

## The development of archives and records management education and training in Africa – challenges and opportunities

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*The development of education and training opportunities for professionals in the archives and records management (ARM) profession in Africa has been the subject of a number of professional discussions in the past. However, a significant number of recent developments and trends have not been captured in these discussions. This article provides a historical outline and some of the major developments of ARM education and training in Africa. In addition, it traces some of the key challenges educators and trainers currently face. The article demonstrates the diversity that exists in the African continent both in the variety of institutions and the types of qualifications offered in archives and records management. It provides a glimpse of the growth of universities in the continent using the case study of Kenya. While this growth provides greater education and training opportunities, there is a need to examine its impact on quality. The article suggests the strengthening of graduate-level education as well as participation in global research to mitigate against risks in the quality of ARM education and training.*

**Keywords:** Africa; impact of colonisation; International Council on Archives; Kenya; UNESCO; university education and training

### Introduction

In 2002, I was part of a working session of 13 educators from different countries that was hosted by the International Records Management Trust in Johannesburg, South Africa.<sup>1</sup> The discussions dwelt on a number of key issues including the different types of educational programs in various parts of the world, the need to balance skills and knowledge, as well as theory and practice. For many educators in the continent of Africa, this was a rare opportunity to meet face to face with their peers from other parts of the world and exchange ideas.<sup>2</sup> To the best of my knowledge, no such meeting has been convened in the last decade or so. In the meantime a number of African educators have shared developments on the education and training of archives and records management (ARM) professionals, albeit often from a national<sup>3</sup> or regional perspective and

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often covering one or two topics such as tracer studies,<sup>4</sup> orality<sup>5</sup> or qualification standards.<sup>6</sup>

This article provides a brief historical outline and some of the major developments in ARM education and training in Africa. In addition, it outlines key challenges educators and trainers currently face. While an effort was made to cover the whole continent, most of the article concentrates on sub-Saharan Africa where published material is more readily available.

### **Historical background on Africa and the emergence of ARM education and training programs**

Any discussion on developments in Africa should acknowledge the continent's complex sociopolitical context. Unfortunately this complexity is often glossed over without a full appreciation of how it enhances an understanding of the large variety of challenges that the continent faces. As a result, it is not surprising that often solutions to these challenges become 'stereotype-guided initiatives' as a result of oversimplification of issues.<sup>7</sup> It is therefore important to state, at the outset, that the continent consists of 54 countries of almost a billion people who speak several thousand different languages. Each of these countries has its own historical path and developed its own unique sociopolitical systems. In the last two centuries most African countries experienced colonisation, and this has left an indelible mark on their post-colonial experience. This section briefly covers the history of the continent and how this affected the emergence of ARM education and training.

#### ***Historical information on Africa***

Throughout the period of Homo Sapiens up to the seventeenth century, the continent saw the emergence of several major civilisations such as the Egyptian and Nubian empires in the north. In West Africa there were the Mali and Songhai civilisations, while in Central Africa there were the kingdoms of Kongo and Lunda. East Africa hosted civilisations such as the kingdoms of Rwanda and Burundi and southern Africa included Great Zimbabwe and the Khoisan-speaking peoples.<sup>8</sup>

The nineteenth and twentieth centuries were critical periods that provided the watershed moment that led the current configuration of the African continent. Even though European countries had keen interests in Africa from as early as the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, the concert of activities reached a crescendo in the mid-to-late nineteenth century. During this particular time, two classes of individuals engaged heavily: on the one hand, the manufacturing and trading class and, on the other, the philanthropic and missionary class.<sup>9</sup> Within a few decades of the latter half of the nineteenth century, Africa changed from a continent with vast geographical areas that were 'unclaimed' to a continent that, within two decades, was virtually completely 'occupied' except for Ethiopia and Liberia.<sup>10</sup> Different European powers set up a patchwork of administrative structures with varying degrees of influence and power. In most areas, influence and power had to be administered through authority structures that resulted in factionalism and cultural disruption. Table 1 provides an outline of the colonial powers and the colonies they ruled in 1914.<sup>11</sup>

As demonstrated in Table 1, the largest two powers in Africa were Britain and France, which controlled 66% of the continent before World War I and more than 70% a decade later, as shown in Table 2.<sup>12</sup>

Table 1. European colonial powers and their colonies in 1914.

