度必要だろうか。コミュニティスクールへの通学にあたり、必要な教育費の内訳は主に授業料とスーダンの修了証試験の受験料である。授業料は学年や学校によって異なるが、本調査で訪問した 3 校は年間 1,500-4,900EGP の間であった。授業料は、学校環境の良さや教育の質に比例するという。確かに著者が訪問した 3 校を比較しても、一番授業料が低い H 校は教員に給料が定期的に支払えず、教師が遅刻や早退、欠席するなど、教師の雇用に問題が窺えた。一方で、一番授業料が高い I 校は、修士号や博士号を持った教師が数人いるという。

一般的に、スーダンのコミュニティスクールに通う者は、初等教育と中等教育の終わりにあるスーダンの修了証試験を受験する。受験希望者は在エジプト・スーダン大使館に受験料を支払う必要がある。料金の詳細資料は管見の限りないが、聴き取りによれば 80-130USD かかるという。合格できなければ、翌年も同じ金額を支払って再受験する必要がある。この 1 回の受験料は、EGP に換算するとおよそ 1,300EGP 以上必要となり、これも月収の半分程度を占める計算になる。家賃も月収の半分を占めていたので、家賃を払った後、貯金が無ければ受験料を支払うことは容易でない。

難民世帯の教育費を救済するプログラムとして、UNHCR の世帯向けの教育支援がある。この支援制度により、エジプトの公立学校およびコミュニティスクールに通うスーダン難民および難民申請者は、年間 1,800EGP を受け取ることができる (UNHCR 2020)。著者が訪問した 11 月は申請期間中のため、実際の受け取りを確認できなかったが、難民 C はこの支援が 2 年間止まっており、その理由は不明だと語った。このように、収入が不安定で、月収の半分程度が家賃に費やされる中、授業料と修了証受験料を捻出する必要がある、教育費を継続的に支払うことは難民世帯にとって容易ではないことが想像できる。

以上より、住居費が収入の半分程度を占めている中で、授業料を支払い続けること、また次の教育段階に進むための修了証試験受験のための費用は難民世帯の家計を圧迫していることが確認された。UNHCR の教育支援も授業料の全額を支払える額ではなく、理由もわからずに支援が滞っている世帯があることも明らかとなった。

カイロのスーダン難民は、エジプト公教育へのアクセスおよびスーダンの修了証が認められる状況にあり、先行研究が指摘していた難民特有の行政的な制限の問題を緩和していた。しかし、難民に対する法的な労働制限や学歴の形骸化は難民の収入を不安定にし、その半分以上は生活費の支払いへと消えている。その結果、コミュニティスクールの授業料や修了証試験の受験料を支払うには厳しい現実があることが確認された。

5. 考察：カイロのスーダン難民の継続的な教育活動を阻害する要因

本研究は、先行研究より明らかになっている難民の就学・進学阻害要因を6つに分類し、その中から①行政的な制限、④家計の問題、の2つの阻害要因に焦点をあてた。そして、これら2つの阻害要因と関わり合う社会の課題を明らかにし、難民の継続的な教育活動を阻害する要因を考察することを目的として、カイロの7世帯のスーダン難民の質的調査から分析を行った。

行政的な制限に関して、スーダン移民・難民は、エジプト公教育へのアクセスおよびスーダンの修了証の互換が認められる状況にあることが確認できた一方で、書類準備の難しさに関わらずコミュニティスクールを好むことが示唆された。次に、不安定な家計収入の原因として、難民の就業が法的に守られていないこと、彼らの学歴が形骸化されていることが確認された。また生活費が月収の半分以上を占めており、教育費を支払う困難さも明らかとなった。よって、書類が簡単に手に入り、また親の経済状況が良くなれば、カイロのスーダン難民の就学・進学問題は解決するのだろうかという本稿の問いに対し、スーダン難民は書類問題に関わらずコミュニティスクールを好み、親の経済状況を向上させることの困難さが浮き彫りとなった。これらの結果を踏まえて本節では、難民の継続的な教育活動を阻害する要因について論考する。

5.1. 行政的な制限の緩和は、なぜ実際の解決にはつながらないのか

先行研究が指摘する①行政的な制限を、エジプトのスーダン難民は、両国の政治的合意によって緩和していた。すなわち、手続きさえ行えば無償の公立学校に行くことが出来る。先行研究はこの手続きの難しさに着目してきたが、本研究ではスーダン難民がこの①行政的な制限の緩和を、コミュニティスクールへ行くために有効活用しているのではないかと考察する。前述の通り、スーダン難民はスーダンの中高等教育修了証を得れば、エジプト人と同じ条件でエジプトの大学に通えるという教育特権を有している。コミュニティスクールへの通学は、この教育特権を活用して、エジプトの教育機関に通う理由を排除していると考えられる。難民らをホスト国の教育制度に包摂させるため、いわば難民の生活向上を目的として与えられた教育特権は、その本来の意味通りには活用されていないといえるだろう。国際社会が目指す、公教育への包摂を就学・進学の前提とするならば、エジプトのスーダン難民が彼らの教育特権を有効活用している限り、この事象は就学・進学の阻害要因としてあり続けるのではないだろうか。

