

**ENVIRONMENTAL EDUCATION POLICY SUPPORT  
IN SOUTHERN AFRICA:  
A CASE STORY OF SADC REEP**

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## **Abstract**

The study takes place in the context of the Southern African Development Community's Regional Environmental Education Programme (SADC REEP). The SADC REEP is a programme of the Food Agriculture and Natural Resources Directorate of the SADC Secretariat. The programme is implemented through four components namely policy, networking, training and learning support materials development. The bulk of the policy budget is in the form of seed funding to support policy initiatives in the member states.

The intention of this study is to illuminate factors that influence the deployment and use of seed funding to support environmental education policy processes within the SADC REEP.

To sharpen the understanding of the context within which these activities take place, the study looks at the global and regional landscape of policy events and their influence on policy in the sub-region. The study also looks at the landscape of the fields within which environmental education is embedded, the power relations, and the notion of agency in environmental education policy processes. The discourse in environmental education policy processes is analyzed by drawing on Bourdieu's constructivist structuralism to highlight some of the social and institutional complexities in dynamic fields, capital and policy context.

The research takes a qualitative interpretative approach using case study methodology to explore the processes and influences that have a bearing on the SADC REEP policy sub-component, specifically the deployment and use of seed funding for policy initiatives.

The findings show the complexity of the variables at play in shaping the processes of developing and reviewing environmental education policies in the sub-region. These variables include discourse that is used, economics and politics of the responsible institutions and actors, as well as relationships between the environmental field and education field.

The results point towards a need to clearly understand the policy context within which the SADC REEP is operating in order to make correct assumptions, to develop realist expectations, and to put in place appropriate mechanisms that will effect the expectations.

The study recommends further probing of the relationship between the actors and networks in relation to the success of policy processes. It also recommends a further exploration of the SADC REEP's open-ended approach with respect to articulating the monitoring and consolidation of the successes in supporting environmental education policy processes.

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To my late father, Dr. M.V. Gumede, I say, “Dad, not too bad for your academically lazy daughter!!”

## Table of Contents

|                                                                                              |        |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------|
| Abstract .....                                                                               | i      |
| Acknowledgements .....                                                                       | iii    |
| Table of contents .....                                                                      | iv     |
| LIST OF FIGURES .....                                                                        | viii   |
| LIST OF TABLES .....                                                                         | viii   |
| LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS .....                                                     | ix     |
| <br>CHAPTER 1 .....                                                                          | <br>1  |
| THE PROFILE OF THE STUDY .....                                                               | 1      |
| 1.1 INTRODUCTION .....                                                                       | 1      |
| 1.2 AIM OF RESEARCH .....                                                                    | 2      |
| 1.2.1 Rationale of the study .....                                                           | 2      |
| 1.2.2 Aim of the study .....                                                                 | 3      |
| 1.2.3 My role in the study .....                                                             | 4      |
| 1.3 CONTEXTUAL PROFILE OF STUDY .....                                                        | 4      |
| 1.3.1 An introduction to the southern African sub-region .....                               | 4      |
| 1.3.1.1 A brief profile of some of the member states .....                                   | 6      |
| 1.3.2 A contextual history of SADC REEP .....                                                | 9      |
| 1.3.3 A brief SADC REEP Policy Context .....                                                 | 11     |
| 1.4 THE RELEVANCE OF THE STUDY .....                                                         | 12     |
| 1.5 A CONCLUDING COMMENT .....                                                               | 13     |
| <br>CHAPTER 2 .....                                                                          | <br>14 |
| PERSPECTIVES ON ENVIRONMENTAL EDUCATION POLICY CONTEXT<br>AND PROCESSES .....                | <br>14 |
| 2.1 INTRODUCTION .....                                                                       | 14     |
| 2.2 EDUCATION AND ENVIRONMENT FIELDS .....                                                   | 14     |
| 2.2.1 The education field as an old, well-established sector .....                           | 15     |
| 2.2.2 The environment field as a new social movement .....                                   | 18     |
| 2.2.3 Environmental Education and Sustainable Development Discourse .....                    | 21     |
| 2.3 ENVIRONMENTAL EDUCATION AND SUBSEQUENT POLICY<br>PRAXIS .....                            | 22     |
| 2.3.1 Implementation of Environmental Education Processes and Policies .....                 | 23     |
| 2.3.2 Resourcing of Environmental Education Processes and Policies .....                     | 24     |
| 2.4 REVISITING ENVIRONMENTAL EDUCATION POLICY IN THE FACE<br>OF GLOBAL POLICIES .....        | 25     |
| 2.5 DIVERSITY IN APPROACHES TO POLICY MAKING .....                                           | 26     |
| 2.5.1 Social context of policy processes .....                                               | 26     |
| 2.5.2 Initiation of policy processes .....                                                   | 30     |
| 2.5.2.1 Top-down approach .....                                                              | 30     |
| 2.5.2.2 Bottom-up approach .....                                                             | 31     |
| 2.5.2.3 Sectoral approach .....                                                              | 31     |
| 2.6 CAPACITY BUILDING FOR POLICY DEVELOPMENT AND USE .....                                   | 32     |
| 2.6.1 Building capacity for decision making and practice in the face of uncertainty<br>..... | 32     |
| 2.6.2 Investing in organizations versus investing in people .....                            | 32     |
| 2.6.3 Challenging power structures .....                                                     | 33     |

|                                                     |                                                                                 |    |
|-----------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----|
| 2.6.4                                               | Institutional change, uncertainty, environmental policy and social learning ... | 34 |
| 2.6.5                                               | Financial capacity building for environmental policy .....                      | 34 |
| 2.7                                                 | CONTEXTUALIZING POLICY DEVELOPMENT CHALLENGES                                   |    |
|                                                     | WITHIN THE SADC REEP .....                                                      | 35 |
| 2.7.1                                               | Broader Environmental Policy Processes in Southern Africa .....                 | 35 |
| 2.7.2                                               | The SADC REEP objective revisited .....                                         | 36 |
| 2.7.3                                               | Implications for the Research Question .....                                    | 37 |
| 2.8                                                 | A CONCLUDING COMMENT .....                                                      | 37 |
| CHAPTER 3                                           | .....                                                                           | 39 |
| RESEARCH METHODOLOGY                                | .....                                                                           | 39 |
| 3.1                                                 | INTRODUCTION .....                                                              | 39 |
| 3.2                                                 | THE RESEARCH ORIENTATION .....                                                  | 39 |
| 3.3                                                 | THE RESEARCH METHOD .....                                                       | 41 |
| 3.4                                                 | DESCRIPTION OF THE RESEARCH TOOLS AND TECHNIQUES ....                           | 43 |
| 3.4.1                                               | Data Generation .....                                                           | 43 |
| 3.4.1.1                                             | Layer 1: Broad document content analysis.....                                   | 44 |
| 3.4.1.2                                             | Reflection on broad document content analysis .....                             | 46 |
| 3.4.1.3                                             | Layer 2: Questionnaires, conversations and member-checking .....                | 48 |
| 3.4.1.4                                             | Reflections on Questionnaires .....                                             | 48 |
| 3.4.1.5                                             | Deepening the Vignettes.....                                                    | 49 |
| 3.4.1.6                                             | Personal Communication and Reflection .....                                     | 50 |
| 3.5                                                 | ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS .....                                                      | 50 |
| 3.6                                                 | ETHICS IN THE RESEARCH PROCESS.....                                             | 54 |
| 3.7                                                 | VALIDITY AND TRUSTWORTHINESS.....                                               | 55 |
| 3.8                                                 | A CONCLUDING COMMENT .....                                                      | 54 |
| CHAPTER 4                                           | .....                                                                           | 54 |
| FINDINGS: A NEST OF VIGNETTES                       | .....                                                                           | 54 |
| 4.1. INTRODUCTION                                   | .....                                                                           | 54 |
| 4.2 THE EE POLICY STORY OF BOTSWANA                 | .....                                                                           | 55 |
| 4.2.1 Broad Policy Processes .....                  | 55                                                                              |    |
| 4.2.1.1 Policy history .....                        | 55                                                                              |    |
| 4.2.1.2 Approach .....                              | 56                                                                              |    |
| 4.2.2 Broad Institutional Make-up .....             | 57                                                                              |    |
| 4.2.2.1 Structure .....                             | 57                                                                              |    |
| 4.2.2.2 Economic Capital .....                      | 58                                                                              |    |
| 4.2.3 Broad Policy Context .....                    | 59                                                                              |    |
| 4.2.3.1 Relationship between Fields .....           | 59                                                                              |    |
| 4.2.3.2 Discourse .....                             | 61                                                                              |    |
| 4.2.4 Broad Policy Actors and Power Relations ..... | 62                                                                              |    |
| 4.2.4.1 Actors and Knowledge .....                  | 62                                                                              |    |
| 4.2.5 Use of seed funding .....                     | 63                                                                              |    |
| 4.3 THE EE POLICY STORY OF MALAWI.....              | 63                                                                              |    |
| 4.3.1 Broad Policy Processes .....                  | 63                                                                              |    |
| 4.3.1.1 Policy history .....                        | 63                                                                              |    |
| 4.3.1.2 Approach .....                              | 64                                                                              |    |
| 4.3.2 Broad Institutional Make-up .....             | 65                                                                              |    |
| 4.3.2.1 Structure .....                             | 65                                                                              |    |

|         |                                               |     |
|---------|-----------------------------------------------|-----|
| 4.3.2.2 | Economic Capital .....                        | 67  |
| 4.3.3   | Broad Policy Context .....                    | 68  |
| 4.3.3.1 | Relationship between Fields .....             | 68  |
| 4.3.3.2 | Discourse .....                               | 69  |
| 4.3.4   | Broad Policy Actors and Power Relations ..... | 71  |
| 4.3.4.1 | Actors and Knowledge .....                    | 71  |
| 4.4     | THE EE POLICY STORY OF NAMIBIA .....          | 72  |
| 4.4.1   | Broad Policy Processes .....                  | 72  |
| 4.4.1.1 | Policy history .....                          | 72  |
| 4.4.1.2 | Approach .....                                | 73  |
| 4.4.2   | Broad Institutional Make-up .....             | 74  |
| 4.4.2.1 | Structure .....                               | 74  |
| 4.4.2.2 | Economic Capital .....                        | 75  |
| 4.4.3   | Broad Policy Context .....                    | 76  |
| 4.4.3.1 | Relationship between Fields .....             | 76  |
| 4.4.3.2 | Discourse .....                               | 77  |
| 4.4.4   | Broad Policy Actors and Power Relations ..... | 78  |
| 4.4.4.1 | Actors and Knowledge .....                    | 78  |
| 4.4.5   | Use of seed funding .....                     | 79  |
| 4.5     | THE EE POLICY STORY OF SOUTH AFRICA .....     | 80  |
| 4.5.1   | Broad Policy Processes .....                  | 80  |
| 4.5.1.1 | Policy history .....                          | 80  |
| 4.5.1.2 | Approach .....                                | 81  |
| 4.5.2   | Broad Institutional Make-up .....             | 83  |
| 4.5.2.1 | Structure .....                               | 83  |
| 4.5.2.2 | Economic Capital .....                        | 84  |
| 4.5.3   | Broad Policy Context .....                    | 85  |
| 4.5.3.1 | Relationship between Fields .....             | 85  |
| 4.5.3.2 | Discourse .....                               | 87  |
| 4.5.4   | Broad Policy Actors and Power Relations ..... | 88  |
| 4.5.4.1 | Actors and Knowledge .....                    | 88  |
| 4.5.5   | Use of seed funding .....                     | 89  |
| 4.6     | THE EE POLICY STORY OF TANZANIA .....         | 98  |
| 4.6.1.  | Broad Policy Processes .....                  | 90  |
| 4.6.1.1 | Policy history .....                          | 90  |
| 4.6.1.2 | Approach .....                                | 91  |
| 4.6.2   | Broad Institutional Make-up .....             | 92  |
| 4.6.2.1 | Structure .....                               | 92  |
| 4.6.2.2 | Economic Capital .....                        | 94  |
| 4.6.3   | Broad Policy Context .....                    | 94  |
| 4.6.3.1 | Relationship between Fields .....             | 94  |
| 4.6.3.2 | Discourse .....                               | 96  |
| 4.6.4   | Broad Policy Actors and Power Relations ..... | 97  |
| 4.6.4.1 | Actors and Knowledge .....                    | 97  |
| 4.6.5   | Use of seed funding .....                     | 98  |
| 4.7     | THE EE POLICY STORY OF ZIMBABWE .....         | 98  |
| 4.7.1   | Broad Policy Processes .....                  | 98  |
| 4.7.1.1 | Policy history .....                          | 98  |
| 4.7.1.2 | Approach .....                                | 99  |
| 4.7.2   | Broad Institutional Make-up .....             | 100 |



|                                                                             |                                                                                          |      |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------|
| 4.7.2.1                                                                     | Structure .....                                                                          | 100  |
| 4.7.2.2                                                                     | Economic Capital .....                                                                   | 100  |
| 4.7.3                                                                       | Broad Policy Context .....                                                               | 101  |
| 4.7.3.1                                                                     | Relationship between Fields .....                                                        | 101  |
| 4.7.3.2                                                                     | Discourse .....                                                                          | 102  |
| 4.7.4                                                                       | Broad Policy Actors and Power Relations .....                                            | 104  |
| 4.7.4.1                                                                     | Actors and Knowledge .....                                                               | 104  |
| 4.7.5                                                                       | Use of seed funding .....                                                                | 105  |
| 4.8                                                                         | A CONCLUDING COMMENT .....                                                               | 105  |
| CHAPTER 5 .....                                                             |                                                                                          | 107  |
| 5.1                                                                         | INTRODUCTION .....                                                                       | 107  |
| 5.2                                                                         | ANALYTIC STATEMENT 1: .....                                                              | 107  |
| 5.2.1.                                                                      | Assumptions about environmental education policy as a priority .....                     | 108  |
| 5.2.2                                                                       | Support mechanisms and spheres of influence .....                                        | 109  |
| 5.3                                                                         | ANALYTIC STATEMENT 2: .....                                                              | 111  |
| 5.3.1                                                                       | Understanding the complexity of a fragmented policy environment .....                    | 111  |
| 5.3.2                                                                       | Understanding complexities of a dynamic policy content .....                             | 113  |
| 5.3.3                                                                       | Introducing policy changes is a huge resource commitment .....                           | 115  |
| 5.4                                                                         | ANALYTIC STATEMENT 3: .....                                                              | 115  |
| 5.5                                                                         | CONCLUDING COMMENTS .....                                                                | 118  |
| CHAPTER 6 .....                                                             |                                                                                          | 120  |
| RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION .....                                        |                                                                                          | 120  |
| 6.1                                                                         | INTRODUCTION .....                                                                       | 120  |
| 6.2                                                                         | SUMMARY OF STUDY .....                                                                   | 120  |
| 6.3                                                                         | RECOMMENDATIONS .....                                                                    | 121  |
| 6.4                                                                         | RECOMMENDATION FOR FURTHER RESEARCH .....                                                | 123  |
| 6.4.1                                                                       | The issue of the actors and networks needs to be probed further .....                    | 123  |
| 6.4.2                                                                       | The SADC REEP's open-ended approach to policy processes needs to be probed further ..... | 113  |
| 6.5                                                                         | REFLECTIONS ON THE STUDY .....                                                           | 124  |
| 6.6                                                                         | CONCLUDING COMMENT .....                                                                 | 125  |
| REFERENCE LIST .....                                                        |                                                                                          | 126  |
| APPENDICES                                                                  |                                                                                          |      |
| APPENDIX 1: Samples of the Colour Coded Reports .....                       |                                                                                          | 120  |
| APPENDIX 2: A Sample of the Systematic Summary of the Reports .....         |                                                                                          | 134  |
| APPENDIX 3: The Open-ended Questionnaire – the Malawi example .....         |                                                                                          | 1238 |
| APPENDIX 4: The Open-ended Questionnaire – some examples of responses ..... |                                                                                          | 1239 |

## LIST OF FIGURES

|                                                                                                                             |     |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|
| Figure 1: Map of SADC member states in 2004.....                                                                            | 5   |
| Figure 2: A holistic look at learning processes .....                                                                       | 16  |
| Figure 3: A nested case approach.....                                                                                       | 42  |
| Figure 4: A diagrammatic presentation of the layered approach to data gathering                                             | 44  |
| Figure 5: An illustration of a plethora of fragmented environmental agenda<br>impacting on a complex education sector ..... | 112 |

## LIST OF TABLES

|                                                                    |    |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------|----|
| Table 1: Themes and sub-themes used to analyse the documents ..... | 45 |
| Table 2: Identification codes of the reports .....                 | 46 |

## LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

|         |                                                                          |
|---------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| AIDS    | Acquired Immuno-Deficiency Syndrome                                      |
| AsgiSA  | Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa                |
| BEEN    | Botswana Environmental Education Network                                 |
| BEST    | Better Environmental Science Teaching                                    |
| BOCONGO | Botswana Council of Non-Governmental Organizations                       |
| CBO     | Community Based Organization                                             |
| CDN     | Course Development Network                                               |
| CURE    | Coordination Unit for the Rehabilitation of the Environment              |
| DANCED  | Danish Cooperation for Environment and Development                       |
| Danida  | Danish International Development Agency /<br>Ministry of Foreign Affairs |
| DEA     | Department of Environmental Affairs                                      |
| DEAT    | Department of Environmental Affairs & Tourism                            |
| DESD    | Decade of Education for Sustainable Development                          |
| EE      | Environmental Education                                                  |
| EEASA   | Environmental Education Association of Southern Africa                   |
| EECI    | Environmental Education Curriculum Initiative                            |
| EEPI    | Environmental Education Policy Initiative                                |
| EETDP   | Environmental Education Training and Development Practice                |
| EIA     | Environmental Impact Assessment                                          |
| EJNF    | Environmental Justice Network Forum                                      |
| ELMS    | Environment and Land Management Sector                                   |
| EMA     | Environmental Management Act                                             |
| ESD     | Education for Sustainable Development                                    |
| EU      | European Union                                                           |
| FANR    | Food Agriculture and Natural Resources                                   |
| FET     | Further Education & Training                                             |
| GEAR    | Growth, Employment and Redistribution                                    |
| GEF     | Global Environment Fund                                                  |
| GET     | General Education & Training                                             |
| GTZ     | Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ)                |

|        |                                                                      |
|--------|----------------------------------------------------------------------|
| HET    | Higher Education & Training                                          |
| HIV    | Human Immunodeficiency Virus                                         |
| ICT    | Information and Communication Technology                             |
| IDP    | Integrated Development Planning                                      |
| IMF    | International Monetary Fund                                          |
| ITP    | International Training Programme                                     |
| IUCN   | International Union for the Conservation of Nature                   |
| LA 21  | Local Agenda 21                                                      |
| LEESP  | Lesotho Environmental Education Support Programme                    |
| MCF    | Malawi College of Fisheries                                          |
| MDGs   | Millennium Development Goals                                         |
| MEA    | Multi-lateral Environmental Agreements                               |
| MESA   | Mainstreaming Environment and Sustainability in African Universities |
| MIA    | Multilateral International Agreements                                |
| NCDC   | National Curriculum Development Centre                               |
| NCS    | National Conservation Strategy                                       |
| NCSA   | National Conservation Strategy Coordination Agency                   |
| NEAP   | National Environmental Action Plan                                   |
| NEEC   | National Environmental Education Committee                           |
| NEEN   | Namibian Environmental Education Network                             |
| NEENC  | National Environmental Education Network Committee                   |
| NEEP   | National Environmental Education Programme                           |
| NEMC   | National Environmental Management Council                            |
| NEMA   | National Environmental Management Act                                |
| NEPAD  | New Partnerships in African Development                              |
| NETCAB | Networking and Capacity Building Initiative for Southern Africa      |
| NGOs   | Non-governmental Organizations                                       |
| NIED   | Namibia Institute of Education Development                           |
| ODA    | Overseas Donor Agency                                                |
| RDP    | Reconstruction Development Programme                                 |
| REEP   | Regional Environmental Education Programme                           |
| REES   | Regional Environmental Education Support Project                     |

|        |                                                                                                                                                                   |
|--------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| RISDP  | Regional Indicative Strategic Development Planning                                                                                                                |
| RU     | Rhodes University                                                                                                                                                 |
| SADC   | Southern African Development Community                                                                                                                            |
| SAQA   | South African Qualifications Authority                                                                                                                            |
| SEEN   | Supporting Environmental Education in Namibia                                                                                                                     |
| SEJA   | Swaziland Environmental Justice Agency                                                                                                                            |
| SEP    | Schools Environmental Policy                                                                                                                                      |
| SGB    | Standard Generating Body                                                                                                                                          |
| Sida   | Swedish International Development Agency                                                                                                                          |
| SOE    | State of Environment                                                                                                                                              |
| STTEEP | Secondary Teacher Training Environmental Education Project                                                                                                        |
| UN     | United Nations                                                                                                                                                    |
| UNCED  | United Nations Conference on Environment and Development                                                                                                          |
| UNDES  | United Nations Decade for Education for Sustainable<br>Development                                                                                                |
| UNDP   | United Nations Development Programme                                                                                                                              |
| UNEP   | United Nations Environment Programme                                                                                                                              |
| UNESCO | United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation                                                                                                  |
| UNU    | United Nations University                                                                                                                                         |
| USAID  | United States Agency for International Development                                                                                                                |
| VVOB   | Vlaamse Vereniging voor Ontwikkelingssamenwerking en<br>Technische Bijstand<br>(The Flemish Association for Development, Cooperation and<br>Technical Assistance) |
| WEEC   | World Environmental Education Congress                                                                                                                            |
| WESSA  | Wildlife and Environment Society of South Africa                                                                                                                  |
| WSSD   | World Summit on Sustainable Development                                                                                                                           |
| WTO    | World Trade Organization                                                                                                                                          |
| WWF    | World Wide Fund                                                                                                                                                   |
| WWF-SA | Wildlife Fund for Nature-South Africa                                                                                                                             |
| ZAR    | South African Rand                                                                                                                                                |
| ZEECF  | Zimbabwe Environmental Education Consultation Forum                                                                                                               |

# CHAPTER 1

## THE PROFILE OF THE STUDY

*The southern African region is endowed with a rich natural resource base that provides the supporting medium for human well-being and environmental goods and services. However, the majority of the over 240 million people of the continent's sub-region face a complex array of sustainable development challenges.*

(SADC REEP, 2007: 4)

### 1.1 INTRODUCTION

This study aims to provide insight into processes that influence support of environmental education policy processes within the Southern African Development Community (SADC) Regional Environmental Education Programme (REEP). The SADC REEP, ratified by the SADC Council of Ministers in December 1996, started in 1997 with the assistance of Swedish International Development Agency (Sida) as a cooperating partner and the Wildlife and Environment Society of South Africa (WESSA) as an implementing agency (SADC REEP, 2001).

Chapter 1 introduces the research. The research emanates from a concern that seed-funding allocated to support policy processes in the SADC REEP was not used as much as seed-funding for training and development of learning support materials. The chapter situates the case story by describing the geographic and environmental landscape of the area under study and outlines the background and orientation of the programme that provides the case study. It also highlights insights from other sub-regional studies and processes which are relevant to the study. The chapter also details the main focus of the research by highlighting the research question and the goals of the study. It provides an overview of the thesis by introducing each chapter.

Chapter 2 outlines a macro landscape of the historical and current events that influence the study. The chapter also looks at what other scholars and writers say about policy processes. It therefore creates a landscape of prevalent ideas on the fields of study in which environmental education is embedded, the discourse and changes in that discourse, the underlying issues of power and culturalisation of institutions, the processes of policy development and implementation, and the agency of the actors in those processes.

Chapter 3 outlines the theoretical ideas that shaped the study, the methods and tools that were used in the study and how they were used. This chapter also attempts to clarify my role in the study, and gives insight into analytical processes used to construct the study, as well as ethical and trustworthiness dynamics.

Chapter 4 presents six vignettes that illustrate the stories emanating from the bulk of the data on which the study is based. In these vignettes, further insights from the other active member states are brought in to provide deeper perspective on the factors influencing policy processes in the region. The chapter then presents a synthesis of the findings.

Chapter 5 starts to consolidate the study. It discusses the findings of the study by providing a critical analysis. The emerging issues relate to the Programme design - its assumptions about the context in which it is taking place, the appropriateness of the support mechanisms; the challenges of influencing policy at national level – policy's complexity, with regards to content, institutions of implementation, and resource commitment; and the seeming mismatch relating to capacity of national agencies and their structural make-up in relation to the global and regional policy changes and expectations.

Chapter 6 provides recommendations based on the insights that emerged in the critical analysis. Chapter 6 also provides a reflection on the overall process of the study. Most crucial is the critique of the methods, their usefulness and limitations within the context of the study. This is followed by concluding comments.

## **1.2 AIM OF RESEARCH**

### **1.2.1 Rationale of the study**

Emphasis on policy needs in the region has progressively been seen in many sources: Agenda 21 in 1992, the SADC Environment Land Management Sector (IUCN & SADC ELMS, 1999); the membership of Environmental Education Association of Southern Africa (EEASA) through the Gaborone Declaration (EEASA, 2002); the World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) 2002 Implementation Plan, the

New Plan for Africa's Development (NEPAD), the mid-term review of the SADC REEP (Parker & Murray, 1999), the SADC REEP evaluation (Rosenberg, 2005) and various workshops over the life span of the programme. Despite the well-articulated need for composite national environmental education policies in the region, and the defining of a policy component in the SADC REEP, the response to the policy component and the inadequate use of the associated seed funding indicates some incongruency between what is articulated and the activities on the ground.

The relevance of this research is grounded on the notion that environmental learning and teaching takes place within a context where various factors contribute to its success. These include curriculum, the educator and the learner, institutional setting, and interested parties like parents, Community Based Organisations (CBOs) and Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs), resources and policy (Wickenberg, 2000). The funding of initiatives and the policies that drive these initiatives form a very important aspect of effective implementation. In the southern African arena where donor funding drives a number of environmental education reform initiatives, it was anticipated that the research would:

- Contribute towards project and programme development around environmental education policy processes of the SADC REEP;
- Assist in shaping the allocation and distribution of funding and other resources within future SADC REEP projects. This is important especially in the face of scarce financial and personnel resources and the need to maximize the use of these resources. Should more resources or fewer resources be allocated towards policy initiatives?

### **1.2.2 Aim of the study**

The aim of the study is to understand factors that influence the inadequate use of seed funding allocated for environmental education policy processes within the context of the SADC REEP. This aim has been broken into two achievable goals:

- To investigate what factors influence practitioners' engagement with environmental education policy processes;
- To investigate how seed funding is deployed and used in these processes.

The guiding research question is:



What factors influence the use of seed funding for environmental education policy processes in the SADC REEP?

### **1.2.3 My role in the study**

I was the Programme Manager of the SADC REEP from 2001 to 2006. Part of the responsibility included coordinating the policy sub-component of the project. I am still involved in conceptualisation of other projects within the SADC REEP. My experience as Programme Manager brings in the perceptions I have developed from the interaction with the vast network of actors in the SADC sub-region and beyond.

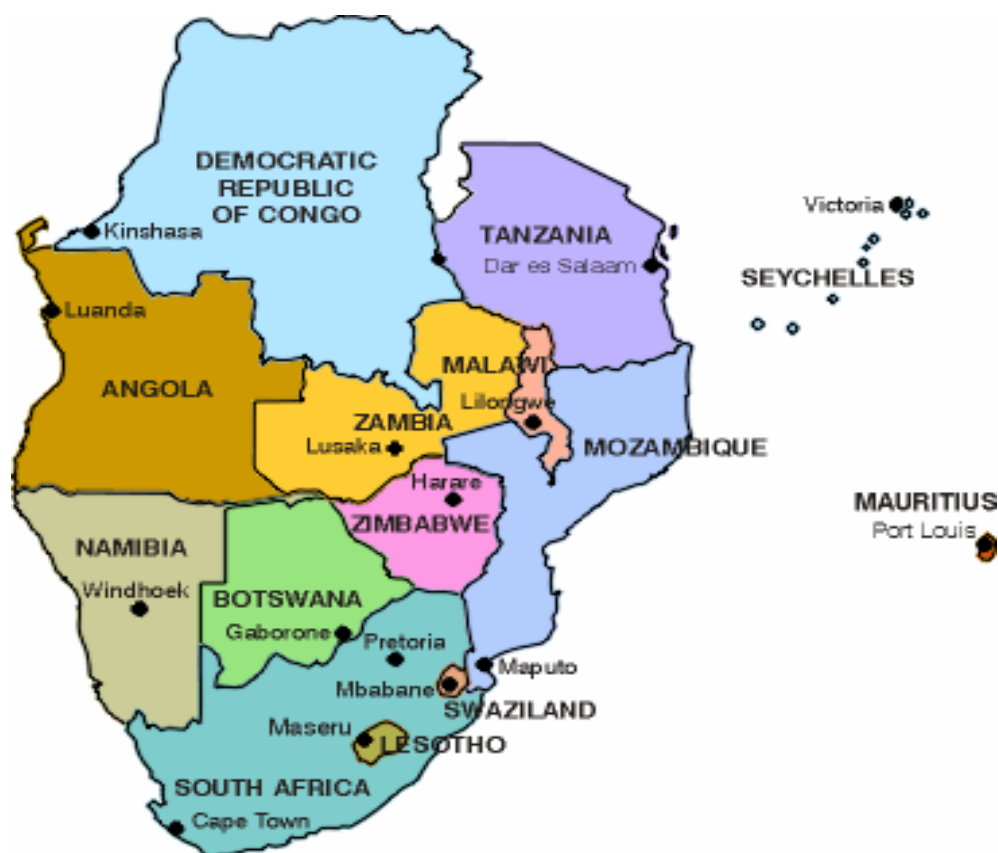
I used these insights throughout the study, consciously or unconsciously. This has a negative side, in that my personal involvement could have created blind spots in the study. There might have been important areas that I overlooked because I did not think that they were important and relevant. This is the challenge of researching one's own work. In my methodology, I have therefore tried to distance myself from the study by triangulation at various stages of the study. This included discussions with peers, using other sources of information on the SADC REEP such as the midterm review reports of the programme.

## **1.3 CONTEXTUAL PROFILE OF STUDY**

### **1.3.1 An introduction to the southern African sub-region**

The geographic scope of the study is determined by the mandate of the SADC, which in turn determines the boundaries of the SADC REEP and its funding. At the time of the study the sub-region involved 13 of the 14 SADC member states, namely Angola, Botswana, Democratic Republic of Congo, Lesotho, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe. Seychelles' participation was intermittent. The member states are depicted in Figure 1 that follows.

**Figure 1: Map of SADC member states in 2004**



Sourced from [www.sadc.net/index](http://www.sadc.net/index)

It is important to look at some of the environmental issues, risks, and opportunities in this sub-region in order to appreciate the context in which policies are being developed and implemented.

Collectively the region has scoped its main concerns as poverty, peace, security and stability; health; waste; food security; energy; climate change; biodiversity; water; land degradation and desertification; market access; capacity building and technology transfer (SADC, 2003). These do not feature uniformly across the region. In some countries, there may be issues; while in others there may be opportunities (SADC REEP, 2002a). Southern Africa, a home to close to 291 million people and 75% living in rural areas is plagued by poverty which is exacerbated by cycles of drought and floods, and vulnerability to diseases like the AIDS/HIV pandemic and malaria (Lotz-Sisitka, 2004). The majority of people in the rural and peri-urban areas live with

poverty and hence rely heavily on the natural resources for their survival (Lotz-Sisitka, 2004; SADC, 2003). As this reliance is usually unmonitored and unplanned, localized land degradation, biodiversity loss, pollution through solid waste and sanitation, and decline in natural vegetation take place at a very high rate, with inadequate plans in place to mitigate against the degradation.