Colonial power	Colony
Belgium	Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo, Rwanda
Britain	Botswana, parts of Cameroon, Egypt, Gambia, Ghana, Kenya, Lesotho, Malawi, parts of Nigeria, Sierra Leone, Sudan, part of Somalia, South Africa, Swaziland, part of Tanzania, Zambia, Zimbabwe
France	Algeria, Benin, Burkina Faso, Central African Republic, Chad, parts of Cameroon, Comoros, Djibouti, Gabon, Guinea, Ivory Coast, Madagascar, Mauritania, Mali, parts of Morocco, Niger, Republic of Congo, Senegal, Togo, Tunisia
Germany	parts of Cameroon, parts of Nigeria, Namibia, part of Tanzania, parts of Togo
Italy	parts of Ethiopia, Eritrea, Libya, parts of Somalia
Spain	Equatorial Guinea, parts of Morocco, Western Sahara
Portugal	Angola, Cape Verde Islands, Guinea-Bissau, Mozambique, Sao Tome and Principe Islands

Table 2. European control of Africa.

Imperial power	Pre-World War I %	Post-World War I %
France	36	37
Britain	30	34
Belgium	8	8
Germany	8	0
Italy	7	7
Portugal	7	7
Uncolonised	4	7

During the course of World War I and II there was a revolution in thinking and perceptions among African political activists, drawing both from the experiences of colonial troops who assisted European powers in waging war, and from intellectual thoughts on race and ethnicity.<sup>13</sup> This sparked the quest for decolonisation in different countries that took effect, in rapid transition, from the mid-1950s. The British and French were the first powers to relinquish control of most of their colonies in the 1950s and 1960s while the Portuguese only did this in the 1970s. Nonetheless, there were exceptions to this general trend. For example, Zimbabwe gained its independence from Britain in 1980 and Namibia from South Africa in 1990. In addition, there were political developments that were not linked directly to colonisation but significantly changed the political landscape of the continent. For instance, in 1993 Eritrea seceded from Ethiopia while South Sudan separated from Sudan in 2011.<sup>14</sup> Another example is the case of Somalia, which exists in a complex arrangement with two regions operating independently, that is, Puntland and Somaliland.<sup>15</sup>

The tracing of different nations' paths throughout the course of the colonial and post-colonial periods is critical in setting the stage for any discussions on current developments. Even when countries have taken similar colonial paths, acknowledging their unique post-colonial paths reduces the risk of 'oversimplification of issues'.<sup>16</sup> The sociopolitical history of any nation has a huge impact on the juridical and administrative structure which forms the overriding context within which ARM professions have to work.

### ***Emergence of ARM programs in Africa's colonial and post-colonial periods***

During Africa's colonial period, responsibility for recordkeeping was taken by the colonial administrators and very few efforts were made to educate or train the indigenous peoples of the different countries.<sup>17</sup> While written records were produced for purposes of administering the colonies, the persistence and resilience of oral cultures ensured that indigenous knowledge thrived within the continent.<sup>18</sup> For the most part, orality operated in a parallel world to the written word. There were efforts by some cultural heritage practitioners from different fields such as anthropology, ethnology and history to address issues of preserving oral heritage<sup>19</sup> but often this was not done in a sustainable manner.<sup>20</sup>

As African countries began to gain independence, there was a realisation that the records that were initially managed by colonial administrators would now have to be managed by citizens of the newly independent countries.<sup>21</sup> Unfortunately, in most countries the nationals were not formally prepared to deal with this new responsibility.<sup>22</sup> There were instances where, as colonial administrators left, some of them also destroyed records that would be considered incriminating,<sup>23</sup> a common phenomenon in oppressive regimes.<sup>24</sup>

Many of the ARM professionals of the early 1960s were confronted with a myriad of challenges and the need for solid education and training could not have been underestimated. Assistance for the professionals came in two main forms. On the one hand, ARM professionals from former colonial powers were sent to provide assistance to the newly independent countries. On the other hand, several countries offered scholarships and fellowships to a few individuals from the newly independent states to build their capacity in either Western Europe or North America.<sup>25</sup> Funding for these scholarships and fellowships either came directly from host countries or were obtained through inter-governmental organisations such as the United Nations and UNESCO.<sup>26</sup>

While this arrangement continued for a number of years, there was a view that the expatriates flown into newly independent states did not always understand all the nuanced difficulties in the newly independent countries.<sup>27</sup> In addition, there was a realisation that training one or two individuals from each of the newly independent countries was not only expensive in terms of transport and upkeep, but also the 'relatively advanced archival environment' in Western Europe or North America was not suited to the operating environment in their own home countries.<sup>28</sup>