5.2. なぜ学費のかかるコミュニティスクールを好むのか

学費を捻出する苦勞よりも、前述の6つの阻害要因の一つである②心理的・社会的ストレスを強く感じていることが、無償の公立学校ではなく、学費のかかるコミュニティスクールが選ばれる理由だと考察する。難民Aは、以下のように難民がコミュニティスクールを好む理由を説明した。

エジプト人の子どもはよく他人をからかうんだよ。これはエジプト文化だろうね。でも、スーダン人はこれを悪いことと考える。これが、スーダン人の親がコミュニティスクールを好む理由だよ。(難民A)

実際に、難民Gの息子は、エジプトの幼稚園で教師からの差別、園児からのいじめを受けているという。本当はコミュニティスクールに通わせたいが、近所に無いため、仕方なく通わせている、というのが母親である難民Gが語った実情であった。そして、スーダン難民はこうした不快な思いを学校内だけでなく社会生活においても経験している。Jacobsenら(2012)の調査では、82.5%が回答者自身や家族がエジプト人からのハラスメントを経験したことがあると回答している(p.36)。もちろん継続的な教育活動を行うためには、安定した収入が必要であることに疑いの余地はないが、難民の抱える②心理的・社会的ストレスは、④家計の問題以上に、彼らの教育活動に影響を与えているのではないだろうか。

6. おわりに

本研究は、難民の継続的な教育活動を阻害する要因として、スーダンの中高等教育修了証を得ればエジプトの大学に入れるという教育特権がエジプトの学校に通う理由を排除していること、先行研究で指摘された難

民が経験するいじめや差別といった②心理的・社会的ストレスがあると考察した。これらの課題を抱えながら、カイロのスーダン難民は、生活向上のための教育戦略を見出すことができるだろうか。

まずスーダン難民が居住するエジプトの社会状況も、難民の生活向上のための教育戦略を語る上では重要だと考える。本研究が示唆した学歴の形骸化は、難民だけではなくエジプトの若者にとっても深刻な社会問題として捉えられており、大学を卒業しても多くの若者がインフォーマルセクターで働かざるを得ない状況がある（Barsoum 2016）。高等教育に行くことが生活向上の手段として目指されているが、このような高等教育の先の出口が不安定な中、教育は真に難民の生活向上のツールであるとはいいい切れない現実があると考ええる。こうした、高等教育の出口により良い生活が描けない社会の存在は、就学を継続する意欲を消失させ、難民の継続的な教育活動を阻害する要因に成り得るだろう。

そして Dryden-Peterson ら（2019）は、難民の将来の居住地の可能性は、第三国定住、帰還、受入国への定住、トランスナショナルな移動の 4 つであるという。このうち、スーダン難民にとって帰還への道が現実的になりつつある。2019 年、難民発生の素因である前政権が崩壊したためである。スーダンの経済情勢や教育環境の改善の余地は大きい、カイロでのストレスフルな生活から離れ、また学歴の形骸化の問題からも解消され得る帰国に将来的な生活の安定を見出し、子どもの教育戦略を立てることも一つの道ではないだろうか。本研究の調査対象者 7 名中 2 名がスーダンへの帰国を考えていると語った。帰還難民の教育活動に着目することは、ホスト国および帰還先における難民の就学・進学の影響要因を浮き彫りにすることを可能にし、難民の継続的な教育活動を研究する上で新たな示唆を得ることができるといえるだろう。

本研究の制約は、以下 3 つあると考える。まず調査対象者の学歴に偏りがあったことである。今回全ての調査対象者が高等教育機関に進学していた。スーダンの高等教育粗就学率は 17% である（World Bank 2019）ので、スーダンにおいて高等教育進学は未だ一般化していないといえる。よって、4.2 節で示唆された学歴の形骸化については、サンプル数の増加と共に、低学歴者も含めたデータ収集をさらに行うことが望ましいと考える。また、Moro（2002）は、難民申請者や違法移民が、書類の不備によって彼らの就学活動が阻害されていると指摘した。本調査では、こうした難民申請者や違法移民に対する聞き取りを行うことはできなかった。今後彼らを調査対象群に取り入れることによって、疎外された人びとを公教育に包摂する難しさや、コミュニティスクールの役割の大きさを浮き彫りにすることができると考える。最後に、本研究は学校選択において、前述の 6 つの影響要因のうち②心理的・社会的ストレスが、カイロのスーダン難民に約束されたはずの公教育へのアクセス権を排除している実情を示唆した。サンプル数の増加だけでなく、調査対象者との深い聞き取り調査も取り入れることによって、②心理的・社会的ストレスと教育活動の関係性を考察することを今後の課題としたい。