#### **1.3.1.1 A brief profile of some of the member states**

This section gives a brief overview of the six member states that are featured in the study (see Chapter 4). These are Botswana, Malawi, Namibia, South Africa, Tanzania and Zimbabwe.

**Botswana** is a landlocked, largely semi-arid to arid country with a population of 1.7 million. It also boasts a huge population of endangered and some endemic fauna and flora like the wild dog and rare species of sable and devil's claw (Southern African Institute for Environmental Assessment, 2003). In Botswana 35 percent of the land is reserved as National Parks (<http://www.envirobotswana.gov.bw/>). The predominant land uses are agriculture, parks and wildlife reserves. These are impacted upon by encroaching human settlements especially in the eastern part of the country (Southern African Institute for Environment Assessment, 2003). Currently, Botswana has one of the strongest and most stable economies in southern Africa. The economy strength is derived from mining and to some extent tourism. However, 47 percent of the population live in a state of poverty especially in rural communities (ibid.).

**Malawi** is a landlocked country with a population of 12 million people and is endowed with one of the largest fresh water bodies in the region, Lake Malawi (Southern African Institute for Environmental Assessment, 2003). Like other countries in the southern African region, Malawi experiences several environmental problems including deforestation, soil erosion, rapid human population growth and habitat degradation, potable water depletion and degradation, over-fishing which leads to fish resources depletion, threats to biodiversity, air pollution, climate change and inadequately managed waste disposal (ibid.). While the Government of Malawi has tried different initiatives to arrest environmental degradation there is little change on the ground (SADC REEP, 2005). This is exacerbated by the fact that 50 percent of

people in Malawi never attended school and they have inadequate environmental knowledge and capacity (Malawi, 2002).

**Namibia** lies on the western coast of southern Africa with 92 percent of the land mass said to be hyper arid, semi-arid or arid. Although the country does not enjoy species diversity, the existing species are mostly endemic to the Namib Desert (Southern African Institute for Environment Assessment, 2003). Sites of endemism include the desert/ savannah transitional zone – Namib Escarpment, and the Succulent Steppe Vegetation Belt in the winter rainfall region (Southern African Institute for Environmental Assessment, 2003). The key land and natural resource use are agro-pastoral farming, commercial fishing, mining and natural resource based tourism. Lack of easily available fresh water, high rates of evaporation, poor and easily degradable soils, rapidly increasing urbanisation and variable fishing stock availability are some of the issues that contribute to environmental pressures (Southern African Institute for Environmental Assessment, 2003; SEEN/Ministry of Education, 2005). Like South Africa, Namibia is one of southern Africa's youngest democracies following its independence in 1990.

**South Africa** is an environmentally, economically and culturally diverse country whose development was initially driven by the 1994 Reconstruction Development Programme document (ANC, 1994; Southern African Institute for Environmental Assessment, 2003) followed by the 1996 Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) strategy, which is currently being fast-tracked through the Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa (AsgiSA). The RDP aims to reduce poverty through creating a sustainable and environmentally friendly growth and development path. The country's environmental and education visions are found in various policies and plans starting with the 1996 Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, the 1997 Urban Development Strategy, the 2000 Rural Development Strategy, the National Environmental Management Act of 1998, and Curriculum 2005 and the National Curriculum Statements of 2002. The country is characterised by a myriad of social and environmental pressures including degradation of the Fynbos biome which is endemic to South Africa, air and water pollution from heavy industrial zones that are in close proximity to residential areas, rapid unplanned and environmentally unsustainable urbanisation which is up to 58 percent, increasing poverty levels and

unemployment, households led by orphans of AIDS, and climate change, to name a few (Southern African Institute for Environmental Assessment, 2003).

The Republic of **Tanzania** had a population 33.7 million in 2000 with 31 percent residing in urban areas and the economy is agriculture-based (Southern African Institute for Environmental Assessment, 2003). The country is endowed with remarkable environmental features. These include the highest mountains in Africa: Mount Kilimanjaro at 5950 metres above sea level, and the Uluguru Mountains; Great Fresh water Lakes: Tanganyika which is home to 217 endemic fish species, Victoria, and Nyasa with a diversity of over 600 fish species; soda lakes: Eyasi, Manyara and Ngorongoro; the Indian Ocean and its coral reefs and small islands (Southern African Institute for Environmental Assessment, 2003). It is also characterised by its fauna whose migration provides a tourist attraction. Some of the key environmental limitations are erratic rainfall accompanied by varying magnitudes of droughts; inaccessible water resources; poor soil fertility and erodable soils; and poverty (Southern African Institute for Environmental Assessment, 2003). All land in Tanzania is public land and 42 percent of the land is under cultivation while 29 percent of the total land surface is devoted to resource conservation (Southern African Institute for Environmental Assessment, 2003). The 1999 land tenure laws devolved the responsibility of land management to the elected village government bodies. These bodies need to engage with key environmental impacts like deforestation, land degradation, pollution, habitat destruction and loss of biodiversity, household and industrial air pollution, and increasing effluent and waste production (Southern African Institute for Environmental Assessment, 2003).

**Zimbabwe** is a landlocked country, which shares borders with South Africa to the south, Botswana to the southwest, Mozambique to the east, and Zambia to the northwest. Much of the country sits on a high plateau 1000 m or more above sea level. Zimbabwe is a semi-arid country with national average rainfall of about 650 mm per annum. Traditional land use in the 1990s was communal lands, large-scale commercial farming, resettlements, and parks and wildlife reserves (Southern African Institute for Environmental Assessment, 2003). The last six years have seen the country experiencing major political and economic changes that have resulted in variable major environmental impacts. The environmental effects mainly emanate from the proliferation of illegal gold panning activities, deforestation, veld fires, accelerated soil erosion, and wetland encroachment (Gandiwa, 2005). Generally, the

increased frequency and periodicity of droughts and the prevailing unstable macro-economic environment have resulted in more people resorting to activities that have severe negative repercussions on the bio-physical environment. The new farmers who emerged with the land redistribution policy have also created a major environmental challenge as in some instances, they lack skills in sustainable land practices and management systems (Gandiwa, 2005).

Looking at the few examples above, it makes sense that in the southern African region environmental education practitioners have always viewed environment in a broad context where political, economic and social dimensions are interlinked. Lotz-Sisitka notes that in a context like this environmental education processes are closely intertwined with

... issues of development, survival, livelihoods, improved quality of education and improved quality of life, and more sustainable living practices. It is perhaps for this reason that environmental educators in southern Africa have long been concerned with environmental education processes that are *processes of social change* (Lotz-Sisitka, 2004: 10).

### **1.3.2 A contextual history of SADC REEP**

The SADC REEP was designed to strengthen capacity to manage environment wisely in the sub-region. This aim has been reiterated in the Regional Indicative Strategic Development Plan (RISDP) (SADC, 2003), a document that resulted from a strategic review of SADC. Through the SADC REEP, capacity for environmental education is being developed specifically in the areas of:

- human capacity, where training of environmental education practitioners and development of relevant training courses / curricula are supported (including networking for the development of courses);
- development, adaptation and use of materials to support environmental learning regionally and locally;
- networking of practitioners within the sub-region for them to share and learn from each other through publications and a formal steering committee made up of focal points nominated by their governments In the Programme these focal points are referred to as National EE Network Representatives or Network Representatives;
- strengthening of Non Governmental Organisations (NGOs) especially the broader networks like the Environmental Education Association of Southern Africa, National EE Networks, who form the necessary platform for many other smaller NGOs to work together at local level; and

- supporting policy development, reviewing understanding and implementing processes regionally and at national level.

The SADC REEP is funded through different projects, with a key source of funding coming from Sida. The establishment of the facilities were supported by the South African government through DEAT. There are various mechanisms of actualising the SADC REEP components. One of mechanisms is to provide seed funding for activities that strengthen training, materials development and policy processes at a local level. Each year has seen a healthy use of seed funding for materials development and training, but there has been least “interest” in the use of seed-funding for policy processes. This phenomenon is the crux of my interest.

When initiated, the SADC REEP was responding to objective 6 of the Food, Agriculture and Natural Resources (FANR) directorate in SADC, which is “to ensure the recognition of the value of natural resources so that they can contribute to the welfare and development of all the people of the region” and its functional goal “to increase public information, education and participation on environment and development issues” (SADC, 1996: 34).

The orientation and principles of the Programme become important in understanding the activities and challenges that led to the study. The Programme and its subsequent activities have evolved through a reflexive and participatory process. Environmental education practitioners initiated the SADC REEP at a workshop in 1994 where a need for regional coordination of environmental education in the southern African region was expressed (SADC ELMS, 1994). SADC ELMS was approached as the most suitable home for the programme and the Programme was ratified by the Council of Ministers in 1996. The home of the Programme has changed over time following the restructuring of SADC secretariat that ended in 2002. It was initially placed within the SADC FANR directorate, then moved to the SADC Chief Director’s Portfolio as a cross cutting issue in the Environment and Sustainability Unit, then returned into the FANR directorate again where it currently resides. The programme is implemented by WESSA, and is based in Howick in South Africa. The guiding principles of the Programme include: responsiveness; flexibility and structure; participation and partnerships; recognition of diverse contexts; regionalization; building on existing

structure and researched experience; transparency and accountability; process and product balance; open endedness; monitoring, evaluation, research and reflexivity (SADC REEP, 2002a). These principles have guided the growth and activities of the Programme including the policy component.

### **1.3.3 A brief SADC REEP Policy Context**

The SADC REEP programme has a history of being informed by environmental education practitioners on the ground. This is evident in its inception at the Windhoek workshop in 1994 and in the participatory development of its various projects – the SADC Regional Environmental Education Support Project (REES); the Sida supported project; the two evaluation processes in 1999 and 2005; the re-visioning process of the Programme beyond 2005 where environmental education practitioners, National Environmental Education Network Representatives (Network Representatives), and other environmental education experts have been continuously consulted. Collectively, these practitioners provide a ‘bottom-up’ influence, which is based on practice and experience from across the region.

The SADC REEP is also guided and influenced by a number of global and regional agreements. At the sub-regional level it is informed by and hence responds to the SADC Regional Indicative Strategic Development Plan (RISDP) and its operationalisation document (SADC, 2003). These documents contain the guiding path for development in the region up to year 2015. The operationalisation plan highlights capacity building for environment and sustainable development.

A study on the SADC protocols on education and capacity building and on environment in the region highlighted a number of problems, namely:

- ♦ Although SADC has protocols on education they still have not developed a protocol on environment (SADC REEP, 2004a).
- ♦ Most protocols which affect environment that have been developed are sector specific, and do not recognize the “...cross-sectoral linkages and relationships that are critical in the implementation of sustainable development” (SADC REEP, 2004a: 31). This is problematic because these protocols are the sub-region’s policy guidelines and instruments of



implementation by the member states (Obol, Allen & Springall Bach, 2004).

- There is limited awareness of these protocols, as indicted in a 2004 audit of environmental education policy processes in the SADC region:

In most of the countries, including decision-makers, opinion leaders, and teachers, are not aware of them. Thus it is not presently realistic to expect that individual and collective action will achieve the objectives of the Protocols and other environmental strategic plans (SADC REEP, 2004a: 31).

The SADC REEP was directly involved in an attempt by the sub-region to develop a regional environmental education policy. This process highlighted the challenges of the role of policy when it is removed from the people who would be using or implementing it; in this context these are the member states of SADC (IUCN & SADC-ELMS, 1999). It leaves policy as a vague statement of intent, a ‘nice to have’ document. The process also highlighted the challenges of a policy that would accommodate nations and their institutions that are at very different levels of commitment and with extremely different capacities to engage and implement the “agreed upon” commitments. Consensus is a key issue if the policy process is to move the full cycle of implementation (IUCN & SADC-ELMS, 1999; Obol et al., 2003).

#### **1.4 THE RELEVANCE OF THE STUDY**

The relevance of my research is grounded on the notion that environmental learning and teaching take place within a context where various functions contribute to its success. These include curriculum, the educator and the learner, institutional setting interested parties like parents, Community Based Organisations and Non-Governmental Organisations, resources and *policy* (Wickenberg, 2000). The funding of initiatives and the policies that drive these initiatives form a very important aspect of effective implementation. In the southern African arena where a number of environmental education reform initiatives are driven by donor funding, it is anticipated that:

- the research will contribute some insights into project and programme development around environmental education policy processes in the SADC sub-region; and

- the research will assist in shaping the components and distribution of funding in other projects especially in the face of scarce financial and personnel resources and the necessary need to maximize the use of those resources.

## **1.5 A CONCLUDING COMMENT**

This thesis has been inspired by the limited use of the seed funding for policy processes as a means of measuring the effectiveness of the SADC REEP in supporting policy processes within member states. The study aims to throw some light on the factors that have affected the success and non-success of the policy sub-component of the SADC REEP. However, it presumes that the insights will be read within the realm of the SADC REEP, which forms the backdrop of the research and then contribute towards the reshaping how the SADC REEP responds to strengthening environmental education policy initiatives. It also does not presume to provide general conclusions and recommendations that will fit any other policy processes in any other parts of the world.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **PERSPECTIVES ON ENVIRONMENTAL EDUCATION POLICY CONTEXT AND PROCESSES**

*“Policy is usually created in response to some need.  
However, the need may have to be clearly understood before any action is taken.”*  
(Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999: 241)

#### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

In order to understand environmental education policy processes in the southern African region, one needs to understand the landscape of discourse within which these processes are situated. This requires probing the key environmental and educational events over the last decades, as well as exploring underlying assumptions and influences the events had in shaping the resulting environmental education policy. The chapter therefore outlines the landscape within which environmental education policy is situated. This is done by looking at the tensions arising from environmental education as an emerging field (Ketlhoilwe, 2007) as compared to a well-established field of conventional education. The chapter also looks at the three dominant approaches to policy processes in the region. The approaches are top-down, bottom-up and sectoral. It is important to look at them because they shape the types of engagement in the processes. The chapter also looks into issues of capacity building around environmental education policy development and use in the face of institutional change, uncertainty and social learning. This landscape is then contextualized within the SADC Regional Environmental Education Programme, which is the subject of the study.

#### **2.2 EDUCATION AND ENVIRONMENT FIELDS**

Environmental education sits in the cusp of two fields, namely education and environment. These fields, and other fields like development, sociology and politics have a strong bearing on environmental education and policies that guide and govern it. To understand environmental education and its policy processes it is important to look into the processes that shape education and environment fields.

### **2.2.1 The education field as an old, well-established sector**

The education field is an old, well-established field of study and practice. Over centuries it has developed a massive body of theories and practice, which have become fully institutionalized in every aspect of society's development. Similarly, policies and events aimed at strengthening and supporting education have been developing over the centuries. However, the institutionalization of education has taken a strong focus on formal education, leading to an emphasis on processes that highlight learning and teaching in the formal education and training sector. It also has established the role of the state as the "... superior agency, hierarchically relating to all other constituents" (Olssen, Codd, & O'Neill, 2004: 256) especially in the development, review and delivery of education as a service.

The education field, through policy development, review, and delivery has evolved and strengthened itself through various meta-narratives. These include

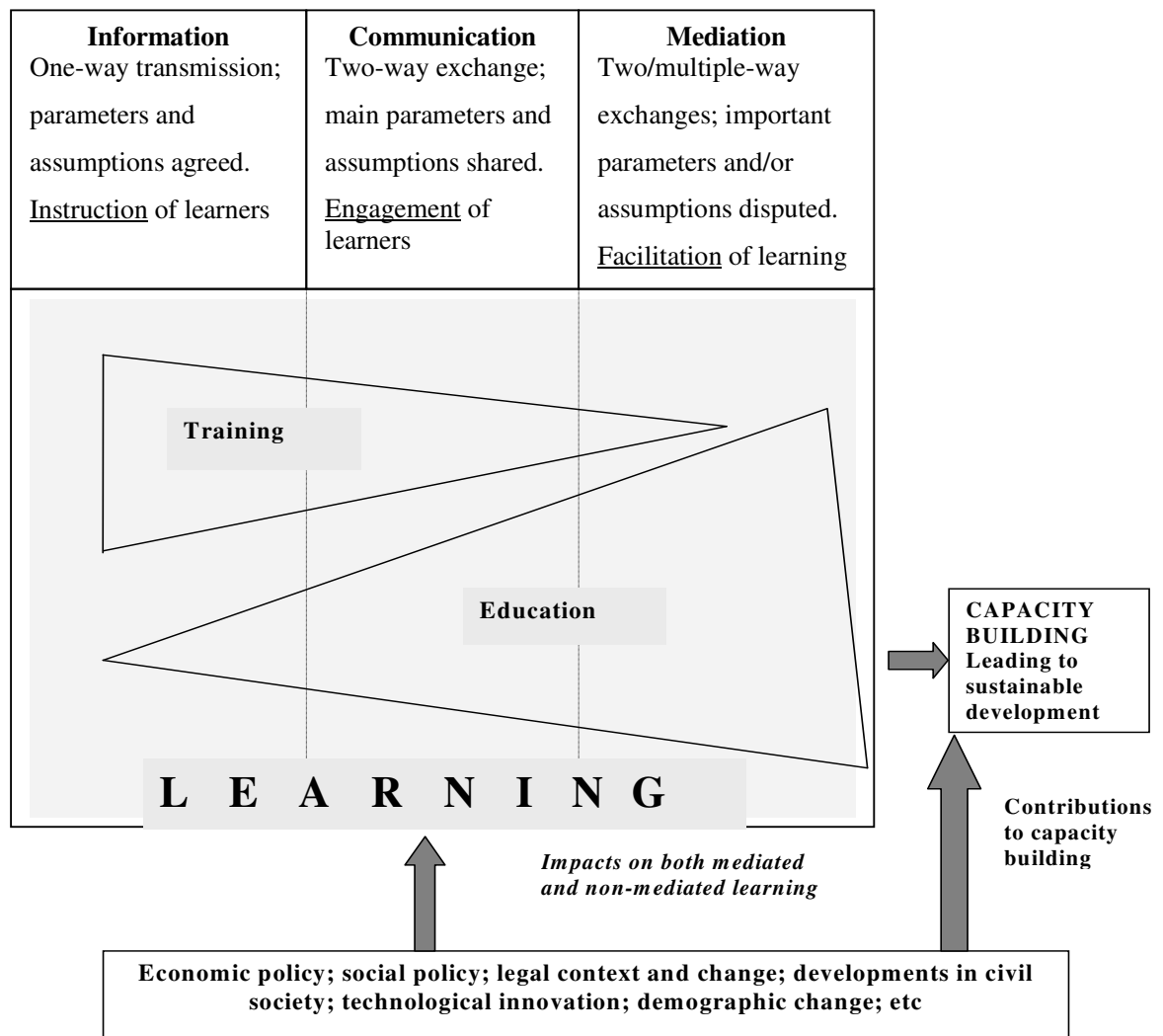
- education leading to social mobility and life change;
- interest in accounts of ideologies and schools as agencies of cultural production;
- interrogating the role of education in social stereotyping, which was strongest from the feminist movement; and
- teaching methods to identify the effectiveness of different styles and teaching tools (Giddens, 2001).

Recently we see a strong focus towards lifelong learning, which acknowledges that learning, as opposed to education, takes place in many forms and settings. Giddens (2001) reiterates this when he says, "... skills and knowledge can be gained through all types of encounters..." (523). This notion is also evident in Education for Sustainable Development (ESD) discourse. Chapter 36 of Agenda 21 mentions the need to promote adult education programmes for continuing education. (Quarrie, 1992). A decade later, Scott and Gough (2003) note: "... by learning throughout our lives we equip ourselves to choose most advantageously as the future unfolds" (147). They point out the handicap that has been created by breaking down education into smaller 'manageable' components or divisions, which with time have become an integral way of thinking about society. This has led to the formation of cultural institutions, which affect and effect the processes and strategies of learning. This

breaking down of the education function may lead to reductionism of education with regard to teaching, learning and the mediating activities of teaching and learning.

Scott and Gough (2003) propose another model of viewing learning and hence understanding these existing components. The model looks at the components that inform learning in a more integrated and holistic manner as depicted in Figure 2.

**Figure 2: A holistic look at learning processes**



Source: Scott and Gough, 2003

The model looks at three strategies to understand the dimensions of learning especially with respect to training and education. The first is one-way transmission of information where awareness raising tools such as leaflets and posters transmit information which might be used if there is a will to use it, and the parameters and

assumptions are agreed. The second is communication where learning is effected by a two-way process of engagement and there is scope to deliberate on the information. However, people might not necessarily be aware of the aim of the information but the main parameter and assumptions are shared. The third strategy is mediation, which is multifaceted where the parameters and assumptions are contested and learning is facilitated. This is ideally where the bulk of learning in education is located. Scott and Gough (ibid.) then argue that there are spaces where learning still takes place without the intervention of the educator and policy maker because of the individuals' context and other policies. This context might contribute positively or negatively. These strategies later throw light onto the complexities of policy processes in southern Africa, especially with respect to the activities that inform and / or are informed by policy (see chapter 5).

Scott and Gough's model is quite relevant in the southern African context where environmental education is nested within complex institutional arrangements that are also influenced by the various dimensions namely, economy, the social context, the legal context, the developmental and technological context and many others. Therefore, the educational outcome is shaped by the strategy used: whether the learners unquestioningly accept what to learn or whether they think about what they should learn and why they should learn it. The latter contributes to agency (Scott & Gough, 2003). Agency becomes crucial when there is complexity that is compounded by the fact that the education components, be they formal, non-formal and informal; also straddle many sectors and fields.

Historically, the education sector has been discipline-centred with lessons being arranged in terms of compartmentalized subjects, like mathematics, biology, physics and others. This discipline-centred organizing of the curriculum becomes critical when curriculum has to be reviewed with the aim of introducing cross-cutting issues like gender, environment, and health risks. It adds another layer of complexity with respect to policy delivery. To borrow from Foucault's idea of critique, this complexity can be explained in terms of "unrecognized forms of power which trap people into ways of thinking about and experiencing these disciplines to a point that they no longer see the inherent ... limitations but embrace them as the very structure of normal and natural..." (Olssen, Codd, & O'Neill, 2004:39) teaching and learning.

It has taken a long time for society and its institutions to formally recognize and mainstream the role played by informal education and training, that is, "... moving from symbolic policy to one which may begin to be implemented" (Walters, 2006: 21). This recognition is played out in the emergence of policies that recognize local curriculum as in Zambia and Mozambique, life-long learning and broader national qualifications frameworks as seen in South Africa; and revised education and skills development frameworks that are driven and influenced mainly by the labour movements. The SADC RISDP calls for an increase in the availability of educated and highly skilled personnel (SADC, 2003). The Protocol on Education and Training of 2000 provides for cooperation in lifelong education and training (SADC, 2003). Other evidence of change is in the movement towards performance based education, like outcomes based education seen in South Africa, where a strong discourse on competency based education is advocated by lifelong learning scholars.

From the above, education can be seen as a well-established field, which is guided by a robust body of meta-ideas and structures that have become strongly entrenched in our social development, thinking, practice and structures.

### **2.2.2 The environment field as a new social movement**

The environmental field is emergent and still characterized by contestation (Lotz-Sisitka, 2004). The contestation is based on variant understandings of what environment is, and diverse views and understandings of the root causes, effects, threats and risks associated with environmental issues. This is made more complex by the diversity in the contexts in which these variant understandings are at play, and the need to factor in these dynamics in response to these issues (Scott & Gough, 2003). Not only is this field evolving, it is highly dynamic with numerous influences that are situated in various well-established, aggressive sectors. The key influential sectors include macro-economic development with its unsustainable, resource intensive practices and the political sector, which is shaped by the highly dominant current economic and development models and their associated discourse (Perlas, 2000). The political economy is being driven by wealth production and the related modes of production and values like over-consumption. The dark side of the current economic model is the exacerbation of poverty and environmental degradation as the poor get pushed into marginal, fragile ecosystems (Lotz-Sisitka, 2004).

Over the years it has been a challenge to mainstream environmental issues and suitable responses in governance (Perlas, 2000). Although there is evidence of governments being aware of the environmental problem, it is only in the last three decades that they have seriously started making efforts in focusing on responses through policies in some aspects of environment (Grove-White, 2005). These policy responses can be seen in the form of water quality standards, waste disposal regulations, wildlife and amenity protection, higher standards of energy efficiency, use of Environmental Impact Assessments, Strategic Environmental Assessments and other environmental decision making tools (ibid.).

A political wave of change in southern Africa has been taking place following the demise of colonial governance structures (Lotz-Sisitka, 2004). This change towards democratization of governance is evident in the range of independence-centred elections that took place in the last two decades. Giddens (2001) attributes political change largely to the effects of globalization on mass communication and competitive capitalism. Democratization came with the need to transform existing institutional structures, initially through review of policies. This transformation, which was taking place within a globalization ambit, opened opportunities for the inclusion of environmental and sustainability issues (Lupele, 2002).

NGOs, academics and other activists have been pivotal in highlighting the seriousness of environmental problems. From the turn of the twentieth century to 1992, there has been a growth of 5000 independent environmental groups working for social change at an international level (Quarrie, 1992). Their "...influence on policy, especially in the environmental and development fields, has been profound" (ibid.: 22). They have been calling for governments and the business sector to re-look at their practices and have brought recognition of the environment as an important social policy field. Giddens (2001) highlights the fact that environmental activists have scored victories against government and corporations in issues such as genetically modified foods. Wangari Maathai as cited in Quarrie (1992) commented on the impact of NGOs in 1992 stating that the nature of environment and development debate had been changed forever by the institutional recognition of the NGOs as partners for sustainable development by the United Nations Conference on Environment and



Development (UNCED) process. UNCED highlighted the dependence of development on the environment and its natural resources. Although it took a strongly anthropocentric stance: "... human beings are at the centre of concerns for sustainable development. They are entitled to a healthy and productive life in harmony with nature" (Earth Summit: 2). The role of civic society in global policies around sustainable development was also highlighted by Perlas (2000) in his analysis of cultural power in relation to political and economic power in the sustainable development discourse.

The rights and responsibilities of states are outlined in the programme of action that emerged from the 1992 Earth Summit, Agenda 21. Chapter 27 of Agenda 21 says governments should take measures to "review government education systems to identify ways to include and expand the involvement of non-governmental organizations in the field of formal and informal education and of public awareness" (Quarrie, 1992: 199). In Chapter 36, Agenda 21 also called for the promotion of education, public awareness and training as areas that are "linked to virtually all areas of Agenda 21 and even more closely to the ones on meeting basic needs..." (ibid.: 221).

The decade between UNCED and the UN World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) was used to build institutional frameworks to put the UNCED policy framework into practice, with governments gradually ratifying agreements that were reached at the UNCED. As part of the democratization of the policy frameworks, the decade also saw NGOs, activists and academics quickly being mainstreamed into the institutionalized environmental policy community (Grove-White, 2005). The risk of this mainstreaming has been a potential diminishing of the militant role of NGOs as activists. Freitas (2003) still argues for resolution of social and economic problems by environmental activism so that NGOs do not become marginalized (Freitas, 2003).

Some sectors still argue that the environmental field is a sub-sector of the development field. This is evident in the ongoing debates of whether there is a significant distinction between environmental education and education for sustainable development. The issue is elaborated further in the next section.

### **2.2.3 Environmental Education and Sustainable Development Discourse**

As discussed above environmental education finds itself in the cusp of the two fields of education and environment, and is also strongly linked to developmental issues. The World Commission on the Environment and Development and its resultant report, *Our Common Future* (UN Documents Corporations Circle homepage, 2005) gave impetus to the discourse around sustainable development and the capacity thereof. This discourse is found in many national and international policy documents. It has gained momentum in the education field following the WSSD and the introduction of the UN Decade of Education for Sustainable Development (DESD). The UN DESD (2005-2014) is an initiative aimed at integrating the principles, values, and practices of sustainable development into all aspects of education and learning. The aim is articulated in the *International Implementation Scheme*, (UNESCO, 2005). The sustainable development discourse emerged during a time when environmental education was beginning to take root in the government institutions especially in the southern African region, at least in the form of pilot projects. These projects were geared towards informing environmental responses especially at policy and legislation level. As mentioned above, the 1992 UNCED highlighted environmental considerations in striving for sustainable development. This was captured in five documents, namely: Agenda 21; the Rio Declaration on Environment and Development; the Statement of Forest Principles; the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change; and the United Nations Convention on Biological Diversity (United Nations. Department of Public Information, 1997).

There are many other regional protocols and Multilateral Environmental Agreements (MEAs) which have been ratified, including the trans-frontier resource management agreements in southern Africa (UNEP, 1999). The implementation of these agreements place capacity building of institutions and human resources as an integral part of the planning process.

The international milestones have led to and shaped the development and / or, strengthening of regional and local policies as seen in the development of the SADC and NEPAD policies around sustainable development. SADC ELMS (1994) in analyzing the 1992 Earth Summit saw Agenda 21 as a comprehensive but flawed action plan for application in Africa, especially with regard to practical policies and

measures for reducing the poverty of the majority of people while combating environmental degradation (SADC ELMS, 1994).

The importance of environment and sustainable development in the southern African sub-region has been reiterated through their inclusion in the 15-year SADC RISDP as key priority intervention areas (SADC, 2003). The NEPAD programme has also highlighted environmental and sustainability issues in its Plan of Action as seen in NEPAD's Action Plan on Environment and its capacity building initiative (NEPAD, 2003).

However, policy in the environmental field has been confused by the significant fragmentation and duplication of authority and responsibilities. For example, in Zimbabwe ten different ministries administer an estimated 20 environment-related laws while in Botswana eight ministries are responsible for implementing 33 environmental laws (SADC, 1996). The situation is further complicated in countries such as South Africa where responsibilities are shared by central and regional authorities (DEAT, 1998).

### **2.3 ENVIRONMENTAL EDUCATION AND SUBSEQUENT POLICY PRAXIS**

The post UNCED period saw a number of countries in Africa take the significant step of incorporating the environmental rights and responsibilities of their citizens in their constitutions (UNEP, 1999). Examples include Benin, Ethiopia, Eritrea, Ghana, Malawi, Mali, Mozambique, Seychelles and Uganda. This period also saw the establishment of new environmental agencies, policies and laws. However, the new environmental units were usually added on to the government decision-making structures, mainly as coordinating bodies, or combined with an existing natural resource or development department, for example in water, forestry or tourism (ibid.). Unfortunately, these environment agencies often lacked the authority, budgets, staff, expertise and equipment to implement the new policies and action plans effectively or to enforce the laws (ibid.).

As shown above, at policy level, the environmental field has made advances in terms of being mainstreamed into governance structures. However, environmental education

that supports this field falls in the space between the environmental management and education fields. This has a number of implications in terms of institutionalization, implementation and resourcing as discussed in the sections that follow.