### ***Regional centres for ARM education and training***

The International Council on Archives (ICA) with support from the Society of American Archivists and UNESCO conceptualised the idea of having less costly and more localised approaches to address the challenges stated above. During a meeting held in Washington, DC in 1966, a call was made to give the highest priority to 'technical assistance for archives in developing countries' with particular emphasis on Africa.<sup>29</sup> It was resolved that there would be two regional archival training centres in Africa: one in Dakar in Senegal to serve Francophone countries and the other in Accra in Ghana to serve Anglophone countries<sup>30</sup> because the recordkeeping traditions from the two major colonial powers on the continent were very different.<sup>31</sup>

From 1966, the ICA spent another four years soliciting funding, having determined that the centres would be attached to a university 'associated with an archival establishment and, if possible, with a school of librarianship as well'.<sup>32</sup> Funding for the Dakar

centre was secured from the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) with the support of the government of Senegal for the first five years of the existence of the centre.<sup>33</sup> The duration of study for the students was designed to be for two academic years. The courses that were offered are shown in Table 3.<sup>34</sup>

The Dakar centre was finally launched in October 1971 with 20 trainees from seven countries: Burkina Faso, Ivory Coast, Mali, Niger, Republic of Congo, Senegal and Togo.<sup>35</sup>

Funding for the Accra centre was also secured from the UNDP and it was launched in October 1975 with a class of 13 trainees from eight countries.<sup>36</sup> Thurston stated that the Accra school was very successful 'in spreading a sense of professionalism and in developing relevant areas of study along new lines such as African administrative history and the training of archivists as both managers of institutions and practising professionals'.<sup>37</sup> But its greatest stumbling block was the lack of adequate practical experience for the students mostly due to logistical issues related to distance to the facility as well as the lack of adequate staff to provide supervision.<sup>38</sup>

In 1980 the UNDP withdrew funds from both centres and, unfortunately, the governments of neither Senegal nor Ghana could fill the funding gap. UNESCO, which had actively been involved in the development of regional centres in the 1960s,<sup>39</sup> began encouraging individual countries, in the 1980s, to establish their own national schools 'to serve their own needs within the framework of ... international standards'.<sup>40</sup> The growth of national schools had already begun by the late 1970s.

By the time African countries were attaining independence there were very few institutions of higher learning on the African continent,<sup>41</sup> one commentator putting the figure to be as low as six in 1960 for the entire continent.<sup>42</sup> This is one of the reasons why the strategy of having regional centres was the only feasible one at the time. By the early 1990s, that number of institutions had increased to almost 100.<sup>43</sup> Over the three intervening decades, these institutions had focused heavily on 'creating and

Table 3. The initial curriculum for courses at the Francophone Archives Regional Centre in Dakar, Senegal.

Year 1 courses	Year 2 courses
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Introduction to the History of Ideas, Sciences and Technology</li> <li>• General Notions Concerning the History of Civilisations</li> <li>• History of African Institutions in the Colonial Period</li> <li>• Historical Geography and Cartography of Africa</li> <li>• History of African Arts</li> <li>• Introduction to Law</li> <li>• A foreign language</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Archival Theory and the History of Archives</li> <li>• Administration of Archival Institutions</li> <li>• Management of Current Records and Records Retirement</li> <li>• Documents and their Processing at the Archives</li> <li>• Physical Protection of Archives</li> <li>• Introduction to Classification and the Inventory</li> <li>• Oral Sources</li> <li>• Auxiliary Historical Sciences</li> <li>• Advanced Law</li> <li>• Courses in librarianship and documentation including General Bibliography, African Historical Bibliography, Cataloguing, Library Economics and Documentation</li> </ul>

expanding national systems of higher education and employing them to meet critical human resource needs in the public sector following independence'.<sup>44</sup> For instance, Kenya started a program for ARM paraprofessionals in the national polytechnic in 1979.<sup>45</sup> During the 1980s, other countries such as Botswana, Tanzania and Zimbabwe followed Kenya's example by establishing national courses and training workshops as well as university programs.<sup>46</sup>

The growth of ARM national schools was not only the result of a lack of adequate opportunities in regional centres, as it was also spurred by pressing local realities. For instance, a study published in 1982 revealed that while the Kenya National Archives had 141 staff members, only 25 had professional qualifications and 34 held paraprofessional qualifications. This means that almost two decades after Kenya had gained independence from the UK, 60% of the staff at the Kenya National Archives had not received any formal education or training.<sup>47</sup> The demand for qualified personnel continued to increase into the 1990s and the 2000s as populations increased and governments were required to provide public services, improve infrastructure and do so through effective recordkeeping systems.