注

- 1) 日本の文献では、こうした難民が運営する学校を、「シリア人学校」（ガラーウィンジ山本 2018）、「チベット難民学校」（森・澤村 2019）などと呼んでいる。カイロにおいても、校長や出資者の国籍に応じて「スーダンのコミュニティスクール」といった呼び方をする。しかし、学生の国籍が多様である学校も多いため、本研究では移民や難民が運営する学校を「コミュニティスクール」と呼ぶ。国籍の多様性について、例えば I 校は、南スーダン人の運営で、南スーダン、スーダン、エチオピア、エリトリア、ナイジェリア、ケニア、ウガンダ、フィリピンからの生徒が通学している。
- 2) I 校：2019 年 11 月 30 日、J 校：2019 年 11 月 26 日のインタビューより。以降 I 校長および J 校長の発言は同日のインタビュー内容である。
- 3) I 校長の話によれば、これらの統計にコミュニティスクールの学生も含まれているという。しかし、UNHCR のホームページ上にはコミュニティスクールを含むか否かの説明はない。
- 4) エジプトは、初等教育から後期中等教育において、6-3-3 制をとっており、初等から前期中等教育の 9 年が義務教育である。
- 5) スーダンは、初等教育から中等教育において、8-3 制をとっており、初等教育の 8 年が義務教育である。スーダンの修了証試験は、初等教育と中等教育の最終学年時に行われる。エジプト同様の 6-3-3 制に移行する議論がある。
- 6) カイロのスーダン移民が多く通うコミュニティスクールの教員である妻を持つ、スーダン人男性との 2019 年 11 月 28 日の会話より。

- 7) 2020年5月30日のレート参照 (XE.com Inc. <https://www.xe.com/ja/>)
- 8) 例えば、教員採用条件として、I校は少なくともスーダン中等教育修了証を必要としており、J校は学士以上の学歴を要件としている。

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Barriers to continued schooling for Sudanese refugees in Cairo, Egypt

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Abstract

While international society stresses the importance of education for refugees to improve their quality of life and engages in lots of projects, their enrolment performance is inferior. In this understanding, this paper reports anticipated barriers to continued schooling for Sudanese refugees in Cairo, Egypt. Studies on refugee education have found factors that hinder schooling, and which this paper categorizes as (1) administrative restrictions, (2) psychosocial stress, (3) lack of personal skills and information, (4) low household income, (5) cultural norms, and (6) inadequate learning environment. It turns out that most of these impediments are closely related to refugees' daily lives in the host community. Therefore, this study focuses on refugees living in urban settings. Research on Sudanese refugees in Egypt showed that (1) administrative restrictions and (4) low household income are challenges to enter schools in Egypt. However, will refugees' schooling barriers be solved if they are freed from documentation matters and financial struggles? I conducted seven household surveys with a semi-structured interview in Cairo. This study suggests that they prefer to send children to the community school run by refugee or migrant communities due to psychosocial stress, such as bullying and discrimination at the Egyptian schools. Sudanese refugees and migrants in Egypt have connectivity to the Egyptian education system following the two countries' agreement. All nationalities do not enjoy this educational privilege in Egypt. This advantage may eliminate the reason for attending Egyptian schools since they can enter the Egyptian higher education with the Sudanese school certificate. Moreover, this study suggests that their academic background is merely a formality due to the lack of legal protection. Accordingly, this study finds their living expenses account for half of their income, which possibly causes difficulties in regularly paying the education fee to the community school. Low household income is seemingly a significant barrier to continued schooling for refugees; however, psychosocial stress may have a greater influence than tightened family budget on refugees' school choices in Cairo.