Over the years, in the southern African region, NGOs and educational institutions have spearheaded environmental education processes as a non-formal education curriculum. Environmental education practitioners in the 2002 Gaborone Declaration reiterated the call for institutionalization of environmental education processes in the formal curriculum. They acknowledged the need to strengthen their role in supporting re-orientation of curriculum development policies and practices (EEASA, 2002). The major challenge of institutionalization of environmental education processes lies in the fact that the environment field is usually located within the ministries of environment, natural resources management and / or tourism, while the implementation of education is a competency of the education ministry at a national level. At the regional level, the SADC formal education and human resource development is housed in the Social and Human Development directorate while environment is in the SADC FANR directorate. At a global level the United Nations Education, Science, and Culture Organisation (UNESCO) is the lead agent for education while the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) are lead agents for development and environment respectively. This creates a rupture in terms of policies that are developed in one sector and have to be implemented in another sector, and it requires careful management of institutional politics and interdepartmental cooperation.

### **2.3.1 Implementation of Environmental Education Processes and Policies**

As mentioned in section 2.2 environmental education straddles two fields, and subsequently two sectors, the education and the environment sectors. Usually, environmental education policy formulation is housed within the environmental sector, and yet its implementation, at least in the sense of formal education lies mostly in the education departments. As shown in sections 2.3.2, 2.5, and 2.6, the fragmentation of environmental policy, its enforcement, and implementation make capacity building and education around this field complex and challenging (EEASA, 2002).

Furthermore, institutionalization of environmental education policy in the education sector is also a complex process that involves a number of divisions. These include the integration of the various policies into a coherent education sector policy, building a knowledge infrastructure, the school management infrastructure, and the human and physical resources, which are costly and complex processes (UNESCO, 2004).

What complicates this situation is the fact that most global agreements and policies come with unfunded mandates as seen in processes of Agenda 21 and the UN Decade of Education for Sustainable Development. The varied understanding and interpreting of the EE processes and policies further complicate the implementation. Mkandawire (2002) when looking at the decentralization of environmental management in Malawi, pointed at the elasticity of the term capacity-building which could "... refer to a variety of processes, including training, formal and informal education, networking, technical assistance and investment in infrastructure" (41).

### **2.3.2 Resourcing of Environmental Education Processes and Policies**

Section 2.2.4 showed that the actual implementation of environmental policies has not been fully mainstreamed, with most countries making them add-on units that are added to existing policy structures. This poses a further challenge in allocating resources for the implementation of environmental education processes. Southern African countries such as South Africa, Botswana, Lesotho, Namibia, and Zimbabwe have embarked on integrating or infusing environment in the curriculum. This is in accordance with aspects of national policies. However, funding of these processes is still not fully institutionalized within the government budgets and these initiatives to integrate environmental policy into education are largely funded externally by overseas donor agencies (UNESCO, 2004). For example, the World Bank has been one such international cooperating partner that has funded integration of curriculum through the Environmental Support Programme (Lupele, 2002). Other significant partners include DANIDA, Sida, UNEP and many others.

The challenge of project-based overseas funded innovations lies with their sustainability. Samoff, as cited in Lotz-Sisitka (2004: 55) noted that these innovations found in many places in Africa are most often not sustained. If not immediately institutionalized and budgeted for by the core implementing lead departments, the efforts tend to fizzle away as soon as the external short-term funding stops. The

challenge then is how to effectively impress the importance of making provisions for these innovations to be part of the government budgets.

## **2.4 REVISITING ENVIRONMENTAL EDUCATION POLICY IN THE FACE OF GLOBAL POLICIES**

Integral to the environmental and educational global conventions, frameworks, regional and national institutional processes, and curriculum reviews is the idea of promoting **sustainable development** through education and training. The importance of environmental education in contributing to the achievement of global agreements on environmental management and sustainable development was highlighted at the launch of the UN Decade of Education for Sustainable Development in March 2005. The secretary general of UN emphasized the need to resolve environmental issues if the UN Millennium Development Goals were to be achieved (UNESCO, 2005). The present challenge for education, especially in the southern African region lies in the introduction of the discourse on sustainable development. Sustainable development is fundamentally problematic in that it has been open to many interpretations (Rosenberg, 2004). This problem in turn spills into the arena of Education for Sustainable Development. In southern Africa, policy documents easily reflect the discourse of “sustainable development”, with little in-depth explanation of what is meant by sustainable development in a southern African context, or in the context of a specific country. The SADC RISDP defines sustainable development as “a pattern of development that permits future generations to live at least as well as the current generation” (SADC, 2003: 146). In a region that is riddled with health threats and risk, high levels of unemployment and poverty, this definition of sustainable development poses a big challenge for policy making and capacity building around it. Environmental education is a process of social change like health and life orientation education. Individuals are envisaged to undergo a process that will enable them to make informed decisions about their lifestyle choices (Sallis, Bauman & Pratt, 1998). How does education respond to policies that are embedded in a context that is dynamic and usually contested? The expectations that are linked to policy as a tool for social change need to be adequately managed through constant engagement with, and understanding of these policies.

## **2.5 DIVERSITY IN APPROACHES TO POLICY MAKING**

To understand policy, its processes and implications, it is important to look also at the various approaches to its creation. In this study policy is viewed as a phenomenon or as a process. Policy as a phenomenon is a “... purposive course of action followed by an actor or a set of actors in dealing with a problem or concern” (Anderson cited in Nhamo, 2005: 24). This set of decisions is usually captured in documents. The notion of policy as a continuum resonates with Obol, Allen & Springall Bach (2003) who conclude that policy “... can be viewed as a continuum with ... stages in a policy process or cycle...” (24). The stages include initiation, adoption by an institution, implementation and review or evaluation and these need not necessarily follow a linear progression. However, as a process, policy involves social processes and their associated milieu. This idea is expanded upon in section 2.5.2.

The notion of policy as a process is quite different from the traditional view of policy as a static guiding framework, which is captured in documents.

### **2.5.1 Social context of policy processes**

Giddens (2001) notes that “social movements often arise with the aim of bringing about change on a public issue... Often, laws or policies are altered as a result of action of social movements... Social movements are among the most powerful forms of collective action” (Giddens, 2001: 439). What this highlights is the need to understand the processes in social change movements (such as the environmental movement) in order to strengthen the understanding of policy processes.

In explaining the understanding of policy processes within this thesis, I have borrowed from ideas of Bourdieu on constructivist structuralism to highlight some of the social and institutional dynamics of social change (Grenfell & James, 1998). Bourdieu’s work on constructivist structuralism explains that in society there are social agents that operate by orientating social practice. Practice is structured and tends to reproduce the structures of which practice is a product although evolution in practice does occur through reflexivity (ibid.). This, Bourdieu refers to as constructivist structuralism or structural constructivism where human activity takes place in a context that is ever changing (ibid.). Structure mediates between objectivity and subjectivity where structure is seen as a dynamic cause and effect. In the context

of policy, the product in the form of written documents is seen as a structured structure that determines the practices, elsewhere practice that determines the product (the written policy documents) could be seen as a structuring structure (Grenfell & James, 1998).

One of the key influencing aspects of policy is knowledge and understanding of the field in which the agents operate. Knowledge and thought processes are influenced by the noematic and noetic forms of consciousness (noema being everything one knows about an object of thought and noesis being moments of perception, where not everything that is known is brought into mind (Grenfell & James, 1998). These do affect the constructivist structural change process where human activity and reproducing of structures is affected by the interplay between all that is known and or what we know or perceive at particular moments in relation to structures that exist.

In terms of policy development processes, it is important to note that as agents come together to construct the product or as they practise the policy, there will always be these forms of consciousness around the policy and the content within which the policy is being developed or practised. This is therefore likely to influence the way that policy is developed, and / or used.

Other key dynamics at play in the deliberations on policy are found in Bourdieu's ideas of *habitus* and field. Bourdieu sees *habitus* as the operational site of this dual sense of structure – social inheritance of social reality (Grenfell & James, 1998). This implies habit or unthinking-ness in action, which plays a role in production of practices by individuals. Field is seen as a network of objective relations between positions objectively defined by their present and potential situation in the distribution of type of power and or capital (Grenfell & James, 1998). In other words, institutions and or individuals exist in structural relation to each other and the principles behind their relations can be ascertained. In this case, fields are education, environment, development, culture, and policy, which are interrelated and at times contained within each other.

Bourdieu has been critiqued for being mechanistic in his notions of power and domination underplaying the role of class cultures and their relations to each other



(Grenfell and James, 1998, citing Giroux). It is claimed that Bourdieu's view leaves no room for notions like resistance, incorporation and accommodation, which at the time of Bourdieu's research, was common in the field of social education as it was breaking free of structural functionalism (ibid.). Also his use of *habitus* has been critiqued because behind the idea of *habitus* lies a number of social arrangements that can count as structure. Bourdieu suggests that people become rational when they step out of their automatic responses (ibid.). While these critiques are valid, and can be accepted based on a range of other theoretical work conducted into issues of power and *habitus*, for the purposes of this thesis, the overall ideas of Bourdieu are being adopted as sufficient (in the context of a half-thesis) to open spaces for understanding process of policy development and practice at a sub-regional level, where his concept of field and capital are particularly useful, as is his notion of structural constructivism.

To understand policy, it is also critical to consider the issue of power. Power in policy processes can be explained in terms of the social dynamics in these processes. There is power possessed by the agents who are involved in the development and practice. There is also power of the product. The power of the product lies in the language used. Words like "shall" and "ought" make the policy's implementation imperative and place accountability in the institutions expected to implement them (Ketlhoilwe, 2007). Similarly, words like "may" give leeway to the implementing institution to implement or not if the circumstances like scarcity of resources permit. The linguistic approach moves from a consideration of meaning of people to the rules and standards of social life that form the practices of daily life. These rules are not fixed and do not provide final truth but are continually changing in relation to shifting circumstances (Popkewitz, 1991). There is also power of institutions that could be legitimate or perceived from practice and habit (i.e. power embedded in *habitus*).

There is an added complexity in interrogating power with respect to policy processes. There is power that lies in the various capitals of the agents and agencies that are active in a given field or fields. Bourdieu explains them as economic, social and cultural capital. Economic capital is seen respectively in money or direct products of money like material resources, network of relations of the individuals or sphere of contacts. Cultural capital is seen as the product of education and class like academic and technical expertise, accent, disposition and language to articulate ideas (i.e.

symbolic power). Bourdieu further uses *capital* to describe the social products of a field or system of relations through which individuals carry out social intercourse (Grenfell & James, 1998).

Education is a field, made up of identifiable interconnecting relations ... It is governed by overarching principles for example those to do with purposes, or equality of access. These principles possess power which arises from the interplay between individual authorities who articulate them in an explicit manner ... and the resultant acceptance and recognition conferred on them by educationalists both within and outside of the field

Grenfell & James, 1998: 20

This relationship between power and capital is visible when looking into the influence of the players in the policy process arena. As mentioned above, for example, international donors have economic capital, which presents a form of power in shaping policy. Bourdieu asserts that capital attracts other capital. For example, economic capital (of the donors) can attract cultural capital (various forms of expertise and knowledge) which can shape the policy processes. So, embedded in policy discourse are issues of participating partners, external commentators or critics, and institutions; knowledge and power relations; and whose agenda ultimately drives and shapes the policy implementation (Keeley & Scoones, 2003). The various orientations to policy with associated power and knowledge relations outlined above have a significant influence on the adoption and implementation of policies. The role of these factors is emphasized in Keeley and Scoones (2003) and in African policy studies by Babikwa (2004) and Ketlhoilwe (2007) where engagement in the various policy processes, their success and failure, and the need to reflect, are illustrated. Bakobi and Russo (2000) and Keeley and Scoones (2003) emphasise the role of partners and funding as crucial aspects of the all policy pronouncements especially in strategy and action plans. Ketlhoilwe's study (2007) shows the significance of the role of environmental organisations in the formulation of environmental education policies at a national level (Botswana). However, these partners are seldom neutral in their interest. In the context of environmental education, which is cross-cutting and emergent, the interests of affected and interested partners are as diverse as the partners themselves. Similarly, the power and capital that each brings to the table are just as complex and varied (Ketlhoilwe, 2007). In a context of southern Africa where most environmental and education policy processes are funded externally, it is important to

consider the influence of different forms of capital when one looks at the processes and products of policy.

### **2.5.2 Initiation of policy processes**

In section 2.5 policy was described as a continuum of stages: initiation, adoption, implementation, and review. This study engages with the processes of initiating and reviewing policy development. My privileging these two stages is based on the premise and assumption that when there is an adopted policy all parties become bound by it in one way or the other, be it active or passive. How they implement it becomes a matter of how they understand and interpret it.

Initiation and review of a policy can occur through various means. Three possible approaches are outlined below: top-down, bottom-up and sectoral

#### **2.5.2.1 Top-down approach**

A top-down approach is the historically predominant approach to policy development (Nhamo 2005). It is characterized by government or management initiating the development of policy. The process is usually driven by experts who are endowed with sector knowledge, which is used to support this process (Keeley & Scoones 2003). The policies could therefore be based on the power of the experts who bring to bear ‘scientific knowledge’ to rationalize the decisions that are taken. The strength of this process is that it could save time, and if the context is appropriately researched, it could be cost effective (ibid.). On the other hand, this approach could be ineffective in that the policy might not filter through to the lower levels of the institution, therefore becoming an unused forgotten document on a shelf. Also with its present reliance on science as a tool for policy-making, this approach may lend itself to a policy that is not popularly understood and accepted by the greater population resulting in misinterpretation and constant contestations. With environmental issues being complex, Scott and Gough (2003) point out that the best available information may not be the most helpful information. This is particularly pertinent in southern Africa as the region is undergoing transformation to a more participatory and democratic state of governance.

### **2.5.2.2 Bottom-up approach**

The bottom-up approach is a more democratic approach where the need is felt at grassroots level and the policy develops organically from the practices of the people and or institutions, and then develops into a formulated statement of intent (Nhamo, 2005). The assumption embedded in this approach is that the practices are the correct way of doing things. Its weakness is that it may be time consuming as the collective experience of practice takes time to emerge. Also, the practices are often not fully researched to clearly understand and highlight pros and cons. According to Scott and Gough (2003) “Improving participation at local level may not necessarily improve the core emphasis of government policy ... Experimentation with new methods of participation ... can further slow decision making processes, as well as adding cost ...” (85). They also point out the possible erosion or delay of the longer-term change because of the short-term policy fixes that address immediate problems through short-term experimenting. However, as the process develops from the grassroots, the formulated statement of intent becomes well-understood and known at all levels. An example in southern Africa is the use of projects aimed at strengthening environmental education policy processes through schools policies and practice.

### **2.5.2.3 Sectoral approach**

At times the policy may emerge from the needs of a sector that does not have a direct and immediate responsibility for environmental education. When a sector like tourism needs to show aspects of education and awareness-raising as part of the process to obtain accreditation for a programme, they may instigate the development of an environmental education policy processes. An example is the Blue Flag programme where in order for beaches to be accredited they need to show, amongst other things, a sustainable environmental education and awareness raising programme (FEE, 2006).

These three approaches, top-down, bottom-up and sectoral, play a major role in understanding the successes of policy processes. Currently, all three approaches are found in Africa (Keeley & Scoones, 2003) and the SADC REEP favours a combination of these (SADC REEP, 2002a).

## **2.6 CAPACITY BUILDING FOR POLICY DEVELOPMENT AND USE**

### **2.6.1 Building capacity for decision making and practice in the face of uncertainty**

Capacity building is “... seen as an essential element if development is to be sustained and centred in people” (Eade, 1997: 1). If capacity building is an intervention to empower individuals and institutions to make decisions about their development and in turn foster change, it is critical that the agents read the context carefully and develop a mutual understanding of respective missions and goals with the benefactors of capacity building. Development takes place in a context of constant social change. Hence capacity building within this constant change brings uncertainties with regard to outcomes (ibid.). Mackowitz (cited in Nhamo, 2005: 20) talks of knowledge about environmental problems being characterized by big uncertainties that Nhamo (ibid.) classifies as risk, uncertainty, ignorance and indeterminacy. Because environmental education straddles the social and environmental fields it adds a layer of uncertainty with regard to outcomes of the capacity building.

### **2.6.2 Investing in organizations versus investing in people**

Policy documents sometimes create ambiguity when the term ‘capacity building’ is used. The ambiguity lies in whether capacity building means empowering the people to function more effectively or empowering the institutions to function better in terms of human resources or operational level. Lotz-Sisitka (2004) points to this inadequacy in the NEPAD and WSSD documents. The same is seen in the SADC RISDP where “... little understanding is shown of how environmental education processes may ‘build capacity’” (Lotz-Sisitka, 2004: 35). The capacity of the institution includes creating an enabling environment for the empowered individuals to unlock their creativities or even to simply use the skills and knowledge that have been acquired in training. Capacity building around policy usually requires strengthening the capacity of the institutions to engage with the change in the skills of its personnel. Eade (1997) notes that training is effective only if part of an overall strategy is to enable participants to make use of what they have learned. Sometimes an enabling environment may require a change in the organization’s make-up including ethos, structure, policies and other aspects (Eade, 1997). It is therefore important to

understand the necessary capacities required for effective policy processes, that is, people and or institutions.

Eade (1997) further argues that it is difficult to change attitudes of institutions when these attitudes are a reflection of the wider society. He describes a survey done by Oxfam, India on what would make a difference to women's job satisfaction and career prospects in a society where women are given a lower status. It showed that there was change when senior managers were prepared to listen, take action, and commit resources to issues that had been regarded unimportant. Could the same be said for environmental education policy processes in southern Africa where other concerns such as poverty, HIV/AIDS, lack of services such as clean water and sanitation, and housing seem to be society's priority? This calls for critical consideration of power structures in institutions.

### **2.6.3 Challenging power structures**

According to Eade (1997) "social education is concerned with empowerment and hence challenging existing power structures" (82). In southern Africa, there has been a shift from positivism to social constructivism as a dominant approach to capacity building especially in the non-formal education sector (Lotz-Sisitka, 2004). The process of capacity building may generate unexpected outcomes as power structures based on social hierarchy like wealth, gender, race, age, family or ethnic divisions may affect how individuals participate and how they relate to each other. Eade (ibid.) cautions that "...a successful social education programme is likely to meet with conflict at some point, and maturity to manage such conflict is itself a critical capacity in the development process – a major reason why external agencies should avoid forcing their own pace and agenda..." (82). Could this be of relevance to the SADC REEP? Would it be a reasonable expectation that the beneficiaries of capacity building would be in a position to challenge power structures in their organization and beyond to initiate environmental education policy processes?

#### **2.6.4 Institutional change, uncertainty, environmental policy and social learning**

As society transforms, the institutions and organizations that support societal transformation also need to change (Giddens, 2001). It follows that as the individuals become empowered to determine the goals of any activities involving them, enhancing organizational capacity becomes central to such changes. Attitudinal training of individuals cannot compensate for entrenched institutional policies, be they visible or invisible (Eade, 1997). So it helps to create an organizational environment that is reflexive, which would bridge the gap between rhetoric and practice. Reflexivity may require that there is a change in organizational ethos, structure, or management, which would involve a lengthy negotiation and consensus-building process, backed with policy changes. Eade (1997) points out that training is effective only if it is part of an overall strategy to enable participants to make use of what they have learned. "... At times programmes do not look at the collective or organizational capacities to overcome the external forces that oppress them" (ibid.: 91).

Thus, awareness training cannot be separated from the institutional policies, and procedures, including the expectations generated by these (Eade, 1997: 95).

#### **2.6.5 Financial capacity building for environmental policy**

For most developing countries, and southern Africa is no exception, Overseas Development Aid (ODA) is the main source of funding for most environmental education initiatives (UNEP, 1999). Policy initiatives have put more emphasis on developing policy documents as tangible outcomes rather than the entire process, which includes implementation and review (Obol, Allen & Springall Bach, 2003). Of relevance to the SADC REEP funding is Sida's funding policy which places a big emphasis on "evaluations, assessment of impact and effectiveness and conclusions regarding the future of the programme / project" (Sida, 2003: 27). Sida encourages that "these should be done in such a way that partnerships are strengthened rather than undermined" (ibid.: 53).

There are indications of governmental commitment to environmental issues. The Global Environmental Outlook 2000 points to an increase in government funding of

policy development and establishment of environmental institution, which have a mandate to coordinate environmental education.

With regard to financing by African countries from their own public resources, there has been an increase in national institutions established to deal with environmental issues in most African countries, demonstrating increased political and financial commitment to this sector. Public sector financing of environmental activities by African countries, including in-cash and in-kind counterpart funding of projects, is therefore likely to have increased significantly since UNCED, although also still likely to be inadequate. (UNEP, 1999: 230)

In Africa, a few countries including Zambia have used debt-for-nature swaps to access funding for environmental conservation and management (UNEP, 1999). This is a mechanism that converts part of a country's external debt into a domestic obligation to support environmental activities and programmes, including environmental education (UNEP, 1999). Obol, Allen and Springall Bach (2003) concur that these financial commitments of government are inadequate, especially for effective implementation, institutionalisation and review.

Further challenges of donor funding are institutional: finding ways of supporting both top-down and bottom-up processes as well as encouraging policy coherence between the various goals, rather than each goal or target being pursued independently (IIED, 2004).

## **2.7 CONTEXTUALIZING POLICY DEVELOPMENT CHALLENGES WITHIN THE SADC REEP**

### **2.7.1 Broader Environmental Policy Processes in Southern Africa**

Section 1.3.1.1 provided a brief contextual profile of the countries to be studied in depth in Chapter 4. This section provides further background to, or a landscape of broader environmental policy processes and dilemma in which these countries are nested.

Southern African countries have committed themselves to the global environmental and educational policy processes. The formation of the African Union and its NEPAD, and similarly the restructuring of SADC and its RISDP point to attempts to establish



and strengthen harmonized policy environment. Most relevant to this study is the promotion of regional cooperation on issues relating to the environment and natural resources (SADC, 2003). However, the absence of a protocol on environment and little emphasis placed on environmental education across the different sector frameworks of the RISDP point to a limited enabling environment for national environmental education policies to develop in the region.

### **2.7.2 The SADC REEP objective revisited**

The overall aim of the SADC REEP as outlined in Chapter 1 is achieved through, amongst other objectives, the enhanced and strengthened environmental education policy (SADC REEP, 2002a). The Programme should “...create an enabling environment for regional and national environmental education policy and to support the development and implementation of local level environmental and environmental education policy within the SADC region...” (SADC REEP, 2001: 18). The SADC REEP also relies on external funders for implementation. The key funder is Sida, the Swedish International Development Agency (SADC REEP, 2004b) whose policy acknowledges capacity building that could be aimed at individuals, sectors, and institutional frameworks like policies or organisations (Sida, 2003).

The in-depth review of SADC regional policies and protocols in terms of educational opportunities that was commissioned by the SADC Regional EE Support (REES) programme, showed that although most policies recognised environmentally sustainable development, they seemed not to show the need to develop capacity on this (Janisch, 2004).

Ward (2003) in his study of the SADC REEP highlights the tension of people’s expectations of policy to solve problems. He argues that much emphasis is placed on policy and very little effort is made to examine the importance of these policies in terms of how they support the programmes. The SADC REEP has tended to support the bottom-up processes as seen in the development of guidelines for participating in the UNDESD ([www.sadc-reep.org.za](http://www.sadc-reep.org.za)). There was very limited success of the process of developing a regional environmental education policy. It resulted in a document

with guidelines for developing policy. In other words, it contributed towards creating an “enabling environment” (IUCN & SADC ELMS, 1999).

### **2.7.3 Implications for the Research Question**

The implications of this policy contextual profile for the research question are many. In southern Africa where participatory and critical engagement is prominent as an orienting approach for environmental education, it is striking that there is limited engagement with the Programme’s policy processes at a national level. Linked to this is the fact that in the southern African region, most of the policy processes have been developed with the support of donor funding (EEASA, 2003: 1).

The SADC REEP sees policy making for sustainable development as one of the key international responses to the environmental crisis (SADC REEP, 2002a). This is a result of an emphasis on the democratisation of societies that has led to many participatory policy making processes incorporating issues of equity and redress as part of the proposed solution to the environmental crisis (ibid.). However, the challenge lies with seeing the effectiveness of these policies.

In many member states, various groups and agencies have embarked on lobbying and other policy development processes and the SADC REEP has been a key contributor to these processes (Rosenberg, 2005). This has been done in various ways including building capacity of individuals to engage in and contribute towards policy processes at different levels. This has resulted in creating a strong voice from NGOs and individuals in the member states. The challenge of this voice has been whether it has the ability to influence institutional decision making at a policy making level; whether it has a common understanding and realistic expectations of policy; and whether it is aware of policy processes that have taken place and are still taking place. The policy audit study commissioned by the SADC REEP pointed out that a number of people including officials in government institutions were not aware of policies and protocols relating to environmental education (SADC REEP, 2004a).

## **2.8 A CONCLUDING COMMENT**

As the relevance of my research is grounded on the notion that environmental education policy processes take place within a context where various influences

contribute to their success, it is imperative to understand the landscape of these contextual influences. This chapter has provided various lenses at a macro level, which have been used to analyse these influencing factors. The factors include the development and interpretation of environmental education policy processes at a micro level as reported in Chapter 4. In Chapter 5 the discussion starts to illuminate the relationships between the macro level issues outlined in this chapter, and the micro-level processes reported in Chapter 4. This chapter has therefore provided broad-based insights into the implementation and reporting; institutional setting; interested and influencing sectors and individuals; various levels of governance; resources; and capital, *habitus*, field, and the power relations that might be of significance to an analysis of environmental education policy creation. The chapter illuminates the fact that in southern Africa where a number of environmental education reform initiatives are driven by donor funding (Osborne and Bigg, 1998), the influence of the funding agenda forms a crucial aspect of effective implementation. This is more so in relation to the SADC REEP's endeavour to support environmental education policy processes at a national level, given that the SADC REEP is also a funded initiative (funded by Sida) which provides seed funding for such activities. The chapter has also outlined the landscape of environmental education policy processes, development and implementation in southern Africa.

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

*The case study method has played multiple roles in enhancing ... understanding of educational transformation towards sustainability.*  
(Lotz-Sisitka & Raven, 2004: 77)

#### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter provides an outline of the research design, focusing on the theoretical orientation of the research and methods used to generate the data that informed the examination of the research question. The chapter also looks at the tools used to gather the data, and reflects on their effectiveness. It further describes how the data was analysed, and discusses ethical and validity issues related to the research design and process.

#### **3.2 THE RESEARCH ORIENTATION**

The study was undertaken within a qualitative interpretative paradigm using case study methodology where developments in the policy component of the SADC REEP were reviewed. The case study explores the peculiarity and complexity of a single case (Bassey, 1999). Interpretative case studies can adopt a relativistic position thus being an informing rather than transforming practice (Stevenson, 2004). The case study methodology was preferred firstly, because of the need to illuminate issues about environmental education policy within a bounded area of interest, namely the SADC REEP, and secondly, because of the diversity in the context of the countries where the environmental education policy processes were taking place. The case study methodology has been critiqued for its inability to render generalizability because its value is in illuminating and understanding the contextual detail whereas generalizations tend to omit this detail (Lotz-Sisitka & Raven, 2004). In this study it was assumed that the case stories would provide insights that could contribute to a better understanding of policy processes associated with the southern African countries under study, as well as other countries and how they respond to environmental education policy processes and funding, while showing the context dependency of the policy process. Case stories within the case study were developed because of the very notion of peculiarities and contextuality of the southern African

story. This methodology was used by Lotz-Sisitka and Raven (2004) in their attempt to understand how the Gold Fields participatory initiative informed theory and practice in a broader environmental education professional development programme.

This choice of methodology is based on the fact that there is diversity of/in stories that can be told about policy processes in the region. Most stories depend on the way the stakeholders view their reality. It is possible to have multiple interpretations of social reality, which stem from the stakeholders' context (Neumann 2000). The stakeholders view in turn depends on different vantage points, which are influenced by many contextual, social, historical and other factors (Janse van Rensburg, 2001). In this research these influences have been scoped broadly in Chapters 1 and 2 and more specifically in Chapter 4. In lieu of the fact that the context is not static coupled with the multiplicity of the views, and fluidity of people's reality over time, the case study methodology seemed most appropriate to report on and to understand the factors that influence the use of seed funding in environmental education policy processes in the SADC REEP.

Therefore, content analysis through critical incidence sampling was a preferred method (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000) to identify the policy stories that were later probed in more depth. Issues around context, institutional make up, 'political / power' relations, influencing events and discourse and other developments in the various case vignettes were probed to add depth to the understanding of this phenomenon.

Throughout the study, I was aware of what some may consider a critique of the methodology, that it is steeped in understating actors, or interpreting meanings of others. Habermas describes this as a double hermeneutic, "where people strive to interpret and operate in an already interpreted world" (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000: 28). My study methodology is well described by this notion because it is using other people's interpretation of policy processes in their country. These people have expressed their interpretations through reports and academic papers, which form the basis of the data in this study. Because of this, member checking and triangulation were important processes to verify the initial interpretations reflected in the reports, as described below.

### **3.3 THE RESEARCH METHOD**

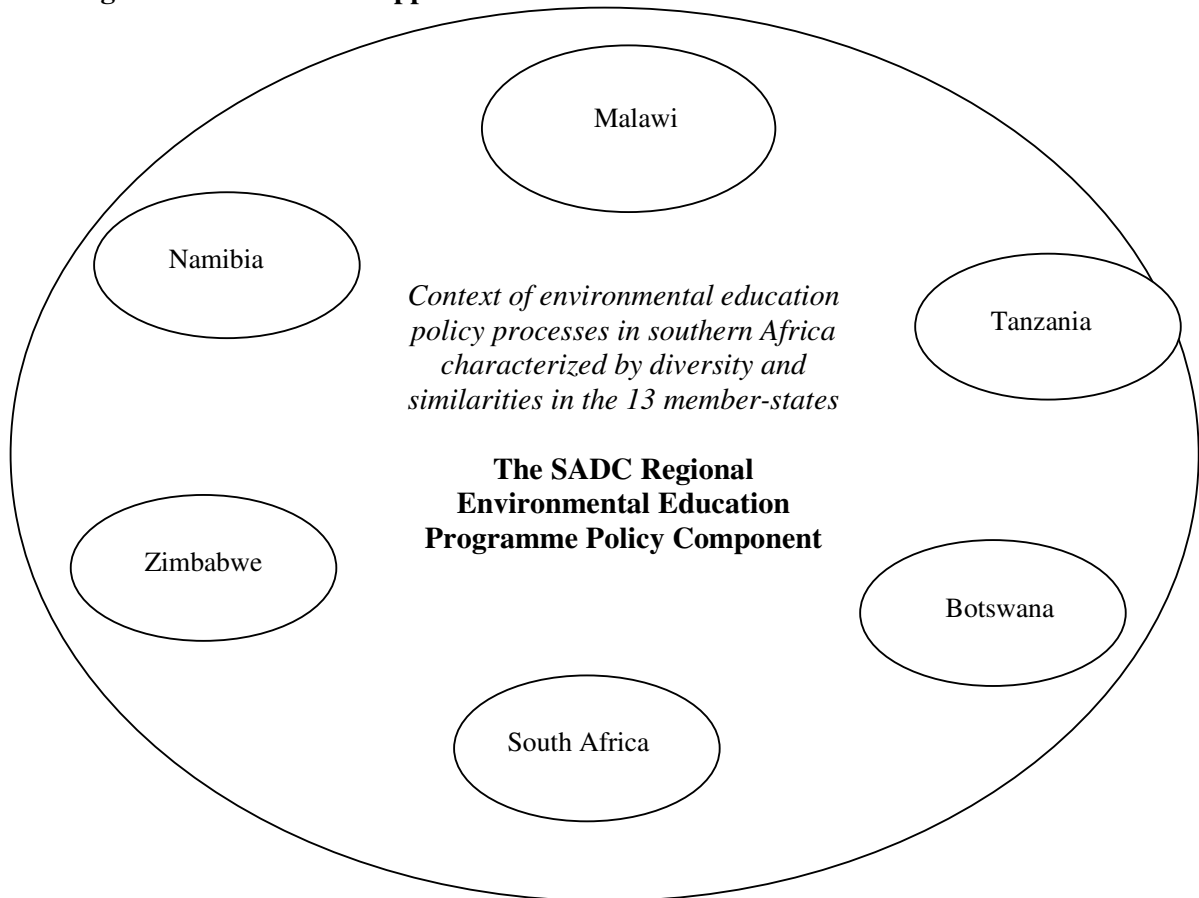
As indicated above, I have used a case study method. Bell claims the case-study approach is particularly appropriate for individual researchers because it gives an opportunity for "... one aspect of a problem to be studied in some depth within a limited time scale..." (Bell, 1999: 10). In my case, I have been able to study the factors that influence the use of seed funding for environmental education policy processes within a bigger SADC REEP project in some level of depth within a short space of time. The method has enabled me to identify various interactive processes that may have been hidden in a different method like a large-scale survey (Bell, 1999). As a single researcher I chose the particular instance because of my interest in policy and the ongoing concern of the SADC REEP management, of which I am part, regarding the challenges continuously encountered with the policy component of the Programme. I have also decided to a greater extent which insights to highlight. Bell draws our attention to possibilities of distortion of information, and the challenges of generalizing the findings from a single case, which is a strong critique of the case-study method (Bell, 1999). This issue of distortion has been alleviated in two ways. Firstly, by working closely with my supervisor who has intensively worked with the Programme, researched and written about various aspects of the SADC REEP, and has worked broadly in southern Africa educational landscape beyond the SADC REEP. Here I agree wholeheartedly with Bell (1999): "As many first time and experienced researchers have testified, a good supervisor is like gold dust, and by far the most valuable resource we have" (33). Secondly, I have kept ongoing conversations with SADC REEP management, and have used member checking of the data to verify my interpretations.