As an illustration of colonial and post-colonial diversity, South Africa's local reality differed from most other countries in sub-Saharan Africa. Discussions about archives education and training had started in the nation's archival institution in the late 1940s.<sup>48</sup> Staff working at the institution were considered professionals if they held a Bachelor of Arts (BA) degree with a concentration in History and underwent in-house training. In 1950 the Public Service Commission approved a curriculum in Archival Science with both theoretical and practical examinations which one had to pass to be considered a professional. In 1965, a postgraduate National Diploma in Archival Science was introduced with the prerequisite still being the BA with a concentration in History. The course was administered by the Department of National Education.<sup>49</sup> In the 1990s the course was moved to the former Technikon South Africa with the contribution of the national archival institution diminishing over time.<sup>50</sup>

As the discussion in the preceding sections illustrates, African countries varied in their sociopolitical development and this inevitably affected the patterns of their ARM education and training opportunities.

### **Current structure of ARM education and training in Africa**

In an attempt to understand what currently exists in many countries, this paper offers a general outline of the situation in a number of selected African countries. As noted earlier, the African continent is very diverse and a thorough assessment would require a more comprehensive exposition than the one that can be offered here.

#### ***Types of education and training in ARM programs***

The educators that met in Johannesburg in 2002 noted that there were different kinds of opportunities for ARM education and training in Africa including: pre-appointment education, on-the-job introductory education and training as well as post-appointment continuing education and training.<sup>51</sup> Each of these types came in different flavours depending on the African country under consideration.

For instance, there was basic-level registry training, as seen in Zimbabwe's Public Service Commission for public servants, which is different from short courses available

in national and regional institutions such as ESAMI in Tanzania as well as private companies such as Tectop in Zimbabwe.<sup>52</sup> In the past, institutions known as technikon in South Africa and polytechnics in Kenya and Zimbabwe offered paraprofessional qualifications.<sup>53</sup> In addition, universities such as the University of Botswana have offered certificates and diplomas for practitioners who did not hold any other post-secondary school qualifications.<sup>54</sup> Previously, the University of KwaZulu Natal (formerly known as University of Natal) had offered certificates and diplomas to those with undergraduate qualifications in other disciplines. Numerous institutions also had undergraduate programs while a few had developed Masters and doctoral programs.<sup>55</sup>

Appendix 1 provides a breakdown of universities in sub-Saharan Africa and the qualifications they offer based on two articles, one published in 2001 and another in 2009.<sup>56</sup> The listing in Appendix 1 demonstrates the lack of standardisation in the types of qualifications between countries and sometimes even *within* countries. Table 4 breaks down the different qualifications in Appendix 1 into three groups; each group has the lowest qualification at the top and the highest qualification at the bottom.

The lack of uniformity in the types of qualifications offered in the institutions is not surprising considering the perceived paucity of efforts to develop collective curriculum frameworks. In one of the rare cases, South African practitioners engaged in a process of developing National Qualification Framework standards for the profession spurred by government efforts to transform the education system.<sup>57</sup> However, this process fizzled out in South Africa but helped spur discussions at the University of Namibia when the institution was reviewing its undergraduate program.<sup>58</sup>

While the information in Appendix 1 is useful, it is plagued by three fundamental weaknesses. Firstly, there are instances where information on a particular country or covering a program may be incomplete. For instance, the University of Botswana had been offering Masters-level qualifications earlier than 2009 and the Tanzania Public Service College had also been offering certificate and diploma qualifications since the early 2000s. Yet this information would have to be gleaned from disparate sources rather than an authoritative survey or compendium of national or continental programs.<sup>59</sup> Secondly, Appendix 1 only shows information gleaned from 17 countries that are less than one-third of all the countries in sub-Saharan Africa. In addition, many of the countries in the table were formerly colonised by the British and, therefore, cannot be considered adequately representative of the continent's sociopolitical diversity. Thirdly, the information in Appendix 1 is drawn from two sources that were published almost a decade apart yet they show only slight changes in the numbers of institutions in each of the countries and the types of qualifications they provide. This illustrates the

Table 4. Different levels of qualifications in ARM education and training programs.