Keywords

Sudanese refugees in Egypt, continued schooling, refugees' psychosocial stress

第25～26回 アフリカ教育学会 大会プログラム等

【第25回】

1. 日時：2020年4月18日（土）～19日（日）
2. 場所：東京都板橋区まなぼーと大原（大原生涯学習センター）（ホスト校：帝京大学）

＊新型コロナウイルス感染症拡大のため中止

【第26回】

1. 日時：2020年9月26日（土）13時00分～27日（日）14時30分
2. 場所：オンライン（ホスト校：帝京大学）
3. プログラム

9月26日（土）

- 12:40-13:00 受付
- 13:00-13:05 開会の辞
- 13:05-13:30 会員総会
- 13:30-13:45 「ザンビアにおけるSTEMリテラシー育成のための教材構築過程に関する研究」鶴留マモル（広島大学大学院生）
- 13:45-14:00 「ザンビア小学生の小数計算概念の習得段階に関する研究」瀬下岳（広島大学大学院生）
- 14:00-14:15 「仏語圏西アフリカにおける児童の非認知的能力を育む要因—ベナン共和国のカリキュラム・学校行事に着目して—」小松勇輝（大阪大学大学院生）
- 14:15-14:20 （休憩）
- 14:20-14:35 「民主主義を目的とした教育に関する研究—数学的活動を国際的に協働することを通して—」内田豊海（鹿児島女子短期大学）
- 14:35-14:50 “A heterogeneity of relations between education and labor market outcomes in a diversity of languages: Evidence from South Africa” Takashi Yamaguchi（早稲田大学大学院生）
- 14:50-15:05 “Can a comparative fieldwork between Kenya and Thailand be conducted?” Taeko Takayanagi（早稲田大学）
- 15:05-15:10 （休憩）
- 15:10-15:30 “A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis on Effective Teaching Methods for Improving Students’ Learning Performance in Sub-Saharan Africa” Yoshie Hama（広島大学大学院生）
- 15:30-15:50 “The Effect of Refugee Inclusion on Learning Achievement of Refugee and Host Community Pupils: Evidence from West Nile, Uganda” Katsuki Sakaue（早稲田大学）
- 15:50-16:10 “When a teacher fails to assist children, what do young Zambian children experience through guided-play in an early childhood mathematics education?: A case study” Nagisa Nakawa（関東学院大学）
- 16:10-16:15 （休憩）
- 16:15-16:35 “Can positive deviance improve learning in developing countries? Baseline findings and study adaptations to counter COVID-19 effects in rural Uganda” Julius Atuhurra（国際基督教大学大学院生）
- 16:35-16:55 “The effect of COVID-19 on the teaching of Mathematics and Science in secondary schools” Edwin Byusa, Fidèle Niyukuri, Agnes Mboniyirivuze, Hashituky Telesphore Habiyaemye（ルワンダ大学）
- 16:55-17:15 “Analysis of the learning environment and COVID-19 in chemistry classes” Edwin Byusa, Edwige Kampire, Adrian Rwekaza Mwesigye（ルワンダ大学）

- 17:15-17:25 (休憩)
- 17:25-18:55 Special Session: The effect of COVID-19 on education in Sub-Saharan Africa
 Panelists : Frank Mtemang'ombe (マラウイ大学)、Florien Nsanganwimana (ルワンダ大学)
 Discussant: Kazuhiro Yoshida (広島大学)
 Moderator: Nagisa Nakawa (関東学院大学)

9月27日(日)

- 09:00-09:20 “Female Teachers’ Dilemmas over Practices in Girls’ Education: Focusing on Secondary School Teachers in Malawi” Misaki Sato (筑波大学院生)
- 09:20-09:40 “Gender Difference in Awareness and Participation in School-Based Management: An Action Research in Maasai Community in Kenya” Tetsuya Yamada (ピッツバーグ大学院生) / Mikiko Nishimura (国際基督教大学)
- 09:40-10:00 “Community schools as tools for conviviality: A case of Mathare in Nairobi, Kenya” Asayo Ohba (帝京大学)
- 10:00-10:05 (休憩)
- 10:05-10:25 “Exploring local perspectives of Citizenship Education in the global era: practices of rural schools in Madagascar” Andriamanasina Rojoniaina Rasolonaivo (大阪大学院生)
- 10:25-10:45 “School to work transition in the rural area of Madagascar: understanding the background to high school students' career plans” Fanantenana Rianasoa Andriariniaina (大阪大学院生)
- 10:45-11:05 “How do secondary school graduates access higher education? A case study of top students from a day school in rural Kenya” Miku Ogawa (大阪大学)
- 11:05-11:10 (休憩)
- 11:10-11:30 “Explaining the Rural-urban Learning Achievements Gap in Ethiopian Primary Education: A Re-centered Influence Function Decomposition using Young Lives Data” Jean-Baptiste Momahadou Bassirou Sanfo (神戸大学院生)
- 11:30-11:50 “A Descriptive Perspective of Intergenerational Persistence in Education and the Influence of Family Lineage Descent Systems in The Democratic Republic of Congo” Bernard Yungu Loleka (神戸大学院生)
- 11:50-12:10 “The Effect of Student Mobility on Achievement in Primary School: Cases from Malawi, Ghana, and Ethiopia” Kyoko Taniguchi (広島大学)
- 12:10-13:00 (休憩)
- 13:00-13:20 「中国におけるアフリカ人学生の留学動機と留学経験に関する一考察—厦門大学の学位取得型留学生を事例に—」 羅 方舟 (大阪大学院生)
- 13:20-13:40 「都市インフォーマル零細金属加工業の技能伝達における浮動と模倣—ウガンダ、首都カンパラのクトウェ地区労働者を事例に—」 山崎裕次郎 (名古屋大学院生)
- 13:40-14:00 「ケニア・ナイロビのスラムにおける無認可低学費私立学校の運営—自律的な発展と外部者の支援—」 澤村信英 (大阪大学)
- 14:00-14:15 最優秀発表審査・休憩
- 14:15-14:30 講評・閉会の辞