The issue of generalizing the findings needs some attention. Firstly, it is not the intention of this study to use the findings to generalize about environmental education policy processes beyond the SADC REEP. Secondly, I have used the nested approach to case study research with six mini-case stories (or vignettes) nested within the SADC REEP. This has helped with illustrating relationships, micro-political issues, and patterns of influence (Bell, 1999) in the policy context within the SADC REEP.

The nested case approach has been employed where the researched case stories of six countries are situated within the context of the SADC region. This approach was used

to illuminate the insights that might have been blurred by the broadness of a region such as the southern African region, which has diversity in resource endowment and capacity, yet similarities in the history of development. Therefore, each case “...paints a picture of engaging with hybridity, ambivalence and multidimensional patterns of change in different contexts within a broader context...” (Lotz-Sisitka & Raven, 2004: 73). This is illustrated in the diagram below which has been adapted from Lotz-Sisitka and Raven (2004).

**Figure 3: A nested case approach**



Adapted from Lotz-Sisitka & Raven, 2004

### **3.4 DESCRIPTION OF THE RESEARCH TOOLS AND TECHNIQUES**

This section is a discussion of the data generation techniques that have been employed in the study. This is relevant as it sheds light on how the analysis was done and hence puts the conclusions and recommendations of the study into perspective.

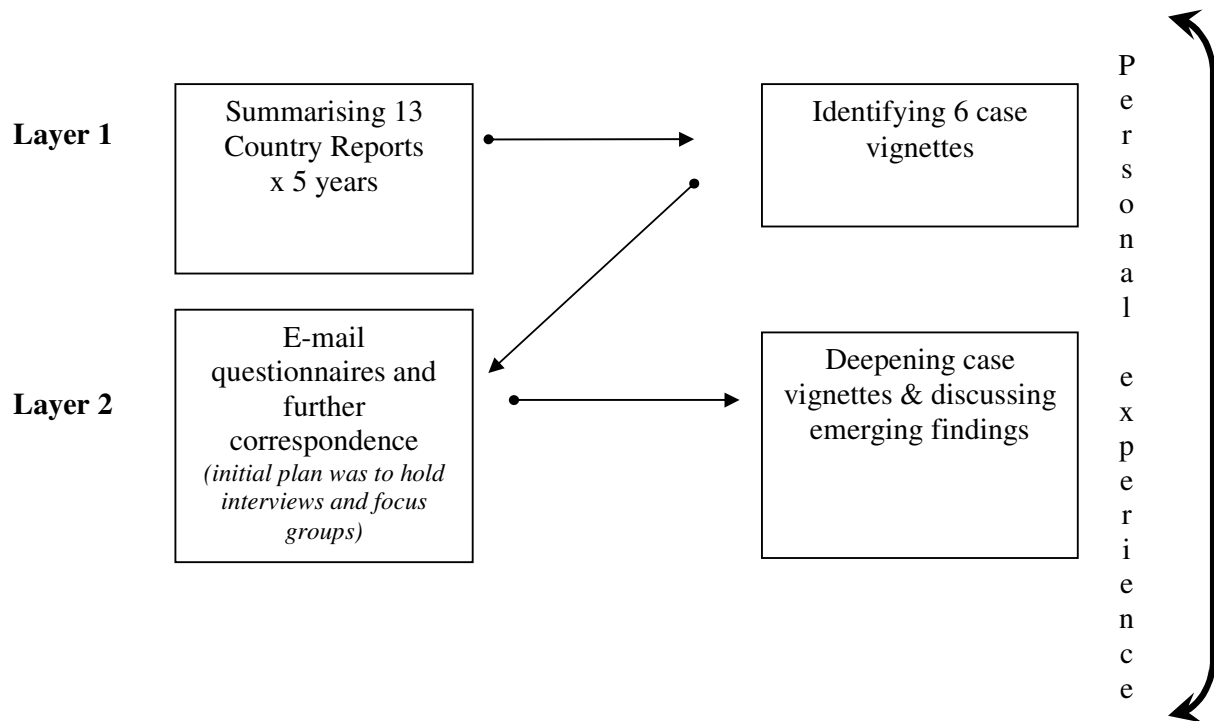
#### **3.4.1 Data generation**

The research followed a multiple layered method approach. Each layer was used with an intention to deepen the insights that were emerging from the previous layer. The multiple layers were important as the basis of the data depended on “collective stories” of Network Representatives about environmental education processes in their countries. These stories had been presented as of grey documents, in the form of reports that had been adopted at meetings, but unsubstantiated elsewhere. The initial stories needed deepening with insights from other people who had been involved in these processes. It was initially envisaged to use three layers: document review, questionnaires and focus groups. Running as a thread throughout these layers was my experience with the Programme. These layers are discussed further below.

The initial intention to conduct focus groups did not materialize because the opportunity to engage a number of southern African environmental education practitioners as a group was missed at the May 2005 EEASA conference and during the July 2005 National Environmental Education Network representatives meeting. Outside these two opportunities the cost of holding regional focus groups became inhibitive. Although I had started with pre-determined methods for gathering data, I was open to using other processes depending on the emergent situation. Although I took a pragmatic approach, the overall framework design did not change but the tools changed to allow for validity while responding to the researcher’s situation. The process is illustrated in Figure 4 that follows.



**Figure 4: A diagrammatic presentation of the layered approach to data gathering**



#### 3.4.1.1 Layer 1: Broad document content analysis

Content analysis is a process of making replicable and valid inferences from data (Bell, 1999). The document content analysis was used in two ways: firstly, to gather data from written sources and documents, and this is used mostly in social and educational research (Hitchcock & Hughes, 1989). Secondly, document content analysis was used to construct the broad contextual profile of the overall study, and to systematically select the six vignettes, to map the historical context of the vignettes, that is, the what, the who and the when of the cases studied, and to strengthen the case vignettes.

In this phase of the study, I analysed five layers of reports from 2001 to 2005 for each country, totalling 65 reports. This was therefore the major data analysis strategy used in this study, as it constituted a substantive amount of data. In document content analysis the sample must be sufficiently large to allow valid conclusions (Bell, 1999). The information was thematically sorted using four themes and their sub-themes (see table 1 that follows).

**Table 1. Themes and sub-themes used to analyse the documents**

| Themes                              | Sub-themes                                                                                        |
|-------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Institutional make up               | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Structures</li><li>• Economic Capital</li></ul>           |
| Actors and power relations          | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Status and identity</li><li>• Knowledge</li></ul>         |
| Policy processes                    | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• History</li><li>• Approach</li></ul>                      |
| Broader context of policy processes | <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Relationship between fields</li><li>• Discourse</li></ul> |

In most cases, some of the information was repetitive from year to year, and the themes appeared robust enough for a thorough analysis of all of the documents. These broad themes and sub-themes were developed through an iterative process of reading the data in some of the reports, considering the issues emerging from the literature review, careful consideration of the research question, and drawing on my personal experience with the SADC REEP policy projects. From this process of developing the four initial categories, I then applied them to an analysis of the 65 reports, and found them to be robust enough to conduct the analysis.

Initially, I read the policy category only of the country reports. However, some representatives wrote in more detail about policy than others. Also, aspects relating to policy tended to be scattered throughout the body of the report, especially under networking and training. Thus repeated readings of each full report were necessary.

To make sense of the data in the reports in relation to the themes, the reports were read repeatedly with the pre-set themes as lenses. A system of colour coding similar ideas was used to assist with quick identification of units of analysis - highlighting text that pertained to the themes as it emerged and identifying relationships between the ideas and the themes (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000). Appendix 1 shows a sample of the colour-coded reports reflecting the analysis process. Other aspects that seemed relevant but did not fit comfortably into themes were flagged for future reference. This process of progressive focusing (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000) was complemented by ongoing conversations with my supervisor, peers and work colleagues. The emerging insights were tested and used to shape and reshape the

themes for further research and analysis, that is, to verify my interpretation of the reports, and to determine which aspects to leave out.

A systematic summary of the all thirteen National Environmental Education Network Representative country reports was developed. To differentiate between the countries and between the various years, each report was given an abbreviated code. This also made it easy to cross-reference. These codes are used extensively in Chapter 4.

Appendix 2 shows a sample of the systematic summary, while Table 2 shows the key to the abbreviated codes.

**Table 2. Identification codes of the reports<sup>1</sup>**

| Name of Country | Year 2001 | Year 2002 | Year 2003 | Year 2004 | Year 2005 |
|-----------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| Botswana        | Bots 2001 | Bots 2002 | Bots 2003 | Bots 2004 | Bots 2005 |
| Malawi          | Mal 2001  | Mal 2002  | Mal 2003  | Mal 2004  | Mal 2005  |
| Namibia         | Mal 2001  | Mal 2002  | Mal 2003  | Mal 2004  | Mal 2005  |
| South Africa    | SA 2001   | SA 2002   | SA 2003   | SA 2004   | SA 2005   |
| Tanzania        | Tan 2001  | Tan 2002  | Tan 2003  | Tan 2004  | Tan 2005  |
| Zimbabwe        | Zim 2001  | Zim 2002  | Zim 2003  | Zim 2004  | Zim 2005  |

The statistics on the actual use of seed funding in sections 4.2.5, 4.3.5, 4.4.5, 4.5.5, 4.6.5 and 4.7.5 are derived from the WESSA internal financial reports.

### **3.4.1.2 Reflection on broad document content analysis**

In this study the bulk of the information came from the reports compiled by Network Representatives, as mentioned previously. This had a number of shortcomings. Firstly, the reports reflect the environmental education context as the Network Representatives saw it at the time the reports were compiled. This is pointed out in Chapter 2 and exemplified in SA (2001) (see section 4.5.6.1 on actors and knowledge). The reports seldom gave the entire picture of the policy processes: they represented what the Network Representative had been exposed to, or perceived to be a policy process. Secondly, the reports depicted the picture as the Network Representative interpreted it at the time the report was compiled which might be different to how others may have interpreted it. Thirdly, the reports did not have

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<sup>1</sup> Country reports analysed can be found in the unpublished Proceedings from the SADC REEP National Environmental Education Network Representatives Meetings (5<sup>th</sup>, 6<sup>th</sup>, 7<sup>th</sup>, 8<sup>th</sup>, 9<sup>th</sup> meetings, 2001-2005).

adequate information to give clarity on all the themes that this study was using to understand the research question. Most reports gave little information, if any at all, on the actors involved and their power relations in the policy processes. “Using (documented) research very extensively rather than going to main sources is not a good idea in research. To depend too heavily on other research rather than primary sources as research is (like an) interpretation of reality as gleaned through the researcher’s eyes (which) creates a broken telephone effect! and does not allow one to look critically at the research” (U. Van Harmelen, personal communication, February 19, 2006). Problems associated with using documented reports as a main data source was further evident in the case story of Namibia where some of the documentation used to build the case story was already a summation of the reports by the same office that compiled the Country Network Reports (i.e. it was a report of a report, making it difficult to source the origin of the data) (V. Paulick, personal communication, March 03, 2006).

To circumvent the shortcoming described above, other published and grey country reports were used. These included National State of Environment reports, the Southern African Institute of Environmental Assessment report, SADC REEP project reports on individual country policy projects, and other research and / or environmental education reports pertaining to the SADC countries that were available. This provided a mechanism for triangulating and verifying information in the Network Representatives’ reports, but added to the number of documents used in this study.

The findings also included data from WESSA internal financial documents. This contributed another vantage point of seeing what had happened rather than why it happened. These financial documents confirmed what was done with the seed funding and the amounts of seed funding that were used.

The insights that emerged were used to develop vignettes of environmental education policy processes in six countries, namely Botswana, Malawi, Namibia, South Africa, Tanzania, and Zimbabwe. As indicated above, the six vignettes covered a period of five years, and were constructed around the themes that had used to structure the analysis as outlined above.

### **3.4.1.3 Layer 2: Questionnaires, conversations and member-checking**

Given some of the problems associated with the ‘double hermeneutic’ of interpreting interpretations from written documents (which themselves needed verification), the six vignettes were then circulated to the Network Representatives and two other key players in each of the six countries for their comment and further clarification. This process of member checking and verification produced responses that were used to strengthen the vignettes. Where there was still uncertainty or a differing opinion, more documents were read.

A questionnaire was used (see appendix 3) mainly to engage with the insights into the *why* aspect of the study. Ordinarily, interviews as opposed to questionnaires would have been ideal as they would have contributed to knowing the respondents quite intimately to understand what they think and how they feel (Terreblanche & Durrheim, 1999). However, in the case of this study, the respondents are all well known by the researcher, and as mentioned earlier, are based in different countries, which made physical interviewing difficult and expensive. So, a questionnaire with open-ended questions was used. The questionnaire was emailed with a request for written responses. These were specifically requested primarily to keep a paper trail of the responses. It was also an attempt to separate the usual casual ongoing SADC REEP conversations I hold with the practitioners as a programme manager from the research process. The questionnaires, as well as the telephonic and face-to-face discussions, have been classified as personal communication.

The data from the member checking process and from the e-mail questionnaires was used to provide further ‘flesh’ to the case studies, within the same thematic framework, and provided for triangulation and thick description (Lather, 1986) in each of the case vignettes. Use of these strategies was also an important validity measure, as discussed above.

### **3.4.1.4 Reflections on Questionnaires**

As this study, like most qualitative research, is framed within a constructivist theory of research (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999), member checking was imperative because the foundations of the study relied predominantly on the perceptions of stakeholders, namely the Network Representatives, how they perceive the realities of policy development based on the activities in their countries. It was assumed that this

technique would counter the shortcomings of relying on reports as explained in section 3.4.1. Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999) define a questionnaire as a group of written questions. Typical of qualitative responses, less structured, word-based and open-ended questions were used to allow respondents to communicate their experience and opinions without restriction (ibid.). These were most appropriate in that they captured the specificity of the respondents' particular context and were used for small-scale research in a section that invited an honest, personal comment from the respondents (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000). In choosing the respondents there was an underlying assumption that they would be honest because they are mature professionals and also seasoned researchers in their own right. There were 13 responses from 17 questionnaires that had been sent. A 76 percent response rate was considered to be good bearing in mind that open-ended responses tend to take considerable time and require intense engagement from the respondent (ibid.).

This data provided deeper insights into the themes and sub-themes that emerged from the reports. This was especially true with regard to agency and knowledge.

#### **3.4.1.5 Deepening the Vignettes**

A 'report- and- respond' tool adapted from Rosenberg's 2005 evaluation of the SADC REEP (Rosenberg, 2005) was used to elicit and focus deeper comment from the respondents. The first draft of the vignettes was circulated to three key stakeholders in each country. The stakeholders were selected because of the central role they had played in the environmental education policy processes in their respective countries and their work with and understanding of the SADC REEP around policy. Within the draft, specific questions were posed where there was lack of clarity. The respondents were also asked to comment on gaps, and inaccuracies.

Using reports that were compiled and validated by Network Representatives meant it was likely they would be self-validating. Each of the six vignettes was validated and further deepened in three ways: firstly, by sending the drafts to the Network Representative and two additional environmental education practitioners for comment. Secondly, the respondents were given an open-ended questionnaire with two qualitative questions. The two questions, listed below, were sent by email with an option of a telephonic interview if they found written responses to be inconvenient. The questions were:

1. Why has the country used / not used the seed funding for policy processes?
2. What are the challenges and / opportunities you have encountered in pushing for environmental education policy and why are these challenges / opportunities?

The intention was to glean more insights specifically relating to the power challenges of running with a policy process and also the use of seed funding. Where necessary, further probing was done both through email and telephonically to clarify the points that were emerging (see appendix 4). Thirdly, other documentation of EE processes in the countries selected for vignettes was scanned for further triangulating.

#### **3.4.1.6 Personal Communication and Reflection**

Throughout the study there were ongoing conversations with practitioners, my supervisor and the SADC REEP management responsible for the conceptualization of the second phase of the Programme, which included the policy support component. These ongoing conversations were important because of my personal involvement in the SADC REEP. They served two purposes: to focus my understanding of what was emerging, and to continuously reduce possibilities of an unintended bias that could have been brought into the study by my personal experience, insights and perceptions of the developments. The latter is discussed further in section 3.6.

### **3.5 ANALYSIS OF FINDINGS**

To analyse the data, an analytic induction process was used, where data was scanned to confirm themes and sub-themes (as outlined in Table 1 above), relationships between these themes were sought, summaries written and then developed into vignettes. As the vignettes were taking shape, and being member checked, another set of lenses was used to make sense of the stories. Constant comparisons were made with other events and incidents that were taking place. Analytic statements were postulated from the findings. These were:

Analytic Statement 1: The design and definition of the project sub-component appear to have been based on inappropriate assumptions;

Analytic Statement 2: It is difficult to influence policy change in a fragmented policy environment that is embedded in a dynamic and ever-changing content;

Analytic Statement 3: There appears to be a mismatch between existing national agencies' capacity and structural make-up and the global and regional policy change expectations.

The analytic statements were used to provide an in-depth analysis of the five cases in relation to the research question, and were used to structure Chapter 5 of this study. To develop and check the validity of the analytic statements, colour-coded cards were used to group insights from Chapters 2 and 4. These statements were supported by examples from the six vignettes. These six vignettes did not preclude critical incidences and insights gained from the reports of the rest of the SADC member-states whose stories were not developed into case stories. These stories were used to illustrate the similarities and or differences. Another source used to support the analysis was the 2005 SADC REEP evaluation report.

### **3.6 ETHICS IN THE RESEARCH PROCESS**

As explained in the introduction section 1.2.3, at the time of data gathering I was the manager of the project that forms the backdrop of the study. This had a potential of bringing into the study some ethical ambivalence. As a project manager, I had open access to all reports and information that pertain to the SADC REEP. A positive aspect was that I was compiling a study that would benefit the Programme. However, the darker side of the equation was that I was also doing a study for personal gain, in order to acquire a Masters degree. I also had easy and open access to the practitioners. This dilemma could easily have played out in a negative sense where respondents could have felt obliged to respond and assist in reverence to my position as manager rather than as a researching student.

Negotiating access was approached in various ways. Institutional access was gained through negotiating the focus of the study. It was agreed with the SADC REEP management that the focus of the study should contribute towards the reflexive understanding and improvement of the SADC REEP processes. Therefore the focus on policy processes was an opportunity to contribute towards understanding the weakest aspect of the programme. This gave me free access to the documents and expertise in the management realm. However, gaining access to the practitioners was approached differently. Every time I engaged with any of the practitioners with



respect to the study, I explicitly explained my intentions. I also indicated the intention to use comments and insights in the study whenever an individual revealed a relevant insight. Their involvement in the research was therefore a function of informed consent with a right to withdraw all or parts of their response. They were also assured that the research would not harm them in any way (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000).

The respondents were given an option to use their right to anonymity in all or parts of their responses. Only one of the thirteen took the opportunity to remain anonymous.

Follow-up correspondence was sent to thank the respondents. It is envisaged that they will be sent further correspondence when the thesis has been evaluated.

### **3.7 VALIDITY AND TRUSTWORTHINESS**

Validity has long been a source of contention for qualitative research such as case studies (Maxwell, 1992). The bone of contention is its inability to be predictable and replicable. However, Maxwell argues that validity "... is always relative to, and dependent on, some community of inquirers on whose perspectives the account is based. Validity is relative in this sense because understanding is relative..." (Maxwell, 1992: 284). In case study research, claim to knowledge is always subject to the time and space within which the enquiry takes place (Lotz-Sisitka & Raven, 2004: 81). This is relevant to this study because the reports were compiled over a period of five years and show an incremental understanding of the processes that took place. However, to strengthen and validate the information, the individuals were approached to check the case stories, themes and emerging insights to see if the information was remained valid. Further to member checking, other contemporary reports and documentation were used. An example of this is the draft Zimbabwe Environmental Education Policy Strategy and the Namibia Curriculum Guidelines for Education. Thirdly there was peer examination of the findings. This included individuals who have been involved in various educational and policy processes in some of the member states.

The biggest challenge was the issue of separating my role as both a researcher and practitioner in the process of validating the study. I felt that my insights had been built

into the design and process of the study. I thought it would be useful to use other vantage points to validate the study, especially the vignettes in Chapter 4. This process of external validation required an extended period of time which was not originally anticipated in the study's design, but upon reflection was necessary to ensure a trustworthy and rigorous study.

### **3.8 A CONCLUDING COMMENT**

In this chapter I have outlined the processes in which I engaged to generate data, analyse it and present findings. I have outlined the research orientation and design, the methods and tools, and also reflected on their advantages and limitations. I have also reflected on my experiences and concerns as a researcher and an active participant of the case under review.

These lenses were shaped during four processes: the literature review (partly a priori); the insights that I have developed over the last four years of working on the programme; through discussions with critical friends and my supervisor; and reading through the five layers of Network representatives' reports and other country specific reports, workshops and meeting proceedings. This approach to data analysis lends itself to establishing grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) where knowledge is dependent on the process of discovery (Conole, 1998). However, I did not pursue grounded theory in its fullest sense in this study, as I was not seeking to develop a theory about policy processes, but rather to interpret what was happening in the case of the SADC REEP.

I also discussed the process of validating the data, the findings and the study as a whole. Coupled with validation was a presentation on issues of ethics in research.

In Chapter 4 that follows, I share the main findings of the research. This chapter presents findings from the six vignettes of environmental education policy processes in six countries that have been studied in depth.

## CHAPTER 4

### FINDINGS: A NEST OF VIGNETTES

*A collective documenting of these cases ... paints a picture of the dynamic and everchanging nature of ... practice ... and also paints a picture of engaging with hybridity, ambivalence and multidimensional patterns of change in different context .. and associated changing political economies...*

(Lotz-Sisitka & Raven 2004: 73)

#### 4.1. INTRODUCTION

The southern African context of the vignettes that are presented below was described in Chapter 1 while the broader policy context was outlined in Chapter 2.

The country vignettes cover Botswana, Malawi, Namibia, South Africa, Tanzania, and Zimbabwe. The chapter starts by presenting the six vignettes using the analysis framework described in Chapter 3. As these processes cannot be separated fully from the broader SADC REEP process, further insights from the rest of the thirteen SADC countries are brought in to provide a deeper perspective of the factors influencing policy processes in the SADC REEP and the subsequent use of seed funding. The vignettes are presented with respect to their broader context, institutional structures and the prevailing economic capital; actors and power relations with respect to the actors' status / identity and knowledge; policy processes' history and approach; and the processes' broader context including the relationship between fields and discourse. The chapter finally outlines some of the key findings in relation to factors that influence practitioners' engagement with environmental education policy processes and to how seed funding is deployed and used in these processes as illustrated in the six vignettes. These findings provide an initial interpretation of the data, which is deepened in Chapter 5 through the use of analytical statements. When working with data it is not easy to draw a clear line between presenting findings and reflecting on those findings (Cohen, Manion, Morrison 2000), and this chapter therefore presents some of these reflections.

## **4.2 THE EE POLICY STORY OF BOTSWANA**

### **4.2.1 Broad Policy Processes**

#### **4.2.1.1 Policy history**

Botswana does not have a specific environmental education policy. However, the environmental education and capacity building functions are drawn from a number of sectoral policies. The key guiding policy is the Botswana National Conservation Strategy (NCS), supported by 1990 Natural Resources Conservation and Development Policy (Bots, 2001, 2002, 2003, 2004, 2005). The developmental goal of the National Conservation Strategy calls for “increased education of and participation by all society in improving the environment” (Bots, 2001: 3). Section 4.7.d of the NCS commits the government to the expansion of facilities directed to improving environmental education, training and research activities, as well as to raising public awareness about environmental issues (Botswana, Ministry of Environmental Affairs, 1990). It is envisaged that conservation education will be specifically included in school and teacher training college curricula (ibid.).

From these mandates, the National Environmental Education Action Plan (1997-2003) was drawn up and approved to guide the implementation of environmental education in the country (Bots, 2002, 2003, 2004, 2005).

Parallel to the environmental management processes was a process in 1994 which resulted in the revision of Education Policy. The revised education policy calls for the infusion of environmental education across the curriculum at all levels. These mandates have been reinforced by the 1997 Vision 2016 (Bots, 2003) calling for an informed nation on matters of the environment (Bots, 2003).

Other key policies are the 1998 Strategy for Waste Management, which deals with waste disposal management and public education around issues of pollution, and the 1992 National Water Plan (Bots 2003, 2004, 2005). Although there is still no specific environmental education policy, it is embodied in a number of sectoral and related policies as mentioned above including the 2004 National Museum and Monuments Policy on cultural education. The 2004 National Policy on NGOs emphasises the role of NGOs in the realisation and protection of the environment, especially in

Community Based Natural Resource Management in their respective areas. The previous Environmental Management Acts had no clear or strong legislative back-up; their coordination was not as smooth as envisaged and this resulted in its revision with a draft document produced in 2004. This has been further supported by the Environmental Impact Assessment Act of 2005. The challenge of environmental education is now to incorporate these policies into formal and non-formal education (Bots, 2004, 2005).

#### **4.2.1.2 Approach**

Botswana has a strong history of participatory governance through Kgotlas (traditional decision-making bodies consisting of community elders) and inter-sectoral networking (personal observation). The government in its generic form coordinates environmental education related policy and its development through partnership, collaboration and networking with NGOs, CBOs and business. The various government institutions take a lead in initiating, implementing, monitoring and / or evaluating policy. Broadly, formal education falls under the Ministry of Education while non-formal education and awareness raising fall under various line ministries and NGOs (Bots, 2001, 2002, 2003, 2004, 2005).

In 2002, the Ministry of Education took a leading role in developing National Guidelines for EE at all levels. It was intended to guide the implementation of Environmental Programmes in schools in order to address the disparities between implementation of environmental education in different schools, and to ensure that all participate fully to make positive changes, develop critical thinking skills and positive behavioural attitudes towards the environment. One particular programme, the Schools Environmental Policy (SEP) is a bottom-up realisation of the strengthening of the implementation and infusion of environment across the curriculum. The SEP which started as a joint project between the National Conservation Strategy Coordination Agency (NCSA), Ministry of Education and other stakeholders has been institutionalised by the Ministry of Education which held its formal launch in 2004 (Bots, 2005).

In the non-formal sector of environmental education there is mixed success (Bots, 2004). The success is seen in the networking and collaboration in environmental

education initiatives. For instance, an NGO, Somarelang Tikologo is pursuing a campaign to develop a plastics policy to curb littering with plastics bags, and is working with schools to pilot activities around recycling, reuse and reduction of plastic waste (Bots, 2004). On the other hand, the NCSA called for the revised Environmental Management Act 2004 because of the difficulty it was experiencing in coordinating the policy, especially with respect to line ministries (Bots, 2005, Rubadiri, n.d.). The revised policy is expected to empower the Department of Environmental Affairs through revision of the implementation processes and improvement of aspects like networking. The empowerment of the process is characterised by strengthening of the intra-sectoral and inter-sectoral coordination in the form of a hub-and-spoke model where the NCSA will be the hub (Bots, 2004).

#### **4.2.2 Broad Institutional Make-up**

##### **4.2.2.1 Structure**

Environmental education has two lead agencies, the Ministry of Environment and the Ministry of Education. The Ministry of Environment has an institutionalised section led by the Head of Environmental Education. This ministry drives non-formal education and awareness raising. The ministry, which started as Ministry of Lands, Housing and Environment developed a structure, the National Conservation Strategy Coordination Agency, to coordinate issues of natural resource conservation and environment (Botswana Ministry of Environment home page, 2005). This Agency has further developed a layer of Environmental Liaison officers in the NCSA and in other line ministries (Bots, 2005).

The Ministry of Education leads the formal education sector, assisted by an inter-ministerial commission for inclusion of environmental education in the curriculum with the Curriculum Development and Evaluation Department as the coordinating agency (Botswana Ministry of Education home page, 2004). There is also an environmental education panel, which oversees the infusion of environmental education into curriculum and which was responsible for drawing up the environmental education guidelines for the Ministry (Bots, 2004; Botswana Ministry of Education home page, 2004).

The Environmental Liaison Officers structure is not working as well as anticipated (Bots, 2004). Currently a task force has been set to review the Environmental Action Plan (1997-2003). There is a strong need for capacity in the Agency to cope with the increasing demands on the environment (Bots, 2005).

The University of Botswana Environmental Education Unit contributes to developing human capacity, which is still seen as limited in terms of numbers and finance (Bots, 2004).

Another multi-sectoral structure that exists is the National Environmental Education Committee (NEEC), which is chaired by NCSA (Bots, 2005). This structure consists of the line Ministries represented by Departments of Environmental Affairs, Waste Management and Pollution, Wildlife, and National Parks, Water Affairs, Energy Affairs Division; non governmental and quasi-governmental organisations represented by Botswana Council of Non-Governmental Organisations, Association of Environmental Clubs of Botswana, Kalahari Conservation Society, Somarelang Tikologo, Birdlife Botswana; the Ministry of Education represented by the Departments of Teacher Training and Development, Curriculum Development and Evaluation, Secondary Education, and Primary Education; the Higher Education institutes represented by University of Botswana, Serowe, Tlokweng, Lobatse, and Francistown Colleges of Education; Agricultural Resources Board, Botswana National Museum, Veld Products Research and Development and the Department of Non-Formal Education (Bots, 2005).