Pre-university qualifications	Undergraduate qualifications	Postgraduate qualifications
Certificate, National Certificate	Bachelor of Information Science	Postgraduate Certificate Postgraduate Diploma
National Higher Certificate	Bachelor of Library Science	Masters
Diploma, National Diploma	Bachelor of Science	Master of Philosophy
Post-diploma Certificate	Bachelor of Technology	Doctor of Philosophy
Post-diploma Diploma		
National Higher Diploma		

dire need for more recent research on developments in individual African countries. For instance, between 2000 and 2010 South Africa saw an extensive restructuring of the post-secondary education sector with the previous 36 institutions being reduced to 23 institutions and this had a huge impact on ARM programs in the country.<sup>60</sup>

The next section provides an opportunity to explore developments in Kenya’s higher education sector. Kenya has been chosen in order to provide an illustrative rather than prescriptive representation of the phenomenal growth in the higher education sector of an African country, and offers an opportunity to explore the growth’s impact on the quality of programs offered in universities.

***The growth of education and training opportunities in Africa: the case of universities in Kenya***

The foundations of Kenya’s current education system were established during the colonial period. By 1963 when the nation gained independence, there were several primary and secondary schools and the first fully fledged public university in the country was only established in 1970. It took another 14 years to establish its second public university and by 1990 there were still only four public universities in the entire country.<sup>61</sup>

At the time of going to press, Kenya’s Commission of Higher Education had listed a total of 61 accredited institutions that operate as universities, constituting 30 public and 31 private universities. Appendix 2 is a listing of all the accredited universities in the country, the year they were established and the institution’s status, that is, whether they are a public or private university. Figure 1 is a summary of the information in Appendix 2 based on the status of the institutions and when they received their accreditation.<sup>62</sup>

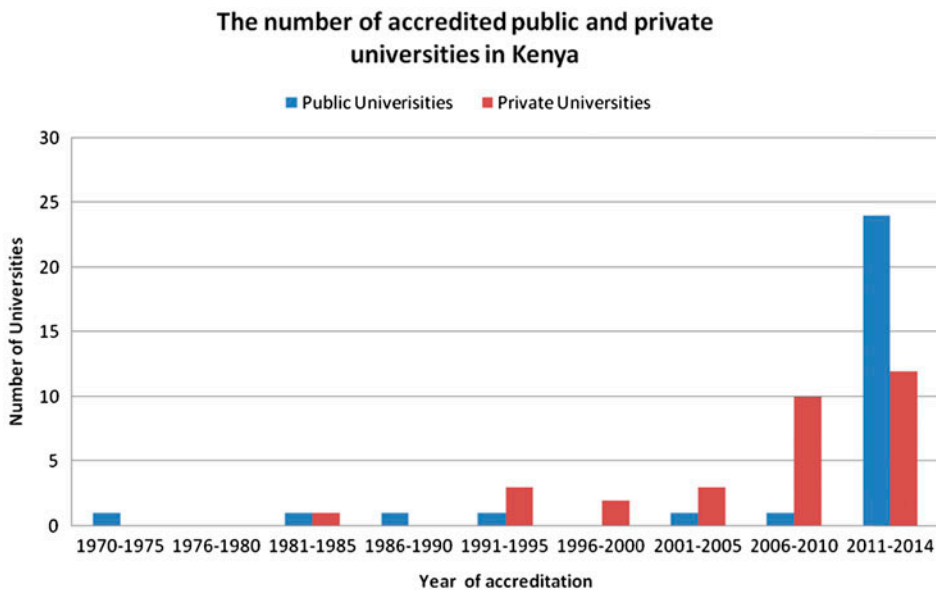


Figure 1. The growth of public and private universities in Kenya.