4. 実行委員会：委員長・事務局長：大場麻代 (帝京大学)

委員：高柳妙子 (早稲田大学)

5. 受賞者：最優秀研究発表賞：山崎裕次郎 (名古屋大学院生)

優秀研究発表賞：瀬下岳 (広島大学院生)、濱良枝 (広島大学院生)、

Jean-Baptiste Momahadou Bassirou Sanfo (神戸大学院生)

6. 参加人数 (事前登録者)：86名

アフリカ教育学会会則

第1条（名称）

本会はアフリカ教育研究フォーラム (Africa Educational Research Forum) からアフリカ教育学会 (Japan Society for Africa Educational Research) と改称する。

第2条（事務局）

本会の事務局は、会長が所属する機関または会長が指名する場所に置く。

第3条（目的）

本会は、アフリカの教育についての研究および調査の推進を図り、会員相互の交流と協力によって、アフリカ教育研究の発展に努めることを目的とする。

第4条（事業）

本会は、前条の目的を達成するために、次の事業を行う。

- (1) アフリカおよびその周辺地域の教育についての研究および調査
- (2) 研究発表のための会合の開催
- (3) 雑誌「アフリカ教育研究」の刊行
- (4) 本会の目的を達成するために必要なその他の事業

第5条（会員）

1. 本会は、次の会員をもって組織する。
 - (1) 正会員：本会の目的に賛同する個人
 - (2) 学生会員：本会の目的に賛同する大学院生および学部学生
 - (3) 特殊会員：特殊な事情により、会費納入義務なしに会員の権利が与えられる個人
2. 理事会は以下の条件を満たしかつ本会の目的に賛同する個人を、特殊会員として承認できる。
 - (1) 本会の正会員または学生会員としての経歴を有し、日本以外の国・地域で活動する個人（大学院生および学部学生を含む）
 - (2) 本会の正会員としての経歴を有し、65歳以上で常勤職に就いていない個人
 - (3) その他、理事会が会費納入義務を免除できる特殊な事情があると認定した個人

第6条（会費）

1. 会員は定められた年会費（正会員：5,000円、学生会員：2,000円、特殊会員：免除）を納入しなければならない。納入された会費は返却しない。
2. 顧問は会費の納入を要しない。

第7条（会員の権利）

1. 会員は次の権利を有する。
 - (1) 本会が刊行する雑誌「アフリカ教育研究」に投稿する権利
 - (2) 本会が開催する会合で、本会の目的に則った研究発表をする権利
 - (3) 本会が行う研究および調査、その他の事業に参加する権利
2. 会費を滞納したものは完納するまで、当該年度に第1項に定める権利を停止される。

第8条（入退会）

1. 会員になろうとする者は所定の申込手続きを行い、理事会の承認を受けなければならない。
2. 会員は、以下の理由で資格を失う。
 - (1) 本人が書面で退会を会長に申し出た
 - (2) 会費を1年間滞納した
 - (3) 本会の名誉を傷つける行為があったため、理事会が退会と決定した
 - (4) 本人が死亡した
3. 前項第1号の理由で退会する会員は、退会する年度までの会費を完納しなければならない。
4. 第2項第2号の理由で退会した個人は、第1項に定める手続きを経て再入会できる。

第9条（役員）

1. 本会に以下の役員を置く。
 - (1) 会長 1名
 - (2) 副会長 1名
 - (3) 事務局長 1名
 - (4) 理事 12名程度（会長、副会長および事務局長を含む）
 - (5) 顧問 若干名
 - (6) 幹事 若干名
 - (7) 監査役 2名
2. 役員の任期は2年とし、再任を妨げない。

第10条（役員の選出）

1. 理事は正会員から選出される。
2. 会長、副会長および事務局長は理事会において互選により決める。
3. 顧問は本会に特別の功労のあったものを理事会が選出し、会長が委嘱する。
4. 幹事は理事会が決め、会長が委嘱する。
5. 監査役は理事会が選考し、会長が委嘱する。

第11条（役員の任務）

1. 会長は本会を代表して会務を総括し、理事会の議長を務める。
2. 副会長は会長を補佐し、会長の不在あるいは事故のある時にその職務を代行する。
3. 事務局長は、会長、副会長を補佐し、事務局を統括し、日常の会務を執行する。
4. 理事は理事会を構成し、本会の組織運営、会則の改廃などに関わる事項の審議を行う。
5. 顧問は本会の運営等に関する事項について会長の諮問に応じる。
6. 幹事は本会の主に会計処理につき事務局長を補佐する。
7. 監査役は本会の会計を監査する。