The NEEC offers an opportunity for the various structures that are involved in environmental management, education and awareness raising an opportunity to network and drive environmental education in order to implement the policy in a cohesive manner (Bots, 2001).

#### **4.2.2.2 Economic Capital**

Botswana's environmental education policy and environmental education initiatives enjoy both internal and external financial support. This has had mixed success. There is a National Environmental Education Support fund which was established to support individuals and institutions (Bots, 2001). It was established through the excess

funding from the 1998 EEASA conference (M.J. Ketlhoilwe, personal communication, February 22, 2006,). Although the education support fund is still functional for individuals and institutions, the funds are limited and scarce (Bots, 2002). The NEEC, which is financially supported by the NCSA, is threatened by insufficient funds, which limit expansion of networks and projects (M.J. Ketlhoilwe, personal communication, February 22, 2006). Also, national organisations like Botswana Environmental Education Network have not been effective as funding has been scarce (Bots, 2002). These have so far been supported through networking by linking the National Environmental Education Committee and schools.

The Kalahari Conservation Society, a membership based organisation raises some of its funds from membership but the bulk of the funding comes from the corporate sector, especially the mining sector (M.J. Ketlhoilwe, personal communication, February 22, 2006).

External support has been through partnerships like the Environmental Planning Programme for Local Authority Planners that was funded by international donor funding from the Danish Ministry of Foreign Affairs (DANCED) (Bots, 2001), SADC REES co-funding the EEASA conference in 2002 (also funds sourced from DANCED), the SADC REEP co-funding the process for adaptation of the School Environmental Policy pack (Bots, 2001) and a booklet for establishing environmental education clubs, to name a few.

It is with this background that a call for environmental education policy with appropriate funding for effective implementation is being made (Bots, 2005). It is a call for environmental education policy as the current policy focuses on natural resource conservation broadly and environmental education and awareness are merely a sub-component of this policy (Bots, 2005).

### **4.2.3 Broad Policy Context**

#### **4.2.3.1 Relationship between Fields**

Environmental Education in Botswana enjoys a strong relationship between the two fields – environment and education - and also draws on other fields beyond these two



through the various institutional and networking structures. This is achieved through cooperation, collaboration, networking and partnerships that have been developed by NCSA and the Ministry of Education, and its Department of Curriculum Development and Evaluation; Local Government; Government Management, National Museums; National Library; media; and NGOs, quasi-governmental institutions, Higher Education Institutions like the University of Botswana and others national structures like the National Environmental Education Committee and the Botswana Environmental Education Network (Bots, 2005).

This relationship is seen in the environmental education, capacity building and awareness raising activities that are run by various sectors. The Ministries of Environment and Education along with the University of Botswana are jointly working on Schools Environmental Policy packs and in-set and pre-set training of teachers, and development of support materials (Bots, 2002, 2004). The Ministry of Education's Schools Broadcasting Unit has incorporated environmental issues in its national broadcast programme (Bots, 2002). The Departments of National Museums and National Libraries are taking a strong role in the development and dissemination of materials. The Association of Environmental Clubs of Botswana in Wildlife and Natural Parks works mostly with schools and uses education parks run by the Ministry of Wildlife like the Mokolodi Nature Park and the Gaborone Education Reserve (Bots, 2002). There are various networking relationships, which are multi-sectoral and multi-institutional like NCSA, Ministry of Local Government and its waste management programmes; Department of Environmental Sciences at University of Botswana and Local Authorities that run Local Agenda 21 programmes. These institutions run a myriad of courses, develop materials to support policy, and support networking.

The Environmental Education Unit of University of Botswana is running in-service courses in collaboration with the Course Development Network, which is a southern African network supported by SADC REES (Bots, 2004). The Unit also works closely with colleges of education. The National Environmental Education Committee is seeking broader representation to strengthen the cross cutting nature of environment. This is especially pertinent as University of Botswana courses are optional (Bots, 2005).

#### **4.2.3.2 Discourse**

“The environmental challenges and the attainment of sustainable development have led to the formulation of several policies and initiatives which are aimed at institutionalising environmental education at all levels of society” (Bots, 2003: 48). The distinction between formal and informal / non-formal education has played out differently with respect to the strategies and key players that focus on the implementation of environmental education (Bots, 2003). Non-formal education through the Ministry of Environment, other line ministries and key stakeholders has put a strong emphasis on creating awareness. Outreach programmes are run by line ministries like the Departments of Museums, Water Affairs and Agriculture. This is seen in the development of publicity materials, posters, and media programmes on environment for the general populace. These are distributed to the public at environmental shows, commemoration fares, libraries and Kgotla meetings. This is also referred to as “disseminating information” (Bots, 2004).

Imbued from the strategy is the primary goal to “integrate the work of the many sectoral ministries and interest groups throughout Botswana, thereby improving the development of natural resources through conservation” (Botswana, 1990: 2.1b). In accordance with the strategy goal of collaboration, cooperation and networking are strong approaches found in programme and / or project development and implementation. This is seen in the strong multi-sectoral and multi-institutional committees like the NEEC and the joint running of environmental education projects (Bots, 2001, 2002, 2003, 2004, 2005).

The discourse of promotion of sustainable use of resources plays out in the development of Community Based Natural Resources Management and training of communities to manage their local resources. Linked to this is the need for Indigenous Knowledge promotion (Bots, 2003), which plays a vital role in community based resource management.

In the field of formal education there is talk of inclusion of environmental education in school curriculum; challenges of integrating the EIA Act into curriculum; infusion of environmental education into teacher education starting with training of in-service teachers or empowering of pre-service teachers with workshops. Another aspect of the

formal education discourse is to encourage and support school-based hands-on activity and networking (Bots, 2003). This is seen in the demonstration pilots like the Somarelang Tikologo pilot project on recycling, reusing and reducing waste and their adoption of Thlabalogo Primary School (Bots, 2004).

Although there is considerable activity in the environmental education field there is need for “propagation” (Bots, 2005) of environmental education for all to empower the nation towards achieving a proactive public and to enhance the spirit of stewardship for the environment (Bots, 2005).

There is need for continuous monitoring of the Strategy in order to see its effectiveness and to incorporate new developments (Bots, 2005). Like in Malawi (S. Chimatiro, personal communication, February 20, 2006), environmental education policy needs to be given the emphasis it deserves (Bots, 2005) and there needs to be appropriate funding (Bots, 2004).

#### **4.2.4 Broad Policy Actors and Power Relations**

##### **4.2.4.1 Actors and Knowledge**

The Network Representative who is the SADC REEP official conduit into environmental education activities in Botswana is Head of the Environmental Education and Awareness Raising Section in NCSA. She chairs the NEENC and this in turn gives her the ability to influence environmental education processes intersectorally and countrywide.

The need to create more knowledge on environmental issues is stressed. This challenge is further increased in relation to the advent of integrating new policies like the Environmental Impact Assessment Act of 2005 which brings in the complexity of integrating some of the environmental concepts from EIAs into the curriculum (Bots, 2005). There is also emphasis on continuous awareness raising because environmental problems become progressively complicated (Bots, 2003).

#### **4.2.5 Use of seed funding**

Over the years, Botswana has used the various SADC REEP seed funding opportunities for mainly two purposes. The first seed funding came from the Capacity Building Initiative for Southern Africa (NETCAB) process and they used it for developing a Schools Environmental Policy resource tool in 2001 (Bots, 2002). Although the funding came from IUCN and USAID, SADC REEP implemented the process (SADC REEP, 2002b). The second request for policy seed funding (US\$ 3655) was used for a workshop to give input in the process of developing southern African guidelines for participating in the UN Decade of Education for Sustainable Development. The concern raised by Botswana at annual meetings was that the funding was too little for broader processes (B. Mogotsi, personal communication, April 26, 2006). Therefore, of the US\$ 14 000 available to Botswana over the five years, they only used US\$ 3 655 for a policy consultation initiative linked directly to the SADC REEP's broader activities (the SADC REEP was hosting such consultations in all 14 countries at the time).

### **4.3 THE EE POLICY STORY OF MALAWI**

#### **4.3.1 Broad Policy Processes**

##### **4.3.1.1 Policy history**

Malawi does not have a specific environmental education policy and the sector has been drawing from the constitution which requires “the state to prevent the degradation of the environment; provide healthy living, learning and working environment; accord full recognition of the rights of the future generations by means of environmental protection and sustainable development” (Mal, 2003: 57); the National Environmental Action Plan (NEAP) published in 1994; the Environmental Management Act (EMA) of 1996 (Malawi Government, 2002), and the National Environmental Policy of 2004 (Mal, 2005). The call for, among other things, the enhancement of public awareness of the importance of sound environmental management, and promotion of cooperation between government, local communities, NGO s, the private sector, religious groups and other community based groups in the sustainable use and management of Malawi's natural resources and total environment

is reiterated in the 2002 State of Environment (SOE) Report (Malawi Government, 2002).

Environmental education activities are drawn from the Environmental Education and Communication Strategy, which describes scope, processes and approaches of environmental education (Mal, 2003).

The national goals of education that relate to natural resources and the environment reviewed in the 1990s state that education should develop in the learner an awareness of appropriate environmental resource utilisation and management practices; develop an appreciation of the impact of population growth on the environment and the delivery of social services; and develop a spirit of scientific inquiry and practice in the learner (Malawi Government, 2002).

There has been a long process to develop an environmental education policy. This started with the IUCN NETCAB project when the Department of Labour initiated the process and was taken over by the Department of Environmental Affairs (DEA). This process, which has been stalled by a number of factors, culminated in a draft environmental education policy that still needs to be finalised (Mal, 2005). The factors cited include the ending of funding from the IUCN NETCAB project (Mal, 2003); that the concept of environmental education is still evolving and new to most practitioners; HIV/AIDS issues are overshadowing the environmental crisis hence environment has not been prioritised; lack of capacity in the field of environmental education policy development, and; that consultants develop most of the policy documents (Mal, 2005).

#### **4.3.1.2 Approach**

The environmental education policy processes are coordinated at government level, placed within the Department of Environmental Affairs through their mandate to coordinate all environmental education activities. There have been sectoral environmental education policy processes that have been initiated outside the ambit of the DEA. The Department of Fisheries initiated a policy process for its college. The Malawi College of Fisheries (MCF) has been running an environmental education course that has a low rating as it only has an official mandate to offer qualifications to a National Certificate level (two-year post schooling level). However, there is concern

especially from the Extension Services and Research Sections that the officers produced by the college cannot meet the needs of the community. This has led to the formulation of the College's environmental education policy in February 2005, which led to the process of reviewing the whole college's curriculum and its position in terms of aspiring to be a Centre of Excellence in Fisheries, which includes plans to upgrade the qualifications offered to the college to Diploma level through a partnership with the University of Malawi. The draft EE policy of the College is to be incorporated in the overall Department of Fisheries policy as the capacity building and training area of the Fisheries Policy (S. Chimatiro, personal communication, February 20, 2006).

The Ministry of Education reviews its curriculum every eight years, and the rationale is to develop and plan appropriate and quality education to achieve the goals set for the individual and national development that usually change with time. As the last review showed that well over 80 percent of the primary school objectives relate to the environment, thus reflecting the importance attached to environmental education. Environmental issues are integrated in most subjects, not only at primary school, but also at secondary school level. However, there are inadequate teaching and learning materials, and the majority of teachers in secondary schools (about 64 percent) have inadequate knowledge and skills to guide pupils and students in environmental education activities (Malawi Government, 2002). Adult education is also a factor, and even though the national adult literacy rate has increased to 58.2 percent, more improvement is needed.

Overall, the high demand for environmental education programmes has not been met because of functional and material constraints. In addition to the functional and material constraints, the lack of an Environmental Education Policy may also be an impediment.

#### **4.3.2 Broad Institutional Make-up**

##### **4.3.2.1 Structure**

The environmental education and outreach unit is based in the Department of Environment Affairs and is one of the eleven components of the Environmental

Management Project of the Government (Mal, 2002). The Government has established a position of Environmental District Officer in every district to facilitate and co-ordinate environmental management issues (Malawi Government, 2002). The department also established an EE and Communication Steering committee, which has focal points in all line ministries. Their duties include promotion of flow of information; strengthening the coordination between sectors and among sectors; and strengthening institutional capacity in different sectors to enable them to engage with environmental issues effectively (Mal, 2002). Further to the focal points, there is an environmental education and Communication Steering Committee with membership from government, private sector, and the NGO community (Mal, 2002).

There are a number of other institutions that support environmental education and public awareness including government institutions that have extension services and a few like National Parks and Wildlife that have environmental education centres or units, the Museum of Malawi, the Agriculture Communication Branch, the Environmental Education and Outreach Unit, the Forestry Extension Unit, the Population and Health Education Unit and the Fisheries Extension Unit (Malawi Government, 2002).

NGOs such as the Wildlife and Environmental Society of Malawi and the Co-ordination Unit for the Rehabilitation of the Environment (CURE) support environmental education (Malawi Government, 2002).

The private sector is also contributing significantly to the promotion of environmental education in Malawi. Examples include the Agricultural Research and Extension Trust that has a studio used for producing radio programmes, and other materials for promoting sustainable utilization and management of natural resources to improve agricultural production.

There are several publishing houses, such as Blantyre Newspapers Limited, the Nation Publications and the Ministry of Information that are actively involved in environmental information dissemination.

Higher Education institutions also contribute. Examples are a Node of Excellence in Environmental Education was established at Chancellor College in 2001 and 315

Teacher Development Centres throughout the country under the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (Malawi Government, 2002).

NGOs have also organized themselves in a more formal manner through the Alliance for Basic Education in Malawi, an NGO-government collaboration which is committed to promoting an integrated, comprehensive and efficient education system for the delivery of quality basic education to contribute towards education for all and socio-economic development in Malawi (Malawi Government, 2002).

The media has also organised itself through the establishment of the Forum for Environmental Communicators - an organisation of journalists formed in 1999 (Malawi Government, 2002). Another group is called Coalition for Journalists in Environment and Agriculture, which was formed around 2003. The Malawi Broadcasting Corporation has studios in Zomba, Lilongwe and Mzuzu, each having recording facilities available for producing environmental materials, especially recording radio programmes, music, and drama on a commercial basis.

However there still seems to be lack of capacity in terms of the number of suitably trained and experienced personnel and financial resources to facilitate the implementation of environmental education and public awareness programmes (Malawi Government, 2002; S. Chimatiro, personal communication, February 20, 2006).

#### **4.3.2.2 Economic Capital**

The 2002 State of Environment (SOE) Report has reinforced the concern that Malawi lacks financial capacity to facilitate environmental education initiatives. EE activities are donor dependent and their sustainability is at risk once the donors terminate the programmes (Mal, 2005). The Government of Malawi, through donor funding, specifically the World Bank, runs the Environmental Management Project in support of the Environmental Support Programme Implementation (Mal 2001). The IUCN NETCAB project also provided resources to initiate an environmental education process in collaboration with the Department of Labour (Mal, 2001). Other examples of projects that have been funded externally to strengthen environmental education policy include training of Environmental Club Patrons (Mal, 2003), and development



of an environmental education policy for the Malawi College of Fisheries (Mal, 2005). Of the fourteen radio programmes, three are funded externally, four are self-funding and the rest are funded by line ministries like the Department of Agriculture (Malawi Government, 2002).

The government, through the DEA develops materials in small quantities and these are sold at cost recovery, especially T-shirts. The challenge of financial resources is ascribed to donor withdrawal of support and to the food crisis, which is competing for limited resources (Mal, 2003).

The 2002 SOE report revealed that during the last decade a number of major environmental projects, most of them having a component on environmental education, were sponsored by various agencies such as the World Bank, Global Environmental Fund (GEF), Deutsche Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit (GTZ) GmbH, UNEP, DANIDA, SADC and International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN) (Malawi Government, 2002).

The DEA also received funding from USAID for a project called NATURE, which provided funds to key natural resources departments (Fisheries, Forestry, Water, Land, National Parks etc) to assist with the reform of policies linked with community participation in natural resources management. Part of these funds was/has been used to set up district micro-projects aimed at strengthening the compliance to rules by resource users.

### **4.3.3 Broad Policy Context**

#### **4.3.3.1 Relationship between Fields**

The Department of Environmental Affairs works closely with other line ministries, departments and local government, NGOs, Higher Education Institutions and various sectors that implement environmental education. This collaboration and cooperation are instituted in the various committees and are also given prominence by the various policy and strategy documents. The institutions of higher education include the Malawi College of Fisheries, Malawi College of Natural Resources and Forestry, University of Malawi and the University of Mzuzu, which have environmental education courses in their curriculum. The line ministries and departments include

Department of Labour, which initiated the Malawi environmental education policy process, and the Education Department, which has the responsibility of reviewing the curriculum. The different line ministries have representatives who participate in the collaborative committees mentioned above. The cooperation and collaboration is also seen at different levels of governance like local government where the District, Town and City Assemblies, such as the Capacity Building Unit of The City of Blantyre are involved in a capacity building process for officials so that they engage with teachers and other sectors in combating environmental degradation. CURE is a non-governmental organisation, which coordinates NGO activity, and provides a conduit between government and the non-governmental sector.

#### **4.3.3.2 Discourse**

Various people in Malawi perceive the environment differently. Most primary school pupils who participated in an environmental radio competition in 1998 in which they were asked to define the term, indicated that it is what surrounds an organism, such as land, trees, water and air. The definition by secondary school pupils covered the biophysical and social aspects of the environment. When the same question is asked at awareness workshops for various groups, such as local leaders, reporters and district officers, the definition tends to focus on the biophysical environment and hardly includes any social aspects. To most people in the local communities, the term environment refers to natural forests or trees, wild animals, water and air. Exotic things and more especially manmade things are hardly ever considered as part of the environment. The definitions seem to reflect two factors: literacy level and whether one's school or college curricula contained environmental issues (Malawi Government, 2002).

The overall policy goal of environmental education and public awareness is to increase public and political awareness and understanding of the need for sustainable natural resources use and environmental protection, conservation and management (Mal, 2001). This has played out in the specific objectives of the DEA and activities on the ground.

The increase of public awareness is seen in the number of training workshops and dedication to developing awareness materials like the environmental education

manual for environmental education facilitators who conduct environmental awareness activities for various target groups such as councillors, musicians, local and traditional leaders and dramatists (Mal, 2001). Other awareness raising projects include the annual commemoration of special days like World Environment Day and World Population Day, guided by the themes that the United Nations determines annually (Mal, 2001) and the Environmental Calendar Programme. This links closely to the objective of information dissemination, which is seen in the development and dissemination of T-shirts, posters and videos (Mal, 2003). Also, there is engagement with the various forms of media through projects that train journalists in environmental reporting, and broadcasting of environmental programmes, development of songs, and theatre activities. The evaluation of radio programmes, “You and the Environment” [*Inu ndi Chilengedwe* in Chichewa], indicated that these have played a crucial role in raising awareness on some of the environmental issues (Malawi Government, 2002).

It is noted that the Environmental Management Act also empowers the Minister responsible for environment to present to the National Assembly, an Annual Report on the State of the Environment (Mal, 2002; Malawi Government, 2002). This helps the government to inform the general public about the state of the national environment.

At a formal education level, the objective plays out in the form of curriculum review, looking specifically for integration of environmental issues in the syllabus and investigating the capacity and skills of the teachers to impart knowledge on EE to pupils (Mal, 2001; Malawi Government, 2002). “The large pupil-teacher ratio (102: 1) in primary schools and exams oriented curricula in both primary and secondary schools are constraints to activity-based learning which is a recommended approach to environmental education” (Mal, 2001: 9). There is a process of re-orienting teacher educators and teachers in environmental education methodologies through in-service training. Environmental education supplementary readers for primary school curriculum have been reviewed to assess the suitability as well as applicability to the Malawian environment (Malawi Government, 2002). The secondary school syllabus and tertiary level education have also taken steps to integrate environmental education in their systems. Chancellor College of the University of Malawi and the Bunda

College of Agriculture have initiated an M.Sc and reviewed the B.Sc in Agriculture, respectively (Malawi Government, 2002) to consider environmental issues more directly. The University of Mzuzu has also set up a Faculty of Environmental Science, which offers a number of environmental courses including renewable energy. The ongoing review of the various curricula is seen as an opportunity to mainstream emerging environmental issues (Mal, 2003).

#### **4.3.4 Broad Policy Actors and Power Relations**

##### **4.3.4.1 Actors and Knowledge**

The key players in the environmental education policy process have been the Department of Labour, and the DEA (Mal, 2001, 2002, 2003, 2004, 2005). The Malawi College of Fisheries process has been spearheaded by the Department of Fisheries (S. Chimatiro, personal communication, February 20, 2006).

It is recognised that environmental education as a process aimed at developing a society that is aware of, and concerned about the whole environment, and that it is important to integrate environmental education in the development policies (Mal, 2001). However, there is recognition of the real or perceived lack of capacity to formulate policy which necessitates reliance on consultants (Mal, 2005). Lastly, there is acknowledgement of the influence of competing priorities like HIV/AIDS that puts environmental education at the rear end of the concerns (Mal 2005).

##### **4.3.5 Use of seed funding**

Malawi, like Botswana, initiated its environmental education policy process with funding from the IUCN NETCAB process. It later used its share of policy seed funding through the Department of Environmental Affairs to run a workshop aimed at strengthening youth involvement in environmental issues (US\$ 3 500) in 2003. In 2005 policy seed funding (US\$ 5 976) was used to develop an environmental education policy for the Malawi National College of Fisheries. Lastly, like Botswana, the funding (US\$ 2 972) was used in the process of developing southern African guidelines for participating in the UN Decade of Education for Sustainable

Development. They therefore used US\$ 11 448 of the US\$ 14 000 available to them (WESSA internal financial documents).

## **4.4 THE EE POLICY STORY OF NAMIBIA**

### **4.4.1 Broad Policy Processes**

#### **4.4.1.1 Policy history**

The beginnings of the Namibian environmental education policy dates back to 1991 when the Ministry of Wildlife, Conservation and Tourism was identified to have the main responsibility but lacked a strategy to concretise the mandate (Paulick, 2003). An interim working group convened a conference that culminated in the establishment of the Namibian Environmental Education Network (NEEN), hosted by the Rössing Foundation, whose environmental education project was financially supported by the United States Agency for International Development (USAID). The advent of the SADC ELMS Environmental Education for Youth workshop held in Namibia put impetus on the policy focus (ibid.).

A broader national Green Plan of 1994 was drafted in 1992 and presented at UNCED as an attempt to incorporate environmental issues into planning. This has subsequently been strengthened by the Ministry of Environment and Tourism's 12-point plan for Integrated and Sustainable Environmental Management. The points included "... the need for policy formulation and debate; legislative reform; and the identification of key programmes for gathering critical environmental information, spearheading new approaches to natural resource management, and developing local capacity" (Southern African Institute for Environment Assessment, 2003: 149). The Green Plan states as one of the goals the intention to develop an environmentally literate society (SEEN, 2005). 1994 saw the cabinet approval of the EIA policy, however, up to 2003 there still was no finalisation of the EIA Bill with contestations over the structure that should oversee the proposed legislation – a new and autonomous Sustainable Development Commission; Ministry of Environment and Tourism through the Office of the Environmental Commissioner; or a Namibian Environmental Agency independent of, but contracted to government structures (Southern African Institute for Environment Assessment, 2003).

A series of workshops has taken place since then (Nam, 2001) resulting in aspects of the draft Environmental Education Policy being included in the Basic Education Presidential Commission as part of their 10 years of Education for All programme (Nam, 2001). This was followed by a number of workshops by the Ministry of Basic Education to look at how the draft could be implemented (Nam, 2002, 2003). The Permanent Secretary called for a working group to address this (Nam, 2003). The draft EE policy was shared with other line ministries who were asked to hold workshops and send comment with the intention of taking the finalized document for cabinet approval (Nam, 2004). The focus seemed to be on coordinating activities and sharing resources, rather than developing another environmental education policy (Paulick, 2003).

The interest in the policy was rekindled when the Supporting Environmental Education in Namibia (SEEN) project was initiated (Paulick, 2003). However, the momentum and interest started waning after the inception of the project (Nam, 2004) and up to 2005, it was still waiting to be tabled for official ratification (Nam 2005; U. Van Harmelen, personal communication, February 19, 2006).

Another aspect of the policy process was facilitated by the Namibia Institute of Education Development (NIED) as the lead agency in institutionalization of policy. This process resulted in the development of the Support Environmental Education in Namibia Project (SEEN), a Danish funded project to integrate environmental education into the national curriculum (Nam, 2002). This was initially a three-year pilot project, which was due to end in 2004 but was extended to Sept 2005 (U. Van Harmelen, personal communication, February 19, 2006).

#### **4.4.1.2 Approach**

The process of developing an environmental education policy has taken more than fourteen years of consultation and participation. The process, although initiated by government, and run by civic society, has seen a number of activities taking place within various government departments and NGOs (Nam, 2001). NEEN contributed further by capacity building for Ministry of Environment and Tourism on environmental education processes (Nam, 2001). The process was initiated by concern over the lack of collective action in the non-formal Namibian environmental

education sector and the Ministry of Basic Education. It therefore started with workshops to guide participation through lessons learnt (Nam, 2002).

The apparent lack of senior support of the policy process, high staff turnover, low rating of environmental education processes, and poor career pathing in environmental education seemed to reduce momentum (Nam, 2004). However, line ministries continued to indicate interest in developing their own sectoral environmental education policies (Nam, 2004). This resulted in a participatory review of National Environmental Education Policy with a meeting to re-vision environmental education processes in the country (Nam, 2005). This review called for a change in the placement of environmental education within the Ministry of Environment and Tourism, calling for it to be moved from the Information Section to the Department of Environmental Affairs. It also called for the review of the future of environmental education in Department of Environmental Affairs of the Ministry of Environment and Tourism. Lastly it raised a need to review how NEEN and the Ministry of Environment and Tourism could formally work in partnership to strengthen capacity in and beyond the ministry (Nam, 2004).

The SEEN project took the issue of environmental education policy in the formal education policy framework further, and worked with forty pilot schools to trial and promote environmental education as part of the formal curriculum. Part of this process involved introducing a whole school approach to environmental learning and this partly led to the revitalization of environmental clubs at certain schools and the establishment of a few eco-schools. All forty schools were introduced to the draft policy and were given a chance to hold workshops, reach understanding and to comment on it. The policy was used as the framing for curriculum development (U. Van Harmelen, personal communication, February 19, 2006). School based pilots on eco-schools and environmental clubs schools were initiated and this now needs nationalizing (Nam, 2005).

#### **4.4.2 Broad Institutional Make-up**

##### **4.4.2.1 Structure**

There has been a restructuring of the governmental institution which houses environmental education. This has changed from being the Ministry of Environment,

Tourism, Youth and Sport to Ministry of Environment and Tourism. Environmental Education is placed in the Information Section under the Directorate of Environmental Affairs (Nam, 2001, 2005). The Ministry of Basic Education drives formal education and environmental education processes are dealt with through its National Institute of Education Development (Nam, 2002). The Permanent Secretary for the Ministry of Environment and Tourism called for a working group for EE Policy. The working group consisted of the Permanent Secretaries of the Ministry of Environment and Tourism, the Ministry of Basic Education, Sports and Culture, members of NEEN and SEEN. Although the two Permanent Secretaries have met, there have been delays in convening full working group meetings (Nam, 2003). Some of the reasons cited include the lack of clarity with regard to which ministry should be leading the process (E. Mbamanovandu, personal communication, March 14, 2006).

NIED is chairing the inter-ministerial committee on draft EE policy, however the convening of meetings has also been very erratic and therefore not much progress has been made (Nam 2004). The draft has also been presented to various fora including the 1999 Presidential Commission on Education, Culture and Training (Paulick, 2003).

Civil society is represented by the Namibian Environmental Education Network (NEEN) which was established in 1995. NEEN is a multi-stakeholder network civil society initiative that supports environmental education processes and aims to work closely with the various ministries, local government and industry. There are a number of environmental clubs, which need a coordinating body for steering their function and support (Nam, 2004.) NEEN is undergoing a review to look at the composition of its committee, its coordination and function (Nam, 2005).

#### **4.4.2.2 Economic Capital**

The Namibian environmental education process with respect to review and development of curriculum is mostly dependent on external funding. Smaller programmes and projects have had to close because of scarcity of financial resources (Nam, 2001). The SEEN, a major national initiative has been run with three-year financial support from the Danish Government and technical support from Ibis, a



Danish NGO. After a one-year extension the programme has “ended” and parts of it have been institutionalized by NIED.

Some SADC REEP seed funding has been used for professional development (Nam, 2002). The “...need to look at what is done and how it is done as there was big donor funding coming into the arena...” was expressed (Nam, 2002: 40).

Currently, there is a process of finalizing a Namibian Environment Fund, which will contribute to environmental education processes and this is linked to the review of the NEEN committee as has been proposed at a recent NEEN Annual General Meeting (Nam, 2005).

Other examples of funding external to the government are the Nedbank Go Green Fund and Namibian Nature Foundation in Environmental which received N\$ 10 000 each from the private sector (Nam, 2005). This funding is linked to the Awards programme and the management and journalism programmes. Another example of external funding is Danida funding for the 2003 EEASA conference through the SADC REES (Nam, 2003).

#### **4.4.3 Broad Policy Context**

##### **4.4.3.1 Relationship between Fields**

Namibia also enjoys multi-sectoral and multi-departmental cooperation in the environmental education field and NEEN was intended to be the organization that holds this together (Paulick, 2003) although the reality is contested. NIED, under the Ministry of Basic Education oversees formal education environmental education processes as part of curriculum development (Nam, 2001). When NEEN underwent financial constraints in 1998, the policy process was taken over by the Ministry of Basic Education who were to reformulate it in a suitable way (Paulick, 2003). The Ministry of Education needed to take this process further, to “... directly support and extend the guidelines about cross-curricular learning given within the Broad Curriculum ...” (SEEN/Ministry of Education, 2005: 1).

NEEN has worked with local governments on various projects like the Local Agenda 21 project with Walvisbay municipality and schools in Walvisbay around the Walvisbay lagoon, which is a RAMSAR site (Nam, 2002).

Other examples of inter-sectoral cooperation include professional and institutional development for schools as seen in the whole school / eco-school workshop that was held in Swakopmund in 2003. There is also close cooperation with the Ministry of Agriculture through agriculture shows and art competitions (Nam, 2004, 2005).

On the formal education front two courses have been developed and trialed as part of integrating environmental education at tertiary level (U. Van Harmelen, personal communication, February 19, 2006). These courses, spearheaded by the Namibian Polytech with initial financial and conceptual support from the SEEN are for in-service and pre-service training (Nam, 2005). Another course, also located in the Namibian Polytech has also been developed for the non-formal sector, with initial financial and conceptual support from the SADC REEP and the SEEN. This course received network linked support from the SADC REEP's course development network for a period of four years.

A significant amount of environmental education is achieved through NGOs and other education institutions. Collaborative partnerships are established between organizations like the Namibia Desert Research Foundation, Cheetah Conservation Foundation and Ministry of Education through NIED. NIED has developed a Memorandum of Understanding with some key National NGOs to identify future collaborations in research, training of trainers, resource development and distribution in schools and colleges (Nam, 2005).

All this interaction between fields and sectors shows the need to ratify the National EE strategy with implications for both the environmental and education ministries (Nam, 2003).