Figure 1 illustrates the exponential changes that took place with 77% of the existing institutions having received accreditation between 2006 and 2014. The total figure of 61 institutions does not include the number of city and town campuses that belong to the larger universities. For instance, Moi University has five campuses around the country while Kenyatta University has 12 campuses in Kenya and one campus in Tanzania.<sup>63</sup>

The growth of universities is the result of the country's desire to ensure more students get higher education opportunities because this is seen as a key driver of the economy and development.<sup>64</sup> However, the exponential growth has taken place in an environment that is plagued by a lack of adequate teaching staff or resources. In a desire to claim a bigger share of the student market, university programs were introduced 'in advance of capacity to offer them', which had a negative effect on the quality of education.<sup>65</sup> Commentators have argued that the nation has to review its traditional quality assurance mechanisms and create new systems both within individual institutions as well as in the overall framework overseeing the institutions.<sup>66</sup> In trying to address the issue of quality, the Kenyan government is currently calling on universities to be more innovative and focus on research.<sup>67</sup>

The exponential growth in universities likely expanded the opportunities to offer ARM programs. At present there is no published empirical study showing how many such programs exist in Kenya. Anecdotal evidence from a mailing list of former students of Moi University's School of Information Sciences in Kenya suggests that there may be at least a dozen national institutions that offer qualifications ranging from certificate courses to doctoral degrees.<sup>68</sup> The exact nature of the ARM programs in these institutions, as well as staffing capacity and extent of resources available to support teaching and learning, need further research. There is no doubt that changes in higher education institutions have an impact on ARM programs. For instance, between 2000 and 2006 the South African higher education sector witnessed major restructuring that resulted in the reduction of its universities from 36 into 23 institutions. This restructuring also meant a reduced number of ARM programs offered in the country.<sup>69</sup>

This brief case of Kenya's university education provides an opportunity for three main observations. Firstly, the case demonstrates how a nation's education system responded to the growing need for education opportunities through rapid expansion. Secondly, it suggests a link between the increase in quantity and concomitant strain on maintaining and improving quality of education. Thirdly, it highlights the efforts by educational authorities to improve quality through innovation and research output. Nonetheless, these observations remain tentative when specifically related to ARM programs because they are based on inference and would need evidence-based research to provide scholarly verification.

### ***Graduate-level education and training for ARM in Africa***

As the discussion above has illustrated, a number of things could impact the development of ARM programs in any country. There is a dearth of published resources that illustrate current developments and therefore an option would be to adopt the use of trace studies. According to Ocholla,<sup>70</sup> such studies entail tracing graduates to their current places of employment and interviewing them together with their employers in order to determine whether the knowledge, skills and attitudes gained during training were adequate for their current job requirements. A number of studies have been conducted in Africa in the general field of information studies.<sup>71</sup> However, very few such

studies have been conducted exclusively in the ARM field<sup>72</sup> while in contrast North American educators have conducted a substantial number of such studies.<sup>73</sup> Trace studies could be conducted at different qualification levels. The following section explores a trace study at the graduate level of ARM education.

One of the key impetuses of ARM professional recognition is the growth of graduate education. Schaeffer contends that education provided in a graduate setting is essential to 'develop a compelling and coherent body of theory and to make education in this theory relevant to the profession'.<sup>74</sup> The development of graduate education has been the subject of much debate particularly in North America. This has helped professionals gradually shift from an emphasis on practice to a focus on theory and has broadened instruction from just 'basic functions and practical how-to knowledge to more theoretical concepts, ways of thinking, and incorporation of knowledge from related disciplines'.<sup>75</sup> Graduate students, particularly at doctoral level, should be seen as 'participants in the definition and expansion of the discipline, and should be encouraged to view their work, particularly in this stage of the profession's evolution, as critical to the emergence of stimulating and significant ideas'.<sup>76</sup>

As noted earlier in this article, a number of African universities have graduate-level ARM programs at the Masters level with very few offering doctoral-level qualifications as well. According to Duranti,<sup>77</sup> up until the 1970s the idea of doctoral studies was considered revolutionary in North America since some practitioners did not believe that there was anything 'substantial in the body of archival knowledge'. Yake<sup>78</sup> adds that, well into the 1990s, the number of doctoral dissertations in the US 'could have been counted on one hand'. As noted earlier in this article, it is difficult to access current information about the number of doctoral qualifications obtained in Africa. One way of inferring such information is by providing a listing of ARM professionals from Africa who acquired doctoral qualifications. Appendix 3 is a preliminary listing of African scholars, the year they obtained their doctorate, the titles of their research and the institutions where they obtained their qualifications. Appendix 3 helps illustrate several trends and one that is most apparent is the increasing number of doctoral qualifications particularly after 2010. Figure 2 helps illustrate the national geographical distribution of universities that granted doctoral qualifications between 1983 and 2014.