第12条（会の運営）

本会の運営は本会則による。理事会は細則を定めることができる。

第13条（会議）

1. 理事会は、次の事項の議案の承認と決議を行う。
 - (1) 事業計画および事業報告
 - (2) 予算、決算および会計監査報告

- (3) 役員の選出
- (4) 会則の変更
- (5) その他
- 2. 会長は会員総会において理事会の決定事項を報告する。
- 3. 会員総会は通常毎年一回開催する。

第 14 条（会計）

- 1. 本会の運営および事業は次の資産によって行う。
 - (1) 会費
 - (2) 事業に伴う収入
 - (3) 寄付金
 - (4) その他の収入
- 2. 本会の会計年度は、毎年 4 月 1 日にはじまり翌年 3 月 31 日におわる。
- 3. 本会の会計処理は、事務局長が責任を持つ。
- 4. 監査役は、理事会に会計監査報告を行い、承認を受けなければならない。

第 15 条（学会賞の規定）

学会賞については、別途定めることとする。

第 16 条（会則の改正）

この会則を改正するときは、理事会での審議を経て、会員総会に報告する。

附則

本会則は、平成 20 年（2008 年）4 月 18 日から施行する。

附則

本会則は、平成 31 年（2019 年）4 月 13 日から施行する。

Japan Society for Africa Educational Research Bylaws

Article 1. Name of the Organization

The name of this organization shall be changed to Japan Society for Africa Educational Research from Africa Educational Research Forum.

Article 2. Executive Office

The executive office is established at an institution where the President belongs or at an institution appointed by the President.

Article 3. Purposes

The Forum aims to contribute to the development and promotion of the field of Africa Educational Research and to advance studies and fieldwork about African education through regional and international networks and collaborations among the members.

Article 4. Activities

In order to accomplish the aforementioned purposes, the Forum engages in the following activities:

- 1) Studies and fieldwork about education in and around SSA
- 2) Hosting conferences for research presentations
- 3) Publishing 'Africa Educational Research Journal'
- 4) Other duties essential to accomplishing the purpose of the Forum

Article 5. Membership

1. The forum shall consist and be organized by the below members.
 - 1) Regular members: individuals who support the purpose of the Forum
 - 2) Student members: graduate and undergraduate students who support the purpose of the Forum
 - 3) Special members: individuals who are given rights of membership without payment of membership dues in case of special circumstances
2. The Board of Directors can approve individuals who support the purpose of the Forum and fulfill the following conditions as special members.
 - 1) Individuals who were regular or student members and work outside Japan. (including undergraduate and graduate students)
 - 2) Individuals over 65 years who were regular members and do not take a full-time position.
 - 3) Individuals who are approved exemption of the membership dues by the Board of Directors due to special circumstances

Article 6. Membership dues

1. Members are responsible for annual membership dues: ¥5,000 for regular members, ¥2,000 for student members, free for special members. Membership dues are non-refundable.
2. The Advisor shall be exempt from membership dues.

Article 7. Entitlement of Membership

1. Members are entitled to:
 - 1) submit a paper to 'Africa Educational Research Journal'
 - 2) apply for presentations at academic meetings organized by the Forum

- 3) participate in studies, fieldwork and other activities sponsored by the Forum
2. A person who defaults in payment of the membership dues shall be suspended entitlements written in clause 1.

Article 8. Admission and withdrawal

1. Individuals may become members by following the designated procedures for application and receiving approval from the Board of Directors.
2. Membership shall expire when:
 - 1) the person submits a notice of withdrawal to the President.
 - 2) annual membership dues in arrears for that year is unpaid.
 - 3) the Board of Directors decides to terminate the membership of members who act with malice and/or inflict damages to the Forum.
 - 4) the person dies.
3. A person who withdraws by reason of clause 2. 1) must pay membership dues completely until the year of withdrawal.
4. A person who withdrew by reason of clause 2. 2) can apply re-admission by following the procedures written in clause 1.

Article 9. Administrative Board

1. The Administrative Board shall be composed of the following officers:
 - 1) President (1)
 - 2) Vice President (1)
 - 3) Executive director (1)
 - 4) Administration officer (about 12 including President, Vice President, and Executive director)
 - 5) Advisor (few)
 - 6) Secretary (few)
 - 7) Auditor (2)
2. The Administrative Board shall be elected for a term of two years and may be re-elected for multiple terms.

Article 10. Election of the Administrative Board

1. The Administration Officers shall be elected from regular members.
2. The President, the Vice President, and the Executive director shall be elected by the members of the Board of Directors.
3. The Advisor shall be as a person who has provided special distinguished service to the Forum, elected by the Board of Directors and appointed by the President.
4. Upon decision by the Board of Directors, the President shall appoint the Secretary.
5. Upon election by the Board of Directors, the President shall appoint the Auditor.