#### **4.4.3.2 Discourse**

The key trends in discourse in the Namibia reports is around sustainable development and the need to communicate, publicize, coordinate and raise awareness on activities

that are taking place in the country. These actions are spearheaded mainly in environmental management sector.

The discourse on sustainable development stems from the overarching policies that guide environmental activities that have been mentioned in the section on policy history (See section 4.4.1.1). They include the 12-Point Plan for Integrated and Sustainable Environmental Management. The discourse is also a legacy of previous national projects that introduced environmental education processes in formal education. An example is the Ibis-supported Life Science Project (Lotz-Sisitka, personal communication, October 11, 2007).

A need to focus on the development of a sustainability strategy is also articulated (Nam, 2002, 2003). In the meantime the draft environmental education policy stands as a reference guide for sectoral policies (Nam, 2004).

Another line of discourse is around the idea of networking, collaboration and development of partnerships. The support and strengthening of environmental education processes through networking is highlighted. It has played out in the development of a Journal for the purposes of networking, and the review of Namibia Environmental Education Network (Nam, 2005), and in the continued involvement of NEEN in the environmental education policy debates and processes in Namibia.

However, the formal education sector emphasizes the role of environmental learning to encourage development of understanding, skills ethics and values that promote commitment and action, which goes beyond informing the learners (SEEN/Ministry of Education, 2005). This is to be achieved by making environmental learning cross-curricular in Basic Education, and through adopting whole school approaches to environmental learning.

#### **4.4.4 Broad Policy Actors and Power Relations**

##### **4.4.4.1 Actors and Knowledge**

Initially, the Network Representative was an official of the Ministry of Environment and Tourism but from 2001 to 2005 there has been an NGO representative. In 2005, a NIED representative compiled the report. With the change of representation, the

reports reflect a change in the emphasis on information that is included in the report, with the 2005 report focused more on formal education (Nam, 2005). The position of the Network Representative has been discussed in Namibia, and a need to move it back to the lead ministry, Ministry of Environment and Tourism has been identified (Nam, 2003). This did not materialize. In 2006, the Ministry of Environment and Tourism passed the position back to NEEN.

The 2002 report acknowledges a need for capacity building in the Ministry of Environment and Tourism in relation to the management and decision-making arena on environmental matters. As mentioned before, in this ministry environmental education has been given to young and inexperienced officials. This is related to high staff turnover, low rating of environmental education processes and poor career pathing in environmental education processes (Nam 2004). However, in the Ministry of Education and Culture there is a cadre of experienced environmental educators that have been involved with the SEEN project (U. Van Harmelen, personal communication, February 19, 2006).

With respect to the positioning of the environmental education policy process in the Ministry of Basic Education and Culture, the environmental education coordination seems to be an additional portfolio over and above many other cross-cutting responsibilities (Paulick, 2003).

There is also a need to share the SADC REEP activities and processes more widely in the country (Nam, 2003). This might link closely to the positioning of the Network Representative.

#### **4.4.5 Use of seed funding**

Although Namibia did not use any seed funding for environmental education policy processes, it ran a workshop on developing guidelines for participating in the UN Decade of Education for Sustainable Development using other SADC related funding. Namibia also benefited from the Danida funding for a three-year process of “exploration, discussion and decision making” by various stakeholders with the SEEN project. This funding was allocated as part of the SADC REES programme, which aimed to encourage dialogue amongst the three large Danida-funded environmental

education projects running at the time in South Africa, Lesotho and Namibia. The amount set aside for networking of these southern African projects amounted to ZAR 246 000, which was equivalent to US\$ 31 000. It made provision for various networking opportunities across the three projects concerned. The course development function of the SEEN also benefited from participation in the SADC REEP Course Development Network, although the Namibian involvement in the CDN was self-funded.

## **4.5 THE EE POLICY STORY OF SOUTH AFRICA**

### **4.5.1 Broad Policy Processes**

#### **4.5.1.1 Policy history**

The post-apartheid government of South Africa started by reviewing and developing many policies with the aim of bringing about transformation from an apartheid-driven society to a democratic society. Based on clause 2.24 of the constitution, the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism started a consultative process to develop a national environmental policy (RSA, 1996). This three year consultative process culminated in the National Environmental Management Act of 1998.

In the formal education arena, a broad-based process of integrating environmental education processes into curriculum started with the establishment of the Environmental Education Policy Initiative (EEPI) in 1992 (SA, 2001). This bore fruit in 1996 when the EEPI was given an opportunity to formally contribute towards the development of the new South African Curriculum 2005 as the Environmental Education Curriculum Initiative (DEAT, 2001). The EEPI and Environmental Education Curriculum Initiative (EECI) processes later benefited from IUCN Networking and Capacity Building Initiative for Southern Africa (NETCAB) Project in processing National Standards and Standard Generating Bodies on environmental education that resulted in the development of Unit Standards and Qualifications in EE and Conservation (DEAT, 2001).

The Department of Education has integrated environmental education through the Principles of the Revised National Curriculum Statement for General Education and

Training. The principles are social justice, a healthy environment, human rights and inclusivity (Department of Education, 2002).

On the non-formal front of environmental education, DEAT led a process of developing a National Environmental Education Strategy Framework, tabled for comment, to provide direction for environmental education processes in the country (SA, 2001). This was supported by other processes like the involvement of youth through the Caretakers of Environment International conference, which presented a declaration to DEAT (SA, 2002). The draft National Environmental Education Strategy that took six years to develop was also taken to the Council of Ministers who advised that curriculum developers must ensure that environmental education processes are incorporated into national curriculum statements in refining Curriculum 2005 (SA, 2005). The EE policy process included finalizing of environmental education unit standards registered in November 2002 which was a response to the presidential call for massive skills development campaign country-wide (SA, 2004).

2002 was of great significance because the country hosted the World Summit on Sustainable Development. DEAT declared the year as a year of sustainable development in South Africa (SA, 2002). This raised the profile of environment and sustainable development issues in the policy making sector. It also coincided with the release of the revised National Curriculum Statement, which addressed sustainable development issues through its principles and through building environmental issues into each of the new Learning Areas (Department of Education, 2000).

NEMA underwent amendment through a consultative process. A number of sectoral bills were developed and these included the Conservation Bill, Protected Areas Bill, Air Quality Bill, Coastal Management Bill and Waste Management Bill including the Plastic Bag Policy of 2003. As late as 2004, DEAT was still finalizing the environmental education strategy (SA, 2004), a process that remains incomplete.

#### **4.5.1.2 Approach**

DEAT, as the lead agent for environmental management pursued the need to develop capacity of provincial education officials in environmental education processes (SA, 2001). It also pursued the constitutional principle of a democratic approach to

governance by drawing in various sectors like youth through the development of the Youth State of Environment Report and by holding a Women and Environment Conference (SA, 2005).

The media has also played a role in raising the profile of environment and policy, stimulating debate and raising awareness through radio programmes, print media, and television programmes like *50/50* (personal observation).

The Department of Education, working with NGOs, local and provincial government, other line ministries, and business established a National Environmental Education Programme in 2000, to facilitate better co-operation between different sectors involved in environmental education. This programme raised funding to the value of ZAR 32 million (approximately US\$ 3 million) for a formal education capacity development project which was known as the National Environmental Education Project for General Education and Training (NEEP-GET) in 2002-2006. It also supported the adoption of school environmental policies, and other government department initiatives such as the Department of Water Affairs and Forestry 20/20 programme. The initiative to support school environmental policy processes and to ensure stronger co-ordination later developed into the Eco-Schools programme that uses school environmental policy as a framework to strengthen environment in the curriculum framework (SA, 2002). Environment in the formal education curriculum has been further strengthened by processes initiated by NGOs and local government sectors. An example of this is the schools State of Environment Reporting Project in Cape Town (SA, 2002).

In creating an enabling framework to develop context-specific but nationally relevant policies – priority issues, principles, specific roles, DEAT has pursued the process of developing the draft National EE Strategy (SA, 2002). This has been done by drawing on other national priorities and policies, consulting other stakeholders and collaborating with other line ministries to integrate environmental education in their practice. An example in the formal sector is the development of Further Education and Training (FET) and Higher Education and Training (HET) activities where EE practitioners and training providers can develop their programmes using EETDP unit standards and qualifications approved by the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA). The aim of this process is to standardize courses offered especially in line with the lifelong learning principle (SA, 2002). With regards to this process there is

concern over the development of environmental management learnership programmes in DEAT for 2005-2007 (SA, 2004). The challenge is the lack of suitable accredited service providers to support the programme (T. Mathiba, personal communication, October 12, 2005).

At the time of the research, DEAT's National EE Strategy had not yet been adopted by cabinet (SA, 2005).

## **4.5.2 Broad Institutional Make-up**

### **4.5.2.1 Structure**

Environmental education and awareness raising is hosted in a number of line ministries that have an environmental impact. Their departments are mainly Department of Water Affairs and Forestry, Department of Agriculture, Department of Minerals and Energy with Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism as the lead agent. DEAT houses a directorate on environmental education in its communication and capacity building section. This is the directorate that drives capacity building, education and awareness at the national level of governance. It has to collaborate with various provincial / local level structures (SA, 2004). It also has to collaborate with other line ministries. DEAT has signed Memoranda of Understanding for collaboration with departments of Water Affairs and Forestry, Education and Health.

The Department of Education was the implementing agent for the NEEP-GET, a project that aimed to integrate environmental issues into curriculum policy, and to develop professional capacity to ensure that environmental issues are implemented at provincial levels in the national curriculum capacity development processes. The project had Department of Education staff seconded at national and provincial levels, and a number of Danish Technical Advisors, since it was funded by Danida. Most of the national provincial staff were absorbed back into the department when the project reached its end, as their functions were absorbed into the broader activities of the provincial education departments.

Regarding the mainstreaming of environmental education in other aspects of training, Standard Generating Bodies (SGBs) were established. These SGBs developed Unit Standards, for example, unit standards on Environmental Education Training and



Development Practice for Field 05 of the National Qualifications Framework (Janse van Rensburg, Lotz Sisitka, & Mosidi, 2001). A key outcome of the NEEP-GET was the policy integration of environmental education into the revised National Curriculum s for General Education and Training. This laid the ground for inclusion of environmental education concepts and principles into the Further Education and Training curriculum policy.

Structures for decision-making on environmental issues include Ministers' Technical Committees and working groups (SA, 2003). With all these structures what is lacking is a strategy to ensure participation as well as collaboration of all key stakeholders, to strengthen partnerships between national government with whom the policy mandate rests and the provincial levels of government with whom environmental implementation rests (SA, 2003).

#### **4.5.2.2 Economic Capital**

A number of environmental education initiatives implemented by NGOs and even DEAT have been run on funding external to the government. This is notwithstanding that the department has a big annual budget, calculated at nearly ZAR 1.6 billion in 2005, ZAR 2.6 in 2007, and yet very limited for environmental education and capacity building (Department of National Treasury of South Africa, 2007). The various aspects of environmental education policy processes have benefited from various funding sources including industry that funded the EECI process (S. Mosidi, personal communication, February 21, 2006).

One needs to look at the historical perspective and situation then. It was just at the dawn of New SA and there was much expectation from the citizens for service delivery and change of life and on the other hand RSA as a new country was an opportunity for countries with Green agenda or any other policy to influence policy development. Thus, many resources were put forward to provision of infrastructure, housing, water and sanitation. Much of policy development process received funding from donors. Much policy development processes received funds from EU and DANCED/DANIDA with strong links to environment. It should not be perceived that no funding or counter funding was budgeted for, there was funding but much was received especially for participative processes.

S. Mosidi. February 21, 2006

When the Department of Education, in collaboration with stakeholders like DEAT, HEIs and NGOs spearheaded the development of the NEEP project it resulted in a

funding proposal, which was accepted by DANCED. The project initially aimed to assist formal education General Education and Training (GET) in South Africa for ten years, with a three year initial funding period. The funding came to an end after five years due to a change in the Danish government funding system. The precursor process of Standards Generation was funded through the IUCN NETCAB and subsequently SADC REEP (SA, 2001). SADC REEP supported the standards generating process by printing resources and funding the pilot study through hosting workshops and through providing expertise to support the Standards Generating Body (SA, 2002).

External funding was sourced from Danida and the Netherlands Royal Embassy for Integrated Development Planning (IDP) training and the development of the IDP National Framework Document (SA, 2004). This is the same source of funding that supported the Lesotho Environmental Education Support Project (LEESP), and the Support Environmental Education Project in Namibia (SEEN).

SADC REEP has hosted environmental education workshops for DEAT to develop an Environmental Education strategy. This has also this has been done as a means to introduce South Africans, especially at a provincial and local level, to the Regional EE Centre (SA, 2003). The Regional EE Centre has also provided skills and technical assistance (SA, 2004).

### **4.5.3 Broad Policy Context**

#### **4.5.3.1 Relationship between Fields**

Environmental education processes are performed by provinces, local authorities, NGOs, CBOs, and hundreds of individual based organisations i.e. one-person-organisations (SA, 2001, 2002). DEAT works in partnership with the Department of Education and other line ministries like Department of Water Affairs and Forests and Department of Health (SA, 2001). Memoranda of Understanding with Education, Health, Agriculture, Science and Technology and DWAF have been developed to foster elements of collaboration and alignment of projects (SA, 2004).

The consultative processes to provide an enabling framework for environmental education needed to pay more attention to local government (SA, 2002). There is a

directorate in DEAT dedicated to sustainable development through Agenda 21 and Local Agenda 21. This directorate works closely with local government through a Memorandum of Understanding with South African Local Government Association.

Most partnerships still operate from a national level. These include large scale initiatives such as the NEEP-GET, and others such as the EE aspect of the Blue Flag project which instills environmental education through environmentally friendly beaches; fostering ties with SECUDE (Denmark and the University of Natal) which strengthens Higher Education networking; Kopanang, a public-private partnership with the Oppenheimer Trust, working towards sustainable development practices; and trans-frontier initiatives with their associated environmental education initiatives like Kalagadi Trans-frontier Programme (SA, 2003).

The relationship between environment, education and other fields like health, forestry, and labour is also seen in the collaboration with SAQA as the lead agent for realizing accreditation for life-long learning. It remains an ongoing challenge to bring on board other ministries like Minerals and Energy, Agriculture, Arts and Culture, Science and Technology, and Social development (SA, 2002).

The Council of Education Ministers made a recommendation to have environment, equality, democracy and justice integrated into education, which led to the inclusion of these issues in the National Curriculum s for GET and FET (SA, 2003). The recently initiated process of developing guidelines for participation in the UN Decade on Education for Sustainable development saw collaboration of a broad range of fields including Labour, Science and Technology, Youth, and Gender. This is in accordance with the Council of Education Ministers recommendation for environment, equality, democracy and justice to be integrated into education (SA, 2003).

The biggest challenge was lack of understanding of government procedures and processes of decision-making, budgeting and approval of programmes (SA, 2004).

#### **4.5.3.2 Discourse**

In South Africa where there is such a diversity of partners and viewpoints, meaningful coordination of public-private partnership is critical (SA, 2002). This leads to a strong diversity of discourse emerging from a variety of South African policy documents and the Network Representatives country reports.

The development and environmental management policy documents including the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) of 1994 and NEMA broadly talk of environmentally sustainable development, capacity building and awareness raising of the people or making environmental education processes prominent in all learning areas (SA, 2001). The draft DEAT strategy framework is expected to give direction in environmental education with awareness and capacity building (SA, 2001), including awareness raising on prioritized environmental education issues (SA, 2003). Many non-formal education projects are geared towards awareness raising and capacity building to manage the environment. Environmental education practitioners continue with these activities that influence policy (SA, 2002). Initiatives linked to formal and non-formal education include development of Environmental Days for awareness raising in schools and commemorating special days like World Meteorological Day 23 March from World Meteorological Convention – DEAT and SA Weather Services (SA, 2003).

There are initiatives to empower local and provincial governments' institutions in environmental management to strengthen policy (SA, 2002), and to improve service delivery (SA, 2004). This is done through training of trainers, cleaning initiatives like Cleanest City Awards, and skills development like the learnership projects.

In the formal education sector there is a more specific discourse linked to environmental education contributing to outcomes based education, for example, "... each learning area to address environmental education outcomes that are integral to the learning area..." (SA, 2003: 81). The discourse reflected in the National Curriculum s reflects the rights-based discourse of the Constitution, and emphasizes the relationship that exists between human rights, social justice and a healthy environment (Department of Education of South Africa, 2000). The Further

Education and Training National Curriculum Statement explicitly emphasizes an environmental justice discourse (Department of Education of South Africa, 2000).

National documents related to environmental education talk about processes like collaboration and working in partnership with other stakeholders and sectors to advance greater participation and to encourage people to be supporters of sustainable and equitable living (SA, 2004). These processes are based on “an understanding that communities play a role in changing attitudes towards environment...” (SA, 2003: 82). Linked to this discourse is the use of expressions like “massive outreach project” to enlighten SA communities; “educate communities” on how to live in harmony with the environment (SA, 2004); need to “disseminate information” on new regulations and policies; and “guidelines to support” local government (SA, 2004). The 2003 report emphasizes the need to bridge the gap between formal and non-formal education (SA, 2003).

#### **4.5.4 Broad Policy Actors and Power Relations**

##### **4.5.4.1 Actors and Knowledge**

In the genesis of environmental education policy process, the sector had a strong network of dedicated, people who ensured that EE was part of the overall policy review that was taking place in South Africa. This was captured well by both Mosidi and Rosenberg (2006).

The amazing enthusiasm, buoyancy and drive of people at the time, we were united in our efforts as we willingly worked for a common cause. (Will we ever experience that again?!)... Having EE allies within government was crucial, too, as the EE community relied heavily on members like Solly and Nomfundi and Sue in KZN to interpret the policy context for us ... and provide pointers, ranging from identifying who in the new organograms to work with, to preventing us from making strategic blunders or naively falling into traps.

E. Rosenberg, personal communication, February 17, 2006

The role of the Network Representative has always been played by the Director: EE and Capacity Building in the DEAT, except for 2001 and 2005 when the Network representative was the DEAT Deputy Director and the Acting Director respectively (SA, 2001, 2005). Although the position has not changed, the actual incumbents have changed four times in five years, with little evidence of strong handing over with regards to the SADC REEP (personal observation).

Compiling a country report is a challenge for the National Networking representative: the report covers only what the particular representative is aware of (SA, 2001). In South Africa there is a challenge regarding the scope of reporting where there is activity in nine provinces and there is environmental education at formal, non-formal and informal levels. The 2001 report is explicitly based on interests at the national level (SA, 2001). As indicated in the discussions above, both the DEAT and the DoE are strong players in environmental education, along with other sectors such as DWAF. It is not always easy to collate all the activities related to environmental education on such a scale, particularly without an adequate national cross-sectoral co-ordinating forum or committee responsible for environmental education.

#### **4.5.5 Use of seed funding**

South Africa was one of the five countries that benefited from the IUCN NETCAB process. The SADC REEP funding (ZAR 7 199) was used by the DEAT in 2002 to revise the draft Environmental Education Strategy. Other amounts of US\$ 3 662 and US\$ 741 were used to support the NEEP colloquium in 2004 and the Department of Education in running the UNDES process in 2005, respectively. South Africa used US\$ 11 602 of the US\$14 000 available to them in the five years.

As mentioned in section 4.5.2.2, South Africa benefited from other external funding for policy development, especially relating to public participation.

## **4.6 THE EE POLICY STORY OF TANZANIA**

### **4.6.1. Broad Policy Processes**

#### **4.6.1.1 Policy history**

Tanzania has a plethora of policy and legislation, which enables environmental education and capacity building. These include the National Conservation Strategy for Sustainable Development of 1994, National Environmental Action Plan of 1994 aimed at incorporating environmental concerns into national planning and development (Southern African Institute for Environment Assessment, 2003), the National Environmental Policy (1997) and the Education and Training Policy of 1992 (Tan, 2002). All these provide guidance on natural resource conservation and the latest curriculum review by the National Examination Council shows that there has been an increase in environmental issues in all subjects (Tan, 2003).

However, a need for a National Environmental Education Strategy (NEES) in line with the National Environmental Policy (1997) and the Education and Training Policy (1992) was articulated by various groups through National Environmental Management Council (NEMC). The rationale for the Strategy was the existence of a multitude of actors in the field, the existing gaps, overlaps and duplication of activities in the face of meagre resources, the necessity to create or enhance partnerships and networks, and other factors for wide ranging conservation of the environment (NEMC, 2003). It was anticipated that it would address overarching issues like streamlining EE training, materials production to support curricula and policy implementation in formal EE, networking as well as professional development. It is also expected to harmonize EE implementation at different levels so as to ensure that all sections of the society were reached (NEMC, 2003). The consultation process of the strategy started in 2002. Although the first draft was completed by the end of 2003, Cabinet ratified the fifth draft in 2005. Another policy process involved the preparation of a draft Environmental Management Bill for 2005 – one of sections is on environmental education, awareness raising and public participation (Tan, 2004).

#### **4.6.1.2 Approach**

Tanzania, through NEMC, works quite closely with the Ministry of Education in supporting and implementing the environmental agenda. Although NEMC has the mandate to implement awareness raising and capacity building regarding environmental issues, it works closely with other stakeholders in various fora of local government, decision-makers, and teachers. It supports the various sectors with expertise.

Tanzania took the view that there is sufficient legislation to enable environmental education. However, the challenge lies in its coordination and that of related activities. The National Environmental Education Committee (NEEC), of which NEMC is an integral part and a technical committee, initiated the environmental education strategy process (Tan, 2003).

Informal education takes place through school groups (environmental clubs), youth groups in and out of school, and activity-based initiatives like women's energy saving stoves, tree nurseries and tree planting. Another example of school activities that support policy is the programme on the reduction of plastic bags (Tan, 2002).

Formal education has a long history of inclusion and integrating environmental issues in the curriculum. NEMC plays a strong role in proposing environmental education components, which need to be infused into primary, secondary, and teacher training. This is done in consultation with the Network Representative and environmental education practitioners (Tan, 2001). To ensure that environmental education processes are incorporated in formal education there is continuous introduction of new initiatives. These initiatives include the development of environmental education policy in schools, which has been done as a pilot project, and incorporation of examinable environmental projects in subjects that contribute towards national assessment for secondary schools (Tan, 2001).

Other key initiatives have been the development of guidelines for pre-primary and primary schools educators. This followed the pronouncement by the Ministry of Education that all primary schools must show links between environment and poverty: each lesson plan must state an environmental objective/ message of that



lesson (Tan, 2004). The pronouncement came as a result of strong lobbying by national institutions for effective inclusion of environmental issues in curriculum.

Efforts to embark on environmentally related subjects at tertiary levels are seen in the fields of environmental health, engineering and management that are taught at University of Dar es Salaam. There are environmental disciplines as well as short and long-term courses at Sokoine University of Agriculture and the Open University of Tanzania. Several workshops on environmental issues are conducted countrywide to facilitate training and networking among and between education practitioners. The Ministry of Education initiated the establishment of Teachers Resource Centres in all regions (Tan, 2005).

Since it is at the local level of government where services are delivered and environmental management becomes highly complex, serious attention is required to ensure sustainable development. Therefore, environmental management requires not only the integration of all institutions in the field, but also the empowerment of the local authorities to manage and conserve natural resources and the environment (Southern African Institute for Environment Assessment, 2003).

#### **4.6.2 Broad Institutional Make-up**

##### **4.6.2.1 Structure**

Back in the 1970s, the United Republic of Tanzania saw a need to have environmental issues coordinated by one institution. The National Environmental Management Act (No. 19 of 1983) resulted in the establishment of the National Environmental Management Council (NEMC) (Southern African Institute for Environment Assessment, 2003). The vice president's office oversees issues of environment and in 1990 a Department of Environment was established. However, at the time of data gathering for the study, different line ministries were responsible for sectoral resource management (forestry, wildlife, fisheries, land, agriculture) (Tan, 2001).

Even after the establishment of the Department of Environment, NEMC as a quasi-government agency remained in the vice president's office (Tan, 2001). The objective of NEMC is to create and enlighten Tanzanian society by undertaking awareness and sensitisation programmes, acquisition and dissemination of information and training.

It plays an important role as a clearing house of information from UNEP and other regional, sub-regional and international influences (Tan, 2001), for initiation and coordination of NGO activities (Southern African Institute for Environment Assessment, 2003), and as a watchdog for environment management and conservation.

Creation of environment desks in various ministries is one of the steps taken towards the development of sectoral policies to cater for sector interests and to address poverty reduction in the country. There has been formulation of national and local environmental conservation strategies that address Environmental Awareness issues (Tan, 2005).

Other key multi-sectoral networks are the Tanzanian Environmental Network (TANEN) and the National Environmental Education Committee (NEEC), which was reconstituted in 2002 after being minimally active for a long time (Tan, 2003). The prospects of hosting the 2004 conference for the Environmental Education Association of Southern Africa (EEASA) gave impetus to the formation of the Tanzanian EE and Communication Association. This is a broad-based network of environmental management and environmental education practitioners including institutions of Higher Education and NGOs (Tan, 2003).

Environmental issues and education processes are also entrenched in parliamentary committees that take a strong interest and play a significant role in strengthening environmental management and capacity building (Tan, 2003). The Local Government Reform Programme advocates for the devolution of responsibility of the environment management, amongst other governance issues, to local and district levels of governance. These institutions often lack the financial capacity and expertise to manage the environment and to conserve natural resources. In line with the central government policy of broad participation, the role of NEMC in building capacity becomes crucial.

Formal education rests with the Ministry of Education. The Tanzania Institute of Education (TIE), National Examination Council of Tanzania and Ministry of Science,

Technology and Higher Education all play a key role in developing and reviewing curriculum for infusion of environmental issues.

#### **4.6.2.2 Economic Capital**

Tanzania like other African countries relies heavily on external funding for environmental and associated environmental education activities. Because the donor economy's projects and programmes also rely on a sound environment, environmental management has received more attention from donor agencies than any other sector in Tanzania (Southern African Institute for Environment Assessment, 2003). NGOs like WWF Tanzania, GreenCom USAID, and Shoots and Roots implement a significant amount of environmental education projects (Tan, 2002).

Tanzania is one of the few countries that have used the SADC REEP seed funding and expert support for the development of the National Environmental Education Strategy (Tan, 2004). Although there is a government budget for environmental management, the main constraint is limited budgetary allocations for environmental education processes and communication to cope with the ever changing and dynamic environmental management issues (Tan, 2004). The available resources are used for awareness raising like website development, workshops and sensitization competitions for the public and municipalities (Tan, 2005).

The Ministry of Works announced that it has set aside 3% of each road project budget for environmental management (Tan, 2005).

### **4.6.3 Broad Policy Context**

#### **4.6.3.1 Relationship between Fields**

In Tanzania, there is a history of cooperation between the NEMC, quasi-government institutions, NGOs, training institutions, and local government, and the planning commission. All these are seen as key partners in environmental management, awareness raising and capacity building. The Ministries of Education and Higher Education and Technology are responsible for general formal education (Tan, 2001). Education for conservation lies with line ministries and other partners. NGOs and line ministries carry out informal and extra-mural education. The Ministry of Education, through the Institute of Education (curricular), receives comment from stakeholders.

The key NGOs that have engaged with greening of schools in collaboration with the Ministry of Education are WWF Tanzania, GreenCom, Roots and Shoots (Tan, 2001).

The Ministries of Education and Culture and Higher Education and Technology are key driving institutions in private-public partnerships. Examples of these private-public partnership projects include grocery bags that are made by schools and bought by supermarkets (Tan, 2002).

To strengthen multi-stakeholder processes and awareness, there has been an emphasis on the use of media. This environmental communication is seen to be significant in order to enlighten the public on environmental issues and what government is doing (Tan, 2003). NEMC is working with media people to develop radio and TV programmes specifically for The Lower Kihansi ecosystem (Tan, 2005).

The Ministry of Education, in close collaboration with NEMC and other stakeholders, has been the lead agent in the development of the National Environmental Education Strategy. This is of interest because the need for the strategy was identified by NEMC in order to streamline the coordination of environmental education and awareness raising in the country. The Ministry of Environment has been following up on the Ministry of Works' pronouncement to see its operationalisation of environmental management and support (Tan, 2004).

Networking between the Ministries of Environment and Education with key national NGOs is strong. These NGOs include GreenCom, Leadership for Environment and Development Southern Africa and International, IUCN Commission on Education and Communication and WWF Tanzania. They engage in various activities from action-based education to developing materials and running awareness campaigns like commemoration of Special Environment Days. This variety of players and activities present a challenge for coordination of all these initiatives that support policy. Therefore, Ministries are looking forward to a strategy, which will clarify modalities (Tan, 2004).

Commitment to environmental education processes in the various sectors is also articulated in the establishment of awards. Examples of these awards are Coastal

Environmental Award Scheme by GreenCom of USAID, Annual Cleanliness Competition for Urban Centres by the Ministry of Health and NEMC, and the Presidential Mining Award (Tan, 2005).

It must be noted that there have been considerable activities taking place in Tanzania and various key players in EE have been working in close partnership. The National representative interaction with other EE practitioners was promoted by availability of electronic correspondence, which allows for easy communication with Ministries, training institutions, NGOs and CBOs.

Tan, 2003: 5

#### **4.6.3.2 Discourse**

The key educational concepts in the Tanzania reports are integration, broad participation, collaboration, information sharing, networking, communication and awareness raising. These are found mainly in relation to informal, non-formal education and outreach. In the formal education field the discourse reflects a concern for infusion and incorporating and inclusion of environmental issues (Tan, 2001).

Education in its broadest sense is recognised as a pre-requisite for individual and national development [as] it is an important tool for either maintaining or transforming the status quo. Therefore Environmental Education is a life-long process that leads to an informed and involved citizen having the creative problem-solving skills, scientific, economic and social literacy in order to attain sustainable development. Thus it enables one to develop commitment to engage in responsible individual and cooperative actions that will ensure an environmentally sound and economically prosperous future.

Tan, 2005: 1

The discourse follows current sustainable development trends. There is talk of ensuring conservation and safeguarding the planet today and tomorrow, taking concerted actions to ensure the planet is habitable, taking the responsibility to pass skills and knowledge to future leaders to ensure they continue to maintain the planet's environment (Tan, 2001).

To encourage participation of all, education is seen as a very important tool (Tan, 2003). This plays out in both the formal and non-formal education activities and through participation of the stakeholders across the board. The various sectors take on various responsibilities. For instance, non-formal education is supported mainly by government, private sector and NGOs (Tan, 2002) through implementation of projects or through financial support of those projects. The cities and towns are now greener

and cleaner and they are aesthetically appealing (Tan, 2003). The sustainability thread is also seen in various processes like the ongoing assessment of effectiveness of the responses. There has been a review of sectoral policies (Tan, 2001), evaluation of awareness in four zones (Tan, 2005), and there have been reviews of the strategies for incorporating environmental issues in formal education. These formal education strategies have shifted from carrier subjects to infusion in all subjects at secondary / O levels. A new subject at primary level, *Maarifa ya Jamii, Stadi za Kazi* has been introduced (Tan, 2004).

There is a discourse that highlights the importance of information sharing and transparency. A proposed Environmental Management Bill strengthens the right to information and opens space for suing the government or any other “person” who fails to furnish necessary or required information for the sake of safeguarding the environment (Tan, 2004). Networking is another strong aspect of information sharing. For instance the aim of the Tanzania EE and Communication Association is to improve networking and dissemination of information and environmentally sound technologies (Tan, 2004).