Article 11. Responsibilities of the Administrative Board

1. The President shall represent the Forum, superintend the programs of the Forum and act as chairperson of the Board of Directors.
2. The Vice President shall assist the President. If a vacancy by the President occurs for any reason, the Vice President shall perform duties usually retained by the President.
3. The Executive director shall assist the President and the Vice President, superintend the programs of the Executive Office and perform daily affairs for the Forum.

4. The Administration Officers shall constitute the Board of Directors and discuss certain matters involving reforming the Bylaws and the management of the Forum, etc.
5. The advisor shall give advice to the President on important questions about the management of the Forum.
6. The Secretary shall assist the Executive Director mainly in finances and accounting of the Forum.
7. The Auditor shall audit the Forum's financial statements.

Article 12. Management of the Forum

Management of the Forum is based on the Bylaws. The Board of Directors shall administer the Detailed Provision.

Article 13. Meeting

1. The Board of Directors decides and approves matters as below.
 - 1) Plans and results of activities
 - 2) Budget and settlement, financial report by Auditor
 - 3) Election of the Administrative Board
 - 4) Amendment of the Bylaws
 - 5) Others
2. The President shall report decided matters by the Board of Directors at the Annual Membership Meeting.
3. The Annual Membership Meeting holds a regular meeting in each calendar year.

Article 14. Finances and Accounting

1. The management and activities of the Forum shall be funded by:
 - 1) Membership dues
 - 2) Income associated with activities
 - 3) Donation
 - 4) Other additional income
2. The Forum's financial and accounting records shall begin on April 1 of the current year and end on March 31 of the following year.
3. The executive director is responsible for the finances and the accounting of the Forum.
4. The financial report provided by the Auditor, shall be approved by the Board of Directors.

Article 15. Award Provision

Academic award provision shall be prescribed separately.

Article 16. Amendment of the Bylaws

These Bylaws shall be amended upon approval by the Board of Directors. The amendment shall be reported at the Annual Membership Meeting.

Supplementary Provisions

The Bylaws shall be effective from April 18, 2008.

The Bylaws shall be effective from April 13, 2019.

「アフリカ教育研究」刊行規程

（目的・名称）

1. アフリカ教育学会（以下、学会という）における、アフリカの教育に関する研究の成果を公表し、アフリカの教育研究の推進に資するために「アフリカ教育研究」(Africa Educational Research Journal)を刊行する。

（編集委員会）

2. 「アフリカ教育研究」（以下、研究誌という）の編集は、編集委員会が行う。編集委員は学会員 8 名程度をもって構成し、編集委員長は、委員の互選による。その任期は 2 年とし、再任を妨げない。

（掲載論文等の種類）

3. 研究誌に掲載する論文等の分類は、以下のとおりとする。
（1）原著論文 （2）研究ノート （3）調査報告
投稿原稿をどの種類に分類するかについては、編集委員会が決定する。

（投稿資格）

4. 学会会員は、投稿資格を有する。

（連名での投稿）

5. 4. に定める投稿有資格者が第一著者である場合に限り、連名で投稿することができる。

（投稿件数）

6. 原則として一人 1 篇とする。ただし、連名での投稿を含む場合は 2 篇までとする。

（査読）

7. 投稿原稿は、編集委員会が審査を行い、採否を決定する。審査にあたっては、1 原稿ごとに 2 名の査読者を選定し、その結果を参考にする。

（刊行回数）

8. 原則として年 1 回とする。

（その他）

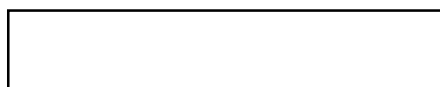
9. 執筆要領等、その他の必要事項については、編集委員会において定める。

「アフリカ教育研究」執筆要領

「アフリカ教育研究」編集委員会

- (1) 論文等の内容は、サブサハラ・アフリカおよびその周辺地域の教育に関するものとする。
- (2) 論文等は、未発表のものに限る。ただし、口頭発表はこの限りではない。
- (3) 使用言語は、日本語または英語とする。
- (4) 執筆方法は、ワープロ原稿とする（MS ワードが望ましい）。
- (5) 和文原稿は、A4 版横書き（本文、縦 40 行×横 40 行、10.5 ポイント以上）、14 枚以内（図表、参考文献を含む）を原則とし、冒頭に題目・要旨（500 字程度）およびキーワード（3～5 語）、文末に英文題目・要旨（300 ワード程度）およびキーワード（3～5 語）を記す。英文原稿は、8,000 ワード以内（同）を原則とし、冒頭に題目・要旨（150 ワード程度）およびキーワード（3～5 語）を記す。
- (6) 原稿には執筆者名、所属および謝辞を記入せず、別紙に論文題目、原稿の種類（原著論文、研究ノート、調査報告の別）、謝辞（必要な場合）、執筆者名、所属機関名、連絡先（電子メール、住所、電話）を明記する。
- (7) 図表、注記および参考文献の書き方などは、次のとおりとする。
 - ① 本文の区分は、次のようにする。
 - 1.
 - 1.1.
 - (1)
 - ② 図表は完全な原図を作成する。出所を明記し、タイトルは図の下あるいは表の上に入れる。

表 1 ケニアの初等教育就学率



(注)
(出所)

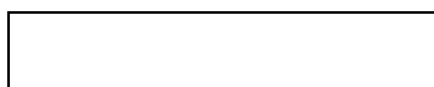


図 1 ガーナの中等教育就学率
(注)
(出所)

- ③ 本文における文献引用は、以下のとおりとする。

「・・・である」（内海 2010, p.12）という指摘がある。
・・・と考えられている（馬場 2009）。
黒田（2008）は・・・。
- ④ 注記、参考文献は、論文末に一括掲載する。
- ⑤ 参考文献の書き方については、以下のとおりとする。

単行本：
山田肖子（2009）『国際協力と学校—アフリカにおけるまなびの現場—』創成社。
小川啓一・西村幹子編（2008）『途上国における基礎教育支援—国際的潮流と日本の援助—』学文社。
吉田和浩（2005）「高等教育」黒田一雄・横関祐見子編『国際教育開発論—理論と実践—』有斐閣、121-140 頁。
Sifuna, D. N. & Sawamura, N. (2010) *Challenges of Quality Education in Sub-Saharan African Countries*. New York: Nova Science Publishers.

Kitamura, Y. (2007) The Political Dimension of International Cooperation in Education: Mechanisms of Global Governance to Promote Education for All. In D. Baker & A. Wiseman (eds.), *Education for All: Global Promises, National Challenges*. Oxford: Elsevier, pp.33-74.

雑誌論文：

小澤大成・小野由美子・近森憲助・喜多雅一（2008）「アフリカの大学による基礎教育開発に資する自立的研究への支援—ウガンダにおける事例—」『国際教育協力研究』3 号、11-16 頁.

King, K. (2000) Towards knowledge-based aid: a new way of working or a new North-South divide? *Journal of International Cooperation in Education*, 3(2), 23-48.

（8）原稿は完全原稿とし、著者校正は原則として初校のみとする。

投稿手続・日程

投稿希望者は、次の投稿申込日までに論文題目および著者名等を明記し、編集事務局に電子メール等で申し込み、原稿締切日までに添付ファイルで提出する。

[投稿申込締切日：毎年 3 月 31 日、原稿締切日：毎年 5 月 31 日（いずれも必着）]

編集事務局（投稿・問合せ先）

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編集後記

第 11 号をお届けします。今号からは冊子体での発行は行わず、オンライン・ジャーナルとなるのが大きな違いです。また、これまでは B5 サイズでしたが、印刷時の利便性等を高めるため、A4 サイズに変更しました。これまでもウェブ上で公開はしてきましたが、国内外に在住する会員のみならず、アフリカの教育に関心をお持ちの方々に広く読んでいただけることを願っています。

今号の特集は、宮崎での第 24 回大会（2019 年 10 月）における特別セッション「21 世紀アフリカ社会における教育研究の未来を考える」をベースとしています。本セッションの司会であった馬場卓也前会長に打診したところ、快く引き受けていただき、実現したものです。当日の登壇者であり、このたび寄稿くださった 3 名の会員諸氏、およびコメントを寄せていただいた 2 名の方々には、この場をお借りし、心より感謝申し上げます。貴重な論考ですので、ご一読いただけますと幸いです。

一般投稿については、査読を経て、研究ノートおよび調査報告の 2 編を採択することができました。オンライン・ジャーナルに移行する時期でもあり、積極的に投稿を働きかけなかったこともあると思いますが、前号掲載の 5 編に比べると、投稿数も減少しています。

ところで、編集委員会の委員は、2020 年 4 月から 4 名が交代し、このたび澤村が編集長を務めることになりました。6 名の編集委員に加え、編集幹事という形で 1 名に協力いただきます。今回は投稿数が多くなかったこともあり、委員の中で査読を行いました。今後は会員諸氏に査読を依頼する機会も増えてくるかと思しますので、ご協力賜りますと幸いです。

末筆ながら、引き続きまして、会員の皆さまからの投稿をお待ちしています。ご不明な点やご要望などがございましたら、ご遠慮なく編集事務局までご連絡ください。

（澤村）

アフリカ教育学会

(任期：2020 年 4 月～2022 年 3 月)

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筑波大学人間系教育学域 川口純研究室気付

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