Even with all the talk of integrated planning and development, there is still a challenge of building capacity with regard to mainstreaming of environmental concerns in sectoral plans, especially the challenge of linking environment to other cross-cutting issues like HIV/AIDS and gender. These are seen as very important as they have impacts on environment (Tan, 2005).

Evaluation shows an increase in activities addressing environmental issues in education which is a positive step as environmental education processes are seen as lifelong processes that lead to informed and involved citizens who are creative in problem solving (Tan, 2005).

#### **4.6.4 Broad Policy Actors and Power Relations**

##### **4.6.4.1 Actors and Knowledge**

Tanzania has maintained one Network Representative for more than five years. The Network Representative holds the position of Director of Environmental Information Communication and Outreach at NEMC. The Network Representative also sits on a

number of other sectoral panels like the Geography panel (Tan, 2001), actively oversees the coordination of all environmental education processes in country (Tan, 2003) and endorses reports by NGO representatives or other members of staff.

#### **4.6.5 Use of seed funding**

Tanzania used the bulk of its policy seed funding to develop the National Environmental EE Strategy through NEMC and to contribute to the UNDES. The amount to US\$ 6 800 and US\$ 3 684, respectively. Tanzania has therefore used US\$10 484 of the US\$ 14 000 that was available for policy processes.

### **4.7 THE EE POLICY STORY OF ZIMBABWE**

#### **4.7.1 Broad Policy Processes**

##### **4.7.1.1 Policy history**

The National Conservation Strategy (1987) was the first sustainable development policy put in place (Southern African Institute for Environment Assessment, 2003). As part of the Department of Natural Resources' overall response to general environmental degradation, the importance of environmental education and awareness raising and human and resource capacity building have been highlighted. These have been included in the various policy documents (Zim, 2001, 2002, 2003, 2004).

The need for environmental education policy was highlighted in the late 1990s when the 1998 Presidential Commission of Inquiry into education and training to review current education and training systems took place (Zim, 2002). To support the process, the IUCN NETCAB project held consultative national workshops to inform the start of the environmental education policy and strategy process. This was to be presented to the Ministry of Environment and Tourism (Zim, 2002).

Other parallel policy processes included the development of the Draft Environmental Management Bill which had a principle which stated that "... Environmental education, environmental awareness and the sharing of knowledge and experience must be promoted in order to increase the capacity of communities to address

environmental issues and engender values, attitudes, skills and behaviour consistent with sustainable environmental management” (Zim, 2002: 78).

This Bill was passed by Parliament in 2002. It became operational on 17 March 2003. Section 4(1)(a) of the Environmental Management Act Chapter 20:27 states that every person has a right to access environmental information.

The Environmental Education Policy and Strategy Recommendations for Zimbabwe, which took close to five years to develop, were approved by the Ministry of Environment and Tourism in 2004. However, there are National Environmental Policy and Strategies, which are still being finalized. The Cabinet Sub-committee recommended that it should be summarized (J. Gandiwa, personal communication, February 23, 2006).

The Ministry of Education seems still to be guided by the acknowledgement of the 1998 President’s Commission of Inquiry into Education and Training in Zimbabwe that it is important to educate people about environmental issues for achievement of sustainable development (Zim, 2002). It has yet to develop official policy on environmental education processes like Eco-Schools and Policy on Environmental Management for Schools, which are processes that have been run by schools and NGOs to strengthen environmental education policy at local level (Zim, 2002).

#### **4.7.1.2 Approach**

The Environmental Education Policy process was coordinated by the Zimbabwe Environmental Education Consultation Forum (ZEECF) (Zim, 2001), which is a multi stakeholder forum. The forum held a series of stakeholder participation workshops to gather policy recommendations. There were sector specific workshops involving environmental education Centres, Teacher Education Focus, Zimbabwe Environmental Forum, NGOs, Youth, and Community Based Organizations. The multi-sector workshops consisting of government, NGOs and industry included the following sectors: education, media, resource / information centre, arts and theatre (Zim, 2002). Further consultations were held between ZEECF and the Policy Working Group.



The Environmental Education Policy will be a guiding tool in the co-ordination of EE initiatives in the country. As at the end of the 2005 reporting period the policy had not been officially launched because the Ministry of Environment and Tourism envisaged a dual launch with the National Environmental Policy, which was being restructured following Cabinet recommendations for it to be summarized (Zim, 2005).

## **4.7.2 Broad Institutional Make-up**

### **4.7.2.1 Structure**

Zimbabwe has a number of structures that drive environmental education and awareness raising. These include non-governmental organizations like Zimbabwe Environmental Education Consultative Forum, Environmental Liaison Forum, and governmentally constituted institutions like the Curriculum Development Unit of the Ministry of Education and Culture and the Ministry of Environment and Tourism through its Department of Natural Resources (Zim, 2002).

The Minister of Environment and Tourism appointed the Environment Management Board in 2005 with a mandate to establish, manage, and supervise operations of the environmental Management Agency (Zim, 2005). The Agency shall house all institutions involved in environmental management. These include the Department of Natural Resources, the Water Pollution Unit within the Zimbabwe National Water Authority, and air pollution within the Health and Child Welfare ministry (Zim, 2005).

The institutions are plagued by high staff turnover (Zim, 2005): there have been four different Network Representatives in five years (personal observation).

### **4.7.2.2 Economic Capital**

With the rapidly declining economy in Zimbabwe, a number of environmental education activities are failing because of lack of funds (Zim, 2001). The government, through various institutions especially the Department of Natural Resources has previously funded, and still continues to fund, non-formal environmental education, awareness raising, capacity building and research initiatives. Non-formal education activities are also partly sponsored by organizations like UNDP (Zim, 2003).

The policy initiatives geared towards integrating environmental education in the formal education curriculum have been funded mostly through external funding. GTZ funded the Better Environmental Science Teaching (BEST) project to incorporate environmental concerns in science and technology education at primary school level. This project received seed funding from the SADC REEP to run workshops for the Student's Environmental Action Group and educators (Zim, 2002). IUCN has supported the creation of an enabling environment through NETCAB. This was a regional project to initiate environmental education processes at a national level.

VVOB, a Belgian development agency, has taken a leading funding role in integrating environmental issues in teacher training colleges through the Secondary Teacher Training Environmental Education Project (STTEEP) and SADC REEP has co-funded orientation workshops. The project was due to end in 2005 and at a workshop held in September 2005, the Ministry of Environment made commitments to institutionalize some of the activities (SADC REEP, 2005).

All environmental initiatives are facing budgetary constraints with the ever-escalating costs especially of resource production and running workshops compounded by the mass withdrawal of sponsors from Zimbabwe (Zim, 2005).

It has been indicated that the SADC REEP capacity building “criterion for accessing funds ... tended to exclude a lot of players who are not in formal education” (Zim, 2002: 71).

### **4.7.3 Broad Policy Context**

#### **4.7.3.1 Relationship between Fields**

The Zimbabwe EE Consultative Forum is a partnership with government, including Natural Resources, Education, Sport and Culture, Agriculture, Forestry Commission, NGOs, tertiary institutions like the National University of Science and Technology and individuals. As mentioned above, the Presidential Commission recommended integration of environmental education processes into all subjects in primary and secondary schools. This process has been aided by BEST focusing in primary schools (Zim, 2002), STTEEP working with the three secondary school teacher training

colleges (Zim, 2005) and the Higher Education Institutions strategizing on how to integrate environmental issues into curriculum.

The interaction between the environmental education field and other fields is still multi sectoral but needs to be synchronized with bigger policy frameworks (Zim, 2004). The Ministry of Environment and Tourism through its Department of Natural Resources in partnership with other sectors and ministries is holding activities on non-formal education and awareness raising like working with media including radio and national television which has given access to the broader populace through environmental programmes; producing policy supporting materials, and doing research that informs policy (Zim 2004, 2005). They also work closely with Farmers of the Future, a project that builds capacity for new farmers (Zim, 2003, 2004, 2005). The Department of Natural Resources has involved law enforcement officers, local authorities, traditional chiefs and judicial officers through eight provincial capacity building workshops, a product of triple alliance of Department of Natural Resources, Environment Africa a national NGO, and the Zimbabwe Environmental Law Association (Zim, 2005).

STTEEP has continued its work through workshops aimed at the orientation of lecturers on theory of education, practical subjects and national strategies studies, history and business studies (Zim, 2005).

Political support of environmental education policy can also be seen from the Government, which declared its support for the hosting of the EEASA 2006 Conference in Harare.

#### **4.7.3.2 Discourse**

Policy processes have been aided and prompted by national and international discourse. This includes the concepts of environmental management and sustainable development (Zim, 2005).

The 2002 Environmental Management Act has a principle that guides environment: Environmental education, environmental awareness and sharing of knowledge experience must be promoted in order to increase the capacity of communities to address environmental issues, and engender values, attitudes, skills and behaviour consistent with sustainable environmental management.

Zim, 2002: 78

This key discourse is seen in the activities stated below.

In 2001 the international impetus on Indigenous Knowledge discourse contributed to the review, development and use of materials for education and training (Zim, 2001). A review of these materials was done to link their relevance to present and future needs. This was triggered by the notion of environment being at the forefront of development and the importance of educating people about environmental issues through indigenous knowledge for achieving sustainable development. The *'Action Oriented Diary and Guide on Environmental Education Awareness'* uses special days to highlight environmental issues and issues of sustainability (Zim, 2005).

Capacity building workshops form part of lobbying various stakeholders in ensuring that every person has a right to access environmental information including environmental education. Part of the Environmental Management Agency's brief on environmental education processes is to synchronize and manage environmental education processes and not to create a "... command and control scenario..." (Zim, 2003: 106). The buy-in of all stakeholders is crucial partly because of the heavy reliance of the country's economy on natural resources.

Lately, the emerging trends seem to be motivated by the UN DESD. These are seen in various activities. The merging of institutions involved in environmental management is seen as a means of harmonizing environmental management including environmental education and therefore reducing duplication (Zim, 2005). The process has been strengthened by simplification of the EMA with a sector-specific focus which includes local authorities, littering, urban authorities, informal and small scale industrialist entrepreneurs, and farmers, and taking further the idea of an *Action Oriented Diary and Guide for Sustainable Livelihoods* (Zim, 2005).

There is mention of limited capacity to carry out the core activities of outreach programmes and environmental education because of budgetary constraints. This challenge is overcome through co-funding with other agencies hence taking forward the work through reducing operational costs and achieving economies of scale (Zim, 2005).

The Department of Natural Resources in collaboration with other stakeholders like Rural District Councils and government departments and quasi-government institutions is also carrying out environmental education awareness campaigns in all the country's 58 districts with a view to promoting public awareness and sharing of knowledge for the purpose of engendering in people values, skills and behaviour consistent with sustainable environmental management (Zim, 2005).

The above examples show how the role of stakeholder and government institutions outside formal education play out their role in non-formal education with key discourses being dominated by awareness raising, community outreach, capacity building, training and skills development for sustainable use of resources.

On the other hand, the dominant discourse in the formal education sector is seen in the activities below starting with the Presidential Commission of Inquiry into Education and Training in Zimbabwe to review the current education and training systems in relation to the present and future needs of the country (Zim, 2002). This commission acknowledged that it is important "... to educate people about the issues for achievement of sustainable development" (Zim, 2002: 78). The ensuing processes aimed at "integrating environmental education into the curriculum" (Zim, 2002: 78), "incorporating environmental education into the teacher training curriculum" and "mainstreaming of environmental education into the school syllabus for secondary schools" (Zim, 2005: n.p). These were supported by the development of learning and teaching support materials, orientation, training and skills development workshops.

#### **4.7.4 Broad Policy Actors and Power Relations**

##### **4.7.4.1 Actors and Knowledge**

Zimbabwe has had four Network Representatives in the last five years. However, it has been fortunate that there has been a thorough hand-over process each time. The Network representative is and has always been a Principal Natural Resources Officer in the Department of Natural Resources. There has been a strong lobby of environmental education practitioners from different sectors like the Ministries of Education, Higher Education, Agriculture, and NGOs (personal observation).

#### **4.7.5 Use of seed funding**

Zimbabwe used its policy seed funding for the UNDES workshop in 2005. This amounted to US\$ 1 409. Also in 2005 it used part of the seed funding (US\$ 2 972) for the Climate Change Country Project. As indicated earlier, Zimbabwe also benefited from the IUCN NETCAB funding to start the EE policy process in 2001. In total, Zimbabwe used US\$ 4 379 of the US\$ 14 000.

The Zimbabwe scenario is well captured in the following response to the questionnaire.

In my view, Zimbabwe has used SADC seed funding for EE policy processes because of the failure to mobilise internal financial resources for the exercise. Zimbabwe has been experiencing economic decline during the last few years and this has resulted in priorities being shifted to other socio-economic areas such as agriculture and health. In this regard, EE policy processes became heavily reliant on external sources of funding.

The challenges faced in EE policy development include withdrawal of funding from other external donors. The cost of printing the policy has also been prohibitive. However, the policy development process has given us the opportunity to fully involve other stakeholders and key ministries. Such cooperation has previously been lacking, especially between the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Environment and Tourism.

J. Gandiwa, personal communication, February 26, 2006

#### **4.8 CONCLUDING COMMENT**

This chapter has focused on the presentation of data generated from the research process. Using the stories of six countries it provides a profile of environmental education policy processes in the southern African region with respect to broad policy processes, history and approach, economies and politics of responsible institutions and actors, relationship between the fields of study involved in these processes and the discourse that influences how the policies are shaped and how they play out on the ground, including how the seed funding was used.

From the review of SADC REEP documents it emerged that there has been a strong call for regional and national environmental education policies. A further clarification of this call through the content analysis of annual environmental education country

reports, which capture what is happening on the ground, started to illuminate variances in the understanding of environmental education policy and its processes, in the discourse across the region, and in the capacity of the actors and agencies to effect the processes.

In Chapter 5 a more in-depth discussion of these findings is provided. This chapter links these findings to the issues that need to be considered when conceptualising environmental education policy projects in the southern African region.

## CHAPTER 5

### FACTORS INFLUENCING USE OF SEED FUNDING FOR ENVIRONMENTAL EDUCATION POLICY PROCESSES

*The purpose is not to collect bits and pieces of real life, but to place real-life events and phenomena into some kind of perspective...*  
(Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999: 139)

#### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter I analyze and discuss the findings in Chapter 4. In interpreting the findings I use analytic statements to consolidate the issues that emerged from the six vignettes of policy processes in southern Africa. The insights will be used in Chapter 6 to formulate recommendations that emanate from the study.

The analytic statements have been shaped by insights in the literature review in Chapter 2, the findings in Chapter 4, and my personal insights into the programme, its context and agents. These insights and inferences are grounded in, shaped by and limited by the research method, by the literature review and the insights that I have developed over the last four years of working within the programme. They were also shaped by discussions with critical friends and my supervisor whose experience in the sub-region lends a "... position of empathetic understanding" (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2002: 139).

The following analytical statements are meant to give insights into the research question, which is to understand factors which influenced the inadequate use of seed funding for environmental education policy processes in the SADC REEP (see Chapter 1). As indicated in Chapter 1, investigation of this research question was guided by two interrelated goals, which included an investigation of the factors that influence practitioners' engagement with environmental education policy processes and how seed funding is deployed and used in these processes.

#### 5.2 ANALYTIC STATEMENT 1:

**The design and definition of the project sub-component appear to be / have been based on inappropriate assumptions about environmental education policy development processes in member-states.**



The project policy assumptions are that “... policy issues are a priority at a national level ... and that ... capacity and need exists for policy processes ...” (SADC REEP, 2001: 28). I address this assumption in two ways, firstly by considering the assumptions about environmental education policy as priority, and secondly through a discussion on support mechanisms and spheres of influence.

### **5.2.1. Assumptions about environmental education policy as a priority**

As shown in the data reported in Chapter 4, tensions associated with national priorities do have an influence on how resources like the time, people and budgets are allocated to effect environmental education policy processes. The case of Malawi weakens the validity of the assumption that environmental education policy issues are a priority. As time passed other priorities like AIDS/ HIV issues and developmental issues have taken centre stage. Another pointer that suggests that environmental education holds a lower priority status is the length of time that these environmental education policy processes take before a concrete milestone is reached. The long time and the start-stop movement of these processes in all countries under review seem to point to the contrary of environmental education policy being a priority. This is evident in the Malawi, Namibia, Zimbabwe and South African cases. Agreeably, the reasons for starting and stopping were different in each country, but they all point towards the level of priority put on the process that influenced the time taken to reach any product that had national significance. An interesting dynamic shown up in various case studies was the adoption of environmental concerns into other mainstream education policy priorities, such as the development of the National Curriculum Statements in South Africa, and inclusion in qualifications development policy processes and the curriculum policy process in Namibia. This took place without a separate national environmental education policy being in place, which might indicate that it is not so much the fact that environmental issues are not seen as a priority, but rather their means of inclusion in the education policy agenda where an integration into education sector policies seems to be more workable, than a ‘separate broad policy’ as such.

Policy deals with legislative and regulatory or policy actions; it has the potential to effect action, as in the case of Botswana, South Africa and Tanzania. Policies are organisational statements or rules that are meant to influence behaviour. Because they

are often developed to respond to the perceived needs or desires of their constituents, policies can be conceived as mediators of intervention effects (Sallis, Bauman & Pratt, 1998). Clearly, in all the cases environmental concerns are perceived as necessary to include in national policy agenda, but what seems to show through the case studies is the many different ways in which this can be achieved in the education sector.

It would therefore seem that the assumption driving the policy component of the project was not nuanced enough. The fact that all countries considered in the case studies were engaged in various environmental education policy processes indicates that the perception that environmental education policy processes are necessary would seem to be correct. But *how* this is to be achieved in the complex terrain that constitutes environmental and education policy making, seems to be a weakness in the assumption guiding the project.

### **5.2.2 Support mechanisms and spheres of influence**

It seems that the support mechanisms for enabling the expected results of the policy sub-component were weak. This is seen in the actors, namely the National Environmental Education Network Representatives and government officials in both the environment and education ministries who were the Programme's conduit into the member states. The position, power, and or influence of these agents were at times not adequate to drive the necessary policy processes of national influence. Namibia points at the challenge of having young and inexperienced officials in Ministry of Environment and Tourism; similarly Malawi points at the lack of capacity in terms of the number of suitably trained and experienced personnel and financial resources to facilitate the implementation of environmental education and public awareness programmes (SOE, 2002). In Tanzania, seed funding supported the process of developing a National Environmental Education and Communication Strategy with success run jointly by the Ministry of Environment and Tourism and Ministry of Education. The key driving actors have a history of co-ordinating national initiatives. They also have a strong National EE Network, and there was stability in terms of the role of the National Network Representative allowing for continuity and depth of contribution. Reed raises this crucial point when he points to the need to consider

carefully the influence of meso-level actors in processes that are effected at macro-levels when designing projects (Reed, 2004).

With regard to the tools, the seed funding was the key tool for support of environmental education policy processes at a national level. The evidence in Chapter 4 shows that some inroads were made by the SADC REEP in supporting policy processes at local and meso-levels, like Eco-schools in South Africa, Schools' Environmental Policy in Botswana, National Fisheries College environmental education Policy in Malawi, and the process of consultations around environmental education that fed into the development of EEPI. But for the processes to actually reach the desired expectation of drawing on regional and global processes for the benefit of broad-based national processes, there has been limited success.

Seed funding as a means of effecting the expectation to have national environmental education policy processes appears to be an inappropriate tool for this level of policy making. There is an unstated assumption that one form of capital will attract other forms of capital. The size of the seed funding is not sufficient to attract the necessary other forms of capital that can influence projects at a macro level. The Danida-funded Lesotho Environmental Education Support Project (LEESP), Supporting Environmental Education in Namibia (SEEN), South African National Environmental Education Project for the General Education and Training (NEEP-GET), and the VVOB funded Secondary Teacher Training Environmental Education Project (STTEEP) in Zimbabwe, are examples of major national projects that were designed to integrate environmental education processes into the formal education curriculum in the southern African region. These pilot projects used over ZAR 75 million, that is, approximately US\$10.5 million in three years, the highest being the NEEP-GET at ZAR 32 million (approximately US\$ 4 million), while the SADC REEP seed funding was a mere US\$14 000 per country over a five-year period. The drying up of the funding for these Danida-funded pilot projects seems to have halted the processes pointing to the strong influence of economic capital required to influence policy processes substantively. This point is highlighted in the case of Zimbabwe (see section 4.7.5) and mentioned in the case of Botswana (see section 4.2.5). The seed funding therefore seemed suitable for bottom-up local level initiatives at micro- and meso-levels as opposed to processes at a national level.

However, in Malawi, where most of the environmental projects depend on donor funding, the seed funding was used to develop an environmental education policy for the National Fisheries College that in turn contributed to the overall National Fisheries policy of Malawi. It is relevant that the process had the support of the National Director of Fisheries, with whom the fisheries policy is based. Similarly, in Tanzania the seed funding was used to attract other means of capital like institutional buy-in of the department of education, the institutions of higher learning and major NGOs. This point links closely to the power of actors as mentioned above.

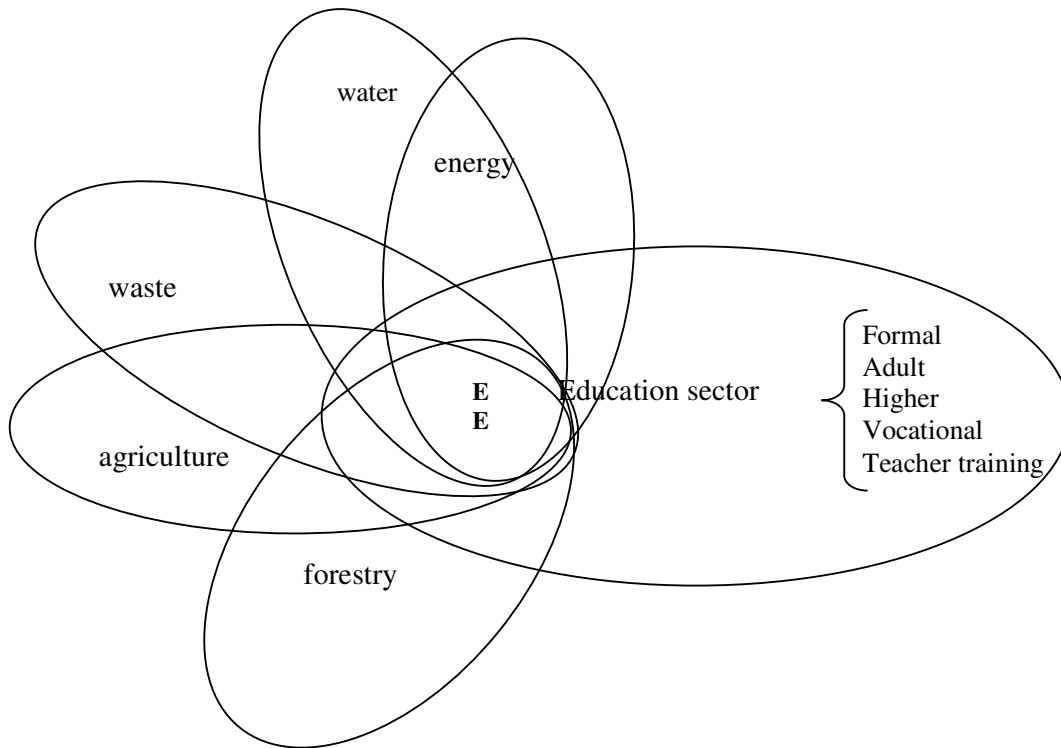
### **5.3 ANALYTIC STATEMENT 2:**

**It is difficult to influence policy change in a fragmented policy environment with dynamic and ever-changing policy content.**

#### **5.3.1 Understanding the complexity of a fragmented policy environment**

As shown in all of the case studies in Chapter 4, the environmental field and its driving policies are cross-cutting, multi-sectoral and multi-institutional. The supporting policies are in turn also embedded in a fragmented manner in numerous sectoral policies like water, forestry, agriculture, natural resources, and waste management, to name a few. This is evident in all cases as discussed in the sections on the history of policy development of the six vignettes in Chapter 4. Some of the environmental education takes place sectorally as awareness raising, professional development and materials development. This is seen in Chapter 4 in sections on discourse. The major responsibility for implementation of environmental education lies with the Ministry of Education, which also has a range of driving policy expectations, but in most cases the ‘seat of power’ for environmental education is located in the Ministries of Environment. The challenge of this plethora of sectoral policy instigators (see Figure 5 that follows) who are aiming to ensure the mainstreaming of their agenda through the Ministry of Education can be summed up as the need for infusing sectoral mandates into an integrated agenda that can be then implemented by the Ministry of Education. As shown in Chapter 4 achievement of this goal is highly complex.

This is not easily achieved as the education ministries are often split sectorally e.g. in Namibia there is Basic Education and Higher Education, or into different distinct directorates as in South Africa. The education sector also has a range of policy imperatives such as Education for All, HIV/AIDS policies, National Qualifications Frameworks, which the governments in southern Africa are struggling to implement. Sub-Saharan countries are still struggling with issues of access not to mention quality of education (UNESCO 2004).



**Figure 5: An illustration of a plethora of fragmented environmental agenda impacting on a complex education sector**

Attempts to coordinate this complex agenda are seen in Botswana, Tanzania and Zimbabwe through the National Environmental Education Network Committees, and in South Africa through the establishment of a National Environmental Education Programme in 2000 (an initiative which was not sustained after donor funding ceased). However, in places like Malawi and Namibia, where the coordinating structures seem to be weak, environmental education policies have amounted to little more than a scatter of activities, which were not effectively coordinated as mentioned

in the case of South Africa and Namibia, or which are moving very slowly as gleaned in the case of Zambia. Although Zambia was not one of the six SADC countries that formed the detailed vignettes, the first layer of data gathering and analysis pointed to the latter point. The Zambian National Environmental Education Programme where the driving force is Zambia Network of Environmental Practitioners and external to any government structures (ECZ, 2001). Unless there is a strong driving actor internal to the Ministry of Education, the challenges appear to persist.

### **5.3.2 Understanding complexities of a dynamic policy content**

In Chapter 2, I reported that environment is a new and highly evolving field that has moved from understanding of nature to understanding the environment broadly within a multi-dimensional framework for environment (involving interactions between the social, economic, political and biophysical spheres). In addition the environmental discourses have changed to include a futures perspective, and a concern for the path of human development. This is articulated in sustainable development discourse, with its educational aspect currently named 'Education for Sustainable Development', as promoted by the UN Decade on Education for Sustainable Development. Chapter 2 also reported on how these emerging insights and discourses remain contested, due in part to the complexity of the issues and solutions involved (see section 2.2.2). The SADC REEP is housed in the Food Agriculture and Natural Resources directorate in the SADC Secretariat whose mandate is to ensure capacity for sustainable use of resources. This articulates well with most countries where the Ministries of Environment are lead agents. However, the stream of regional and global educational agreements, mandates and commitments that drive this sector and its bodies led by UNEP and UNDP are different from the regional and global mandates that drive the education sector whose lead agent is UNESCO.

The challenges of implementing environmental education are therefore compounded by firstly, the dynamics of the other fields that impact on it, namely social and economic capital, which are not necessarily aligned with environmental capital, leading to contested environmental management policies and visions for change (as in the sustainable development discourse); secondly, the culturalisation of the implementing agencies and their structures; and thirdly, the dynamics of policy development processes. In this milieu of complexity, the SADC REEP, which is

mainly supporting an enabling environment for these policy processes, seems to lack capacity to guide the open-endedness of its orientation. There seems to be a mismatch firstly, between the understanding of what is and what is not an environmental education policy process (see sections on discourse in Chapter 4); secondly, clarity regarding the regional needs in order to enable the policy processes as discussed in section 5.2.1; and thirdly, the capacity of actors and institutions. As evidence of the first problem outlined above, in reviewing data on environmental education policy processes I found that most of the information was scattered in reporting on other sub-components like networking, resource materials and training. Understandably, these components influence and support each other and policy is often implicated or embedded in other processes, particularly when agents are more active at the implementation level.

Compounding the complexity of fragmentation is the discourse around environmental education policy: whether to infuse, as in Botswana, or to make environmental education integral to the curriculum as in South Africa, as can be seen in the discourse sections of Chapter 4. The discourse plays a deep role in shaping the actions and the necessary capacity and resources. There seems to be limited awareness of these shaping discourses in the reporting of the country Network Representatives from year to year and within each report. It is not clear if this confusion in the discourse is a result of the confused discourse at ground level, or whether it is the limited understanding of the individuals writing the reports, and how much impact it has had in the mainstreaming of environmental education. It might also point to insufficient clarity or guidance from the SADC REEP in terms of this sub-component of the programme, hence the subject of this research.

The principles orientating the SADC REEP sub-component on policy acknowledge the diverse political and education systems in the region and the many levels at which policy may be developed (SADC REEP, 2001). They have been described as allowing open-ended processes. However, the Programme raises the bar when defining the expected results from providing seed-funding criteria: ‘initiatives that would draw on national and regional expertise, that enable policy processes... focusing on policy development and implementation at national level but drawing and sharing at a regional level’ (SADC REEP, 2001: 18). The expectation was to have significant

initiatives that enabled the development and implementation of environmental education policy and strategy supported at national level. It therefore makes it difficult to determine the successes of the component especially when the activities are geared towards national outputs.

### **5.3.3 Introducing policy changes is a huge resource commitment**

Policies are considered socio-cultural influences that can promote and sometimes demand certain actions (Sallis, Bauman & Pratt, 1998). The NEEP-GET process in South Africa, LEESP, STTEEP in Zimbabwe, and SEEN are evidence of transformational implications and the magnitude of structural requirements for introducing policy changes. These include training, development of support materials, reviewing structures and reorientation of institutional culture, all of which are resource intensive processes. It is then worth asking if the timing of environmental education policy processes was correct, and whether the commitment of the member states to the global agreements and policy processes is matched by their ability to commit to transformational requirements. In response to the scope of the changes needed to implement environmental education policy, and the resource intensity of such processes, some countries like Botswana and Namibia have opted for environmental education guidelines that are housed within the curriculum section of the ministry rather than a higher-level policy change. A similar move was made in South Africa to integrate environmental education into the National Curriculum Statements in the General and Further Education Bands, thus locating it within existing policy initiatives.

### **5.4 ANALYTIC STATEMENT 3:**

**There appears to be a mismatch between existing national agency's capacity and structural make-up and the global and regional policy change expectations.**

The recent democratization of SADC member states has created spaces for democratic processes to influence educational processes. The evidence of multi-sectoral and multi-organizational input in shaping the education field is an example of democratization whose processes are developing rapidly. However, it appears that the



human capacity, culturalisation of institutions, economical capital and the resultant balance of power are not developing at the same pace. The structural dynamics and capacity of the institutions, specifically the lead institutions within which environmental education policy is housed, seem mismatched with the policy change expectations. In all ministries of environment, the priority is environmental management, which would then be supported by capacity building and awareness raising which are only a small part of environmental education policy expectations. In the country reports, some representatives write in more detail about policy than others. Examples of the more detailed accounts are Botswana, Mauritius, South Africa and Zimbabwe. With some reports, there seems to be some uncertainty regarding what is seen as policy. As mentioned, information on the various categories and sub-categories of policy is reported on in sub-components that fall outside the policy category. These are mainly networking and training. This disparity points to a mismatch between understanding the landscape of activity, and hence the Programme design seems not to formulate accurate expectations from the focal points who form a large part (voice) of the Programme's source of environmental education coordination, that hence shapes the expectations in the SADC REEP's policy subcomponent. One starts seeing the dynamics of the power of policy as a structured structure which would give agencies power for leverage around mainstreaming of environmental education versus the regional expectation of policy as a structuring structure. Bourdieu articulates this as structured constructivism (see section 2.5.1).

The ever emerging and changing global policy context of environmental education as seen in the recent declaration of the UN DESD, Agenda 21, and the Millennium Development Goals requires much broader and higher levels of influence than what the current lead structures of environmental education at national levels appear to have. Their ability to respond to these global expectations seems limited, which then causes an axis of tension between SADC REEP's mandate to provide regionalized support using the global and regional mandates while the national cultures and capacity are restrictive. The SADC REEP's 2005 bottom-up process of developing guidelines for participating in the UN DESD indicated high-level buy-in as far as starting the process, that is, investigating what would be necessary (SADC REEP home page). However, the processes then stalled at the stage of actualizing in terms of strategies and the necessary commitment. To date Swaziland is the only country that

has developed a National Strategy for ESD, while other countries have implemented various relatively fragmented environmental education policy processes, as shown in Chapter 4.

As environmental education policy processes and the recent DESD consultations led by the SADC REEP have emanated from the natural resources sector, to be implemented by the education sector, the capacity to form sustainable partnerships with the education sector seems to be an ongoing area of difficulty. This seems to link to section 5.2.2 where the implications of implementation are much bigger than the national agencies' capacity. This also links to the capacity of other agencies that are crucial in the driving of global and regional policy mandates. UNESCO, which is the lead agent of UN DESD process, has, to date not been able to release substantive funding or support for country-based ESD policy processes, despite their global mandate to support countries. Their progress has, therefore been relatively slow in relation to the expectations of the UN DESD. Most countries have recently undergone educational transformation where environmental education concerns could have been substantively integrated (as some have done, if partially). UNESCO (2004) recently reported that environmental education is one of the fastest growing curriculum change areas around the world, along with technology. Data in Chapter 4 indicates that many countries in southern Africa are struggling to establish and develop the capacity and the structural make-up to respond to the rapidly evolving global and regional policy change expectations that aim to influence national agendas. In South Africa, the establishment of the lifelong education process seems to provide solutions to this challenge of capacity of the key national agencies to respond to global agenda but the systems enabling lifelong learning are not functioning well.

Another factor to consider in relation to this analytical statement is the status and functioning of development aid, which, according to the Rio Earth Summit and WSSD agreements were meant to release 7% of rich country Gross Domestic Product to support developing countries to implement global agenda's such as the ones set out in Agenda 21 of the Rio Earth Summit, and the Johannesburg Implementation Plan emanating from the WSSD (out of which the UN Decade of Education for Sustainable Development emerged). As shown in various development reports, the release of this funding has not materialised, with only a few countries allocating a small percentage

of their GDP for these purposes (Lotz-Sisitka, 2004). As can be seen from all of the cases in Chapter 4, innovations in policy such as environmental education policy are highly dependent on external funding, and in all the cases, there was evidence of how the short term, essentially unreliable nature of donor funding contributed to the establishment of some aspects of environmental education policy, but failed to sustain its implementation. This would therefore also seem to be a key factor in relation to global expectations, which are underfunded, or unfunded mandates, as is the case with the UN DESD which has not secured substantive funding to support nation states or regional organisations to implement the mandate.

## **5.5 CONCLUDING COMMENTS**

The SADC REEP seems to have been able to support initiation of, and the sowing of seeds of environmental education policy processes in the region. However, full actualisation of the processes seems beyond the Programme's scope. This therefore points towards a careful conceptualisation of the policy sub-component of the programme and its subsequent projects, its assumptions based on real need and real capacity, and hence the foci of policy activities including the enabling mechanisms. The open-endedness of the Programme makes it difficult to sum up successes of the policy component as its activities fall within other sub-components or have succeeded at a local or meso-levels and not sufficiently at macro-levels.

From five years of personal involvement in the SADC REEP, it has been observed that the capacity building has mostly been directed at individuals with the view that they would then start influencing their organizations. These beneficiaries of capacity building were middle management professionals who did not wield sufficient influence in the institutional hierarchy, as shown by the fluctuation of the Network Representatives, and the level of engagement with policy processes seeded by the SADC REEP funding.

The 2005 evaluation of the SADC REEP found the policy objective to be open-ended because "policy can be influenced in various ways, not all of which can be planned for, despite the rational frameworks of Research-Develop-Disseminate-Adopt often

suggested for policy processes” (Rosenberg, 2005: 68). This, she points out to be a challenge in ascertaining effectiveness of the policy objective (ibid.).

The final chapter that follows now provides recommendations based on the insights that have emerged. Chapter 6 also provides a reflection on the overall process of the study, including a critique of the methods, their usefulness and limitations within the context of the study. This is followed by concluding comments.

## **CHAPTER 6**

### **RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION**

*The relatability of a case study is more important than its generalisability.*

(Bassey, 1981: 85)

#### **6.1 INTRODUCTION**

In this chapter I outline and discuss the recommendations that have emanated from the reflections on the study. The study sought to give insights to factors which contribute to environmental education practitioners' engagement with environmental education policy processes within the context of the SADC Regional Environmental Education Programme, through investigating what factors influence practitioners' engagement with environmental education policy processes and how seed funding is deployed and used in these processes.

In deliberating on the recommendations I took cognizance of the analytic statements in Chapter 5; the scope of the study, its limitations and strengths, and; the context of the case study, that is the SADC REEP. I also propose areas for further research that the study did not probe deeply but which do merit interrogating to strengthen the understanding of the context of environmental education policy within the SADC member states. This further research could also assist with sharpening the role that the SADC REEP should play in enabling environmental education policy processes. Towards the end I reflect on the whole study at a macro level.

#### **6.2 SUMMARY OF STUDY**

The study took place within the context of the SADC Regional EE Programme, which operates in the 14 SADC member states in southern and east Africa. Although the SADC REEP supports environmental education through Training, Networking, Resource Materials, and Policy, the study focuses only on the policy sub-component because of the challenges that the SADC REEP has experienced with reaching its stated expectations of this particular component.

The study was done within a qualitative interpretative paradigm using a case study methodology where developments in the policy component of the SADC REEP were reviewed. A nested case method was used resulting in case vignettes of six member states focusing on the policy sub-component. These were developed through content analysis of the annual National Environmental Education Network reports spanning five years, 2001 to 2005. In the study I also drew on my six years experience of working as the SADC REEP Manager.

There are three key findings of the study. The first one is that the design and definition of the project policy sub-component appears to have been based on inappropriate assumptions about environmental education policy development processes in member-states (see section 5.1). This in turn affected the mechanisms for supporting the environmental education policy sub-component. The second finding is that it is difficult to influence policy change in a fragmented policy environment that is characterized by dynamic and ever-changing policy content (see section 5.2). The third one is that there appears to be a mismatch between existing national agency's capacity and structural make-up and the global and regional policy change expectations (see section 5.3).

### **6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS**

The recommendations are made in line with the overall aim of the study, that is, they are not intended to make generalizations about environmental education policy processes in the region and beyond, but to deepen the understanding of the SADC REEP, its policy sub-component, and particularly its use of seed funding as a strategy to support environmental education policy processes. There are three key recommendations, based on the three key findings in Chapter 5.

Recommendation 1:

**It is important that future SADC REEP project-design decisions relating to environmental education policy be grounded in in-depth contextual analysis.**

This is specifically in relation to broad-based analysis of the policy landscape in the region; a strategic analysis of the role of environmental education policy and expected

results in the region; an analysis of the levels of intervention that would have the necessary capital to effect the processes to a full circle; and the analysis of the complexity of policy processes and content. This analysis will assist to clarify assumptions, expected outcomes and hence activities.

Recommendation 2:

**It would be fruitful for the SADC REEP to consult more closely with the institutions that initiate and those that implement environmental education policies at regional and national levels.**

A process involving this kind of consultation would harmonize the agendas of policy initiators and capacity of implementers. This is crucial in view of the context of multiple actors, institutions and sectors that initiate, influence and or implement environmental education policy. It is also important with regard to their capacity to understand environmental education policy processes holistically, and the capacity to respond to the financial, cultural and human capital commitments to which the policy as a product would bind them, as alluded to in section 5.2.2.

Recommendation 3:

**As a regional organization, the SADC REEP needs to clarify its role and niche in brokering between the capacity and structural make-up of the national agencies and the expectations created by global and regional policy changes.**

This recommendation addresses an issue similar to the fragmented policy initiators and implementer dilemma reported on in section 5.2.2. However, the fragmentation issue addressed here is vertical that is, global, regional and national. The external policy influences and expectations come from different lead agencies at a global and regional level which feed into national agencies that are not necessarily the most appropriate lead agents at the national level as reported in section 5.2.3. Furthermore, the institutional and actors' capacity of the national lead agencies to respond to the plethora of policy change expectations has been reported as limited. At the very least it would seem that the SADC REEP should in future engage both the environmental ministries and the educational ministries equally in dialogues on environmental

education / ESD policies, as these both have responsibilities for translating and considering global and regional agendas at national levels.

Recommendation 4:

**It seems prudent for SADC REEP to focus its policy support efforts at meso-levels and put in place clearly articulated mechanisms of measuring success holistically.**

The SADC REEP seems to have some successes in influencing institutional policy processes at a meso-level. This is an indication of its strengths in building capacity institutionally (see section 5.2.3). However, it will need to build in a mechanism of measuring the successes of the many activities against the overall expectations of the sub-component. It will not be enough to report on the products but there would need to be a consolidation that reflects the outcome of these activities with respect to the overall thrust of the environmental education policy processes required in response to national, global and regional dynamics.

## **6.4 RECOMMENDATION FOR FURTHER RESEARCH**

### **6.4.1 The issue of the actors and networks needs to be probed further**

The study points towards a connection between some successes in SADC REEP supported environmental education policy processes and the existence of strong functional national network structures as seen in the cases of Botswana, Zimbabwe, South Africa, and Tanzania. However, it is not clear whether it is because of the actors within the networks or whether because of better-structured and resourced networks.

### **6.4.2 The SADC REEP's open-ended approach to policy processes needs to be probed further**

There is a need to further probe the issue the SADC REEP's open-ended approach to supporting the policy sub-component. There seems to be a need to articulate a means of monitoring and consolidating the successes of the SADC REEP with respect to the support of environmental education policy processes. The Programme seems to have a



number of success stories that it has influenced through being responsive. However, these seem not to have national coverage, although they form an important building block towards national influence.

## **6.5 REFLECTIONS ON THE STUDY**

This section reflects on how the methodology was applied and how it worked out in the study with special attention paid to the limitations of the research.

The study is a case story of the SADC REEP policy focused by the use or non-use of policy related seed funding and shaped by the reports written by National Environmental Education Network Representatives. While extensive in number (65 reports), this limited scope of reports might have limited the insights that emerged. As indicated in Chapter 3 there was a need to supplement these reports with other data from other reports, interviews, member checking and e-mail communications. Also, a larger number of interviews and questionnaires might have been more useful to strengthen the validation of the findings.

As a researcher and player in the case story, I feel that my insights into the project might have created blind spots despite the use of various triangulation tools.

The study has taken a long time to finish with long periods of dormancy. The data used has been limited to the period 2001-2005/6, and yet the analysis took place mainly in the latter part of 2007. There is a strong possibility that in the interim the context might have changed significantly in terms of the agents, institutions and other factors. Therefore, caution needs to be exercised in using the findings. Despite the timing of data collection and analysis, the study still holds validity as the phase of using seed funding to support policy processes in the SADC REEP reported on in this study came to an end in 2007, with a new three year programme starting up in April 2008. In this context, the lessons learned from the previous phase of the SADC REEP work on environmental education policy can usefully inform planning for the future work on policy in the SADC REEP.

## **6.6 CONCLUDING COMMENT**

The recommendations can be summarised as follows. There is a need for more in-depth contextual analysis of the region in order to inform assumptions, expectations and hence mechanisms and agencies most suited to respond to the needs. There is also scope for further research on two issues that arose: the capacity of agencies, that is, their support structures and networks; and the issue of the SADC REEP's open-ended principle, specifically, how one relates the Programme's success to the originally stipulated outputs and outcomes as found in the project documents.

The study has not been designed to generalize about policy processes but to give insights into the SADC REEP policy support component. With that in mind, it is hoped however, that users of this research will be able to relate to the insights and recommendations when reflecting about their own projects and programmes, and that the study has provided some useful insights into issues associated with environmental education policy development in southern African countries. Its value lies in coverage across more than one country, albeit at a relatively broad level. What was significant in this study was the clear patterns that emerged highlighting issues associated with environmental education policy processes (i.e. multi-sectorality, diverse discourses, unreliable economic capital, capacity of actors and institutions), which could be taken further in future in other studies. As indicated in Chapter 2, these need to be seen within a broader process of social re-orientation towards sustainability where societies around the world are all engaging in various policy initiatives to re-orient their societies in such a way that environmental concerns are incorporated into social governance processes. As shown in the cases examined in this study, southern African countries are also implicated in this broader global process of social change and re-orientation.

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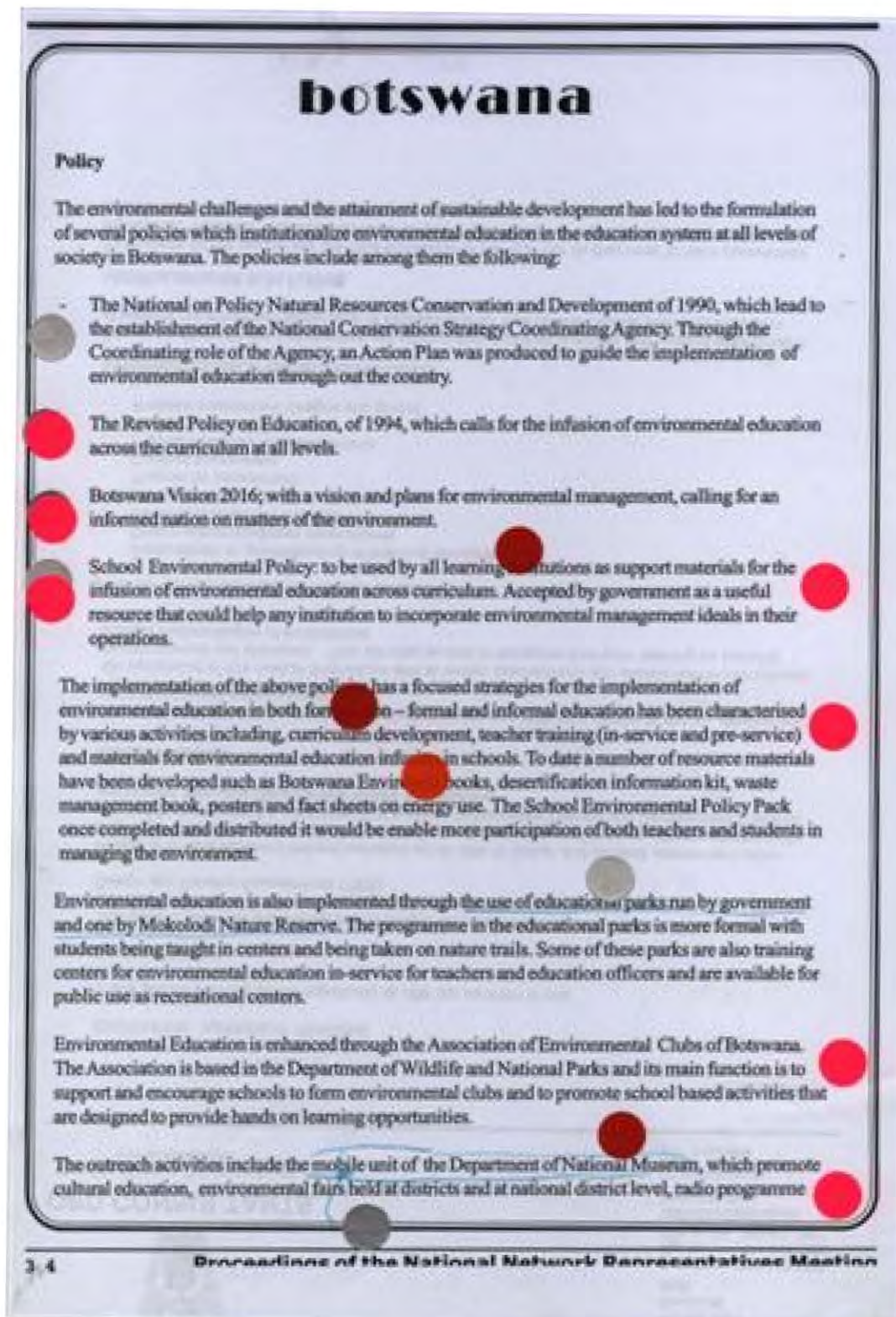
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## APPENDIX 1: SAMPLES OF THE COLOUR-CODED REPORTS







## REPORT FROM LESOTHO

### INTRODUCTION

As a direct response to Agenda 21, Lesotho launched a National Action Plan to implement Agenda 21 in May 1994. The plan set Environmental Education at all levels as a priority. In 1989, Lesotho was the first country in the region to commit itself to the development of the National Environment Action Plan (NEAP). NEAP laid down the foundation for the establishment of a body that should coordinate the environmental issues in the country. The coordinating body recommended by NEAP the National Environment Secretariat, was established in 1994. The plan provided a framework for integration of environmental consideration into planning and decision-making process for social and economic development. According to Action 4.6 on page 47 of the National Strategy and Action Plan, awareness-raising programmes are recommended. The plan assisted in identification of major environmental problems and policy, institutional and legislative constraints and proposed action programmes to resolve the pitfalls.

Environmental Education is cross-sectoral and involves all aspects of life and was identified by SADC policy as one of the strategies to be employed to ensure environmental sustainability. The National Environment Secretariat (NES) through its Education and Outreach division is responsible for coordination of all Environmental Education action plans implemented by various stakeholders through the National Environmental Education Committee (NEEC).

As a lead agency for environmental management in Lesotho, NES promotes socio-economically and environmentally sustainable developments in the country. In pursuance of this mandate, NES is committed to empower and create awareness among local communities and other stakeholders on conservation of the country's environment to achieve sustainable development.

### NETWORKING

Since environmental issues are multi-faceted, networking is therefore of paramount importance to ensure good environmental management. In Lesotho, networking has been realized through the establishment of the environmental units in all line ministries and other organizations that have a stake on environmental matters. These environmental units (40) were trained in different aspects of environmental management through DANCED support under the project called Capacity Building on Environmental Management. The project ended in October, 2002. Although, this was a good initiative, environmental units do not seem to perform their roles as expected. It is important that environmental units are strengthened and given clearly defined terms of reference geared towards environmental management.

The other response to the need for collaboration is through the establishment of a National Environmental Education Committee. However, committee meetings are not held regularly. There is a need to enrich collaboration between the government institutions and NGOs.



## APPENDIX 2: A SAMPLE OF THE SYSTEMATIC SUMMARY OF THE REPORTS

| Country       | themes     | institutional                                                                                        |                                                         | Actors and power elations                 |            | Policy processes                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                       |                                                      | Broader context                                                                                                                                                  |                                                                      |
|---------------|------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------|------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------|
|               |            | Structures                                                                                           | Economic Capital                                        | status and identity                       | knowl edge | history                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                | approach                                             | relationship between fields                                                                                                                                      | Discourse                                                            |
| Botswana 2001 | Bots, 2001 | Ministry of Lands, Housing and Environment<br>National Conservation Strategy<br>Coordination Agency; | National EE Support fund;<br>partnership s e.g. DANCED; | Netrep and EE a section within the Agency |            | Conservation strategy supported by Natural Resources Conservation and Development (1990); and constitution; National EE Action Plan (1997-2003); revision of Education Policy (1994); vision 2016; Strategy for Waste Management (1998); National Water Plan (1992), – | Government coordinates; partnership / collaboration; | Education, Department of Curriculum Development and Evaluation; Local Govt; management, National museums; media; and NGOs, parastatals & others like NEEC; BEEN; | create awareness; cooperation; inclusion of ee in school curriculum; |

| <div> <div>themes</div> <div>Country</div> </div> |           | institutional |                                                                                                                                                                                                                            | Actors and power elations |            | Policy processes |                                                                     | Broader context                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                |                                                                                                                                                                                               |
|---------------------------------------------------|-----------|---------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------|------------|------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
|                                                   | Coding    | Structures    | Economic Capital                                                                                                                                                                                                           | status and identity       | knowl edge | history          | approach                                                            | relationship between fields                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                    | Discourse                                                                                                                                                                                     |
| 2002                                              | Bots 2002 | as above      | NEECC National EE Coordinati ng Committee fund to support networking by linking NEEC and schools; SADC REEP funded process for adaptation of SEP; booklet for establishin g clubs; BEEN not effective as funding is scarce |                           |            | as above         | schools environmental policy; implementatio n across the curriculum | Ministry of Education and Schools environmental policy packs; Department of National museum; Schools broadcasting Unit of MoE; Association of Environmental Clubs of Botswana in Wildlife & Natural Parks ; use of education parks run by Ministry of Wildlife; e.g. Mokolodi Nature park; BEEN for networking | formal and informal education; infusion starting in-service teachers; creating an informed nation on matters of environment; Outreach by DoMuseums; promotion of sustainable use of resources |

| Country \ themes |        | institutional                                                                                |                                                                                                                                         | Actors and power elations |           | Policy processes                                                                                                                                                                                                                |                                                                                                                                                                      | Broader context                                                                                                                                                          |                                                                                                                                                                                           |
|------------------|--------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------|-----------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
|                  | Coding | Structures                                                                                   | Economic Capital                                                                                                                        | status and identity       | knowledge | history                                                                                                                                                                                                                         | approach                                                                                                                                                             | relationship between fields                                                                                                                                              | Discourse                                                                                                                                                                                 |
| 2003             | B 2003 | same as above;                                                                               |                                                                                                                                         |                           |           | no specific ee policy;                                                                                                                                                                                                          | institutionalisation of ee; improving aspect like networking; (acknowledgement of policy as a process)                                                               | multisectoral and multi-sectoral; e.g. NCSA, Min of LG; Dep of ES @ UB; Local Authorities ran LA21, EIA etc courses                                                      | encourage and support school based hands on activity and networking; CBNRM; need for IK promotion                                                                                         |
| 2004             | B 2004 | Same as above<br>Environmental Liaison officer a lower layer of NCSA and in other ministries | call for policy with appropriate funding for effective implementation. EE support fund still functional for individuals & institutions; |                           |           | Still no specific ee policy but embodied in sectoral and related policies as above including National Museum and Monuments Policy (2004) – cultural education, EMA has no clear or strong legislative back-up; coordination not | intra-sectoral ; intersectoral coordination and hub & spoke; There is mixed success; need to review current NCS Natural resources Policy; <b>call for EE policy;</b> | materials to support policy; networking extended to National Library services; SEP; EEU of UB running in-service courses through CDN SADC REES ; colleges of education . | demonstration pilots e.g. ST and adopted school Thlabalogo Primary School; awareness raising; disseminate information (posters, video); empowering of pre-service teachers with workshops |

| Country \ themes |            | institutional                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                   |                                                                                                               | Actors and power elations |                                                                            | Policy processes                                                  |                                                                                                                                                               | Broader context                                                                   |                                                                                                                                                                                                                   |
|------------------|------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
|                  | Coding     | Structures                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                      | Economic Capital                                                                                              | status and identity       | knowl edge                                                                 | history                                                           | approach                                                                                                                                                      | relationship between fields                                                       | Discourse                                                                                                                                                                                                         |
|                  |            |                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                 |                                                                                                               |                           |                                                                            | smooth as envisaged; National policy on NGO (2004); EMA drat 2004 |                                                                                                                                                               |                                                                                   |                                                                                                                                                                                                                   |
| 2005             | Bots, 2005 | Environmental Liaison Officers structure not working well ( <u>why?</u> ) <b>task force to review EE Action Plan (1997-2003)</b> need for capacity in Agency; establishment of ee panel by MoE which oversees the infusion of ee into curriculum; UB EEU human capacity limits (numbers and \$) | funding for KCS and EEASA; NEECC threatened by insufficient funds – limits expansion of network and projects; |                           | need to create more knowl edge; howe ver emph asis on aware ness raisin g; | EIA Act (2005)                                                    | SEP for all schools launched by Minister of Education; ST pursuing a campaign to develop a plastics policy; EMA expected to empower the department of env; ST | NEEC seeks broader representation; KCS supporting especially attendance of EEASA; | collaboration; networks; propagation of ee for all; challenge of integrating EIA act into curriculum; need for continuous monitoring of strategy; ee policy give “emphasis it deserves”; UB courses are optional; |

**APPENDIX 3: THE OPEN-ENDED QUESTIONNAIRE – the Malawi example**

-----Original Message-----

**From:** sadc-reec [mailto:sadc-reec@wessa.co.za]

**Sent:** Thursday, February 16, 2006 9:49 PM

**To:** Yunes Agabu; Allan Kaziputa; Dick Daffu

**Subject:** Policy processes in malawi

Dear Colleagues

As you know, I am writing my MEd thesis on factors that influence success or failure of policy development at National level. This is in relation to the SADC REEP seed funding for policy.

I have compiled a 7 paged vignette of Malawi using the 2001 to 2005 Country Reports of the SADC REEP Net Rep meetings. This is enclosed.

May I please request you to read and make comments where you feel the my capturing of information incorrectly, especially because I have used your reports. The (Mal 2001 - 5) etc are the codes I have used for the reports. I have also triangulated with the SOE of 2002. The names of the report compilers will not appear unless you prefer so.

I would also like your views on the following question. (please be as open as possible and let me know if you want the comment to be anonymous)

1 Why has the Malawi used / not used the seed funding for policy processes

2 What are the challenges and / opportunities you have encountered in pushing for ee policy

I would greatly appreciate your written response. However, if you prefer me to phone, please let me know.

Thank you

Mumsie Gumede



**APPENDIX 4: THE OPEN-ENDED QUESTIONNAIRE – some examples  
of responses**

Mumsie,

Well, "high level commitment" is manifested in action. For example, a quick response to your request for comments, as I did (ha, ha!). This is where top officials, say in government, will go all the way to support such actions related to say, EE. This will include endorsing the activities aimed at instituting EE policy; endorsing the EE policy itself, and getting it formally included in the government legislative instruments as a legal tool. In the case of Fisheries EE Policy, the Department of Fisheries has shown its "high level commitment" by undertaking to review its training curriculum to include EE, although the mother Department (DEA) did not really support us.

On the other hand, the Government of Malawi showed "high level commitment" by embracing issues of environmental management by putting in place the Environmental Management Act, as well as establishing the Department of Environmental Affairs (DEA).

Issues of environmental management are not easy because while you are striving for economic development, you undertake activities which may be detrimental to the environment. Therefore, having legislations and legal instrument to do with environment means that government are committed at high level, to deal with environmental degradation.

Sorry for the delay in responding to your e-mail, I have been very busy over the past week because we were launching the Presidential Initiative on Aquaculture Development (PIAD), The President of the Republic of Malawi came to Mangochi on 23 February to undertake the launch himself, so it kept me on my feet.

I hope I have been of help.

Best regards,

Sloans

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----- Original Message -----

**From:** [smosidi@mweb.co.za](mailto:smosidi@mweb.co.za)

**To:** [Mumsie Gumede](#)

**Sent:** Tuesday, February 21, 2006 11:22 AM

**Subject:** ESD

Sorry to come to you this late. It is hectic this side and you are luck that yours is replied at. As you now is few days to election 2006. Nevertheless, here is my opinion:

**1 Why has South Africa used the seed funding for policy processes?**

One need to look at the historical perspective and situation then. It was just at the dawn of New SA and there was much expectation from the citizen for service delivery and change of life and on the other hand RSA as a new country was an opportunity for countries with Green agenda or any other policy to influence policy development. Thus much resources were put forward to provision of infrastructure, housing, water and sanitation. Much of policy development process receive funding from donors. Much policy development processes received funds from EU and DANCED/DANIDA with strong links to environment. It should not be perceive that no funding or counter funding was budgetted for, there was funding but much was received especially for participative processes.

As I indicated, the environmental issues then were at the background of government priorities while donor funding was available as many perceive SA transition as a miracle and stable area to invest resources in.

**2 What are the challenges and / opportunities you have encountered in pushing for ee policy?**

There were many and still are:

- 1.The issue of donor funding. Much of the funds return back due to donor funder's condition to employ foreign consultant
2. The issue of public participation, long tiring and lead to change of focus
- 3.It helps, as it provided opportunity and unity within the ee community

We could talk as there are several issues.

Sorry for this hasty respond

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*"The Pessimist Complains about the wind, the Optimist expects it to change, the Realist sets his sails accordingly".*

----- Original Message -----

**From:** [Eureta Rosenberg](#)

**To:** [sadc-reec](#) ; [S.M. Mosidi](#)

**Sent:** Friday, February 17, 2006 3:57 PM

**Subject:** Re: Policy Case Story of South Africa

Hi Mumsie,

I'll start with your questions below, then go to the attached file if I have time remaining. I'm not so confident that I have all the necessary details for the latter, Solly will almost certainly be better placed for correcting any errors.

## 1 Why has South Africa used the seed funding for policy processes?

Because of the time in the history of the country and the history of EE development; the focus in the country after political transformation was policy development, and it was an opportunity to 'mainstream' environmental education, too good to miss. With the NQF work that I'm most familiar with (in the context of the Seed Funding), if we had not worked on new qualifications/policy at the time, established an EE SGB etc, it would have been extremely difficult if not impossible to lobby for environmental education qualifications later.

## 2 What are the challenges and / opportunities you have encountered in pushing for ee policy?

- Opportunities were: and resultant focus on policy development;
- The political transformation The available funding, which was partly related to international donor support following political transformation;
- The amazing enthusiasm, boyancy and drive of people at the time, we were united in our efforts as we willingly worked for a common cause. (Will we ever experience that again?!).
- Having EE allies within government was crucial, too, as the EE community relied heavily on members like Solly and Nomfundi and Sue in KZN to interpret the policy context for us (see below) and provide pointers, ranging from identifying who in the new organograms to work with, to preventing us from making strategic blunders or naively falling into traps.

Challenges:

- Few if us understood the policy and government contexts well (see above), particularly in the case of SAQA
- In the EECl we had a core of people who consistently worked on policy and built up a body of shared experience/expertise; in the NQF work this was not the case and with the formation and particularly the work of the SGB it was often very frustrating that the need for representivity required one to cover the same ground with new people every time, thus not making adequate progress with qualifications development
- Environment and EE being poorly understood, seen as a marginal 'interest group' type of concern
- Burocratic incompetence, red tape and hints of corruption in SAQA - I think the newspapers call this sort of thing 'bungling'
- The ideological schism between the idealism of the Constitution/curriculum/NQF on the one hand, and the rigid, authoritarian paradigm within which most of the educated new and old elite (who now have to work out the implementation of these policies) operate.
- The difficulty of taking the educational and pedagogical stuff associated with a social movement (environmentalism, EE) and shaping that into formal qualifications frameworks and requirements. On the GF course we are still struggling with this, it might be unresolvable.