It is worth reiterating that the information in Appendix 3 and Figure 2 is not by any means comprehensive but helps illustrate a number of trends. First and most apparent is the increase in candidates graduating from all the universities. Before 2000 there were only seven completed dissertations but between then and 2014 the number multiplied threefold to a total of 28 doctoral qualifications. When this exponential growth is compared to the proliferation of universities as illustrated by the case of Kenya, it may partly begin to explain the underlying interest by African students in exploring graduate-level education.

Secondly, Figure 2 demonstrates that universities in South Africa have increasingly offered opportunities for graduates amounting to 46% of all doctoral research studies. When this is contrasted with the information that the consolidation of educational institutions in the country resulted in a reduction in ARM programs, there seems to be a disconnect that deserves further investigation.<sup>79</sup>

Thirdly, there was a relatively steady number of doctoral qualifications obtained from UK universities between 1990 and 2012. While this may suggest the continued influence of colonial connections, this also requires further research.

Lastly, a less obvious observation is the complexity of the national backgrounds of each of the researchers. For instance, Kenosi<sup>80</sup> is originally from Botswana and

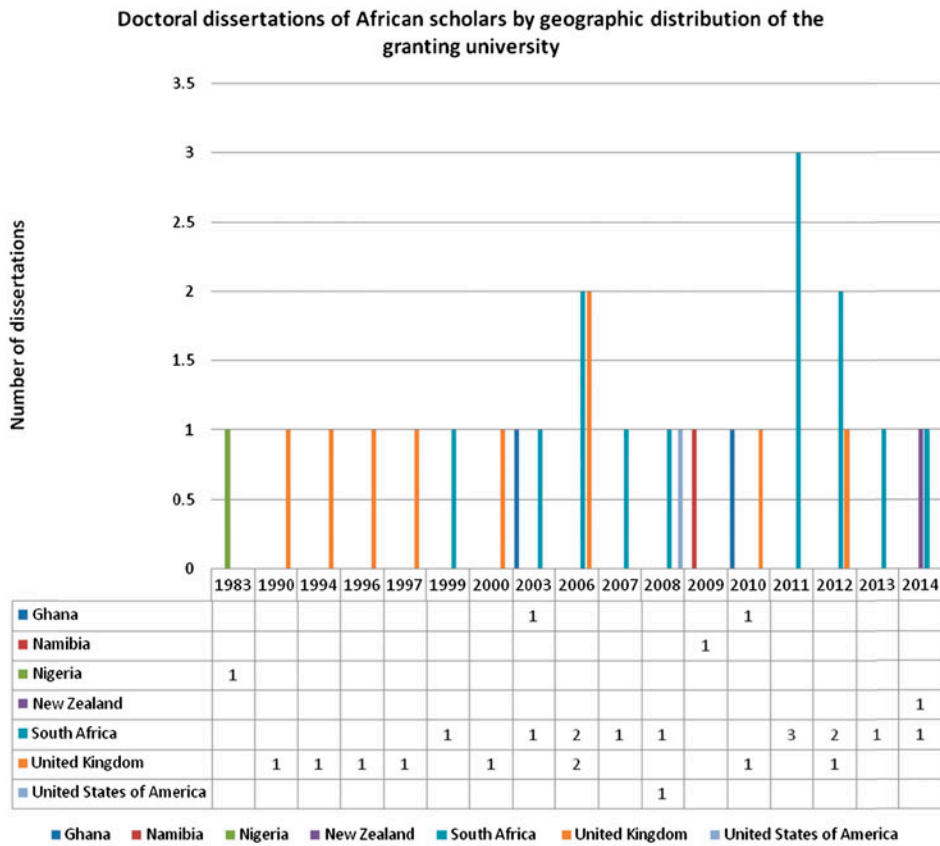


Figure 2. The distribution of doctoral studies undertaken by African scholars.

undertook doctoral studies in an institution in the USA on a topic that covers South Africa, while Kalusopa<sup>81</sup> is originally from Zambia and undertook doctoral studies in an institution in South Africa on a topic that covers Botswana. As demonstrated at the beginning of this article, the colonial histories of both Botswana and Zambia may be similar but cannot be reduced to stereotyped post-colonial paths. It is noteworthy that both scholars chose a country outside their own to undertake their studies, and then chose topics focusing on a third country. As these two examples illustrate, there are often multiple layers of complexity that need to be considered beyond just a basic listing and the identification of geographical affiliations of the doctoral research projects.

***Improving quality ARM education and training in Africa***

While the increase in the number of African scholars with doctoral qualifications is a positive trend, issues related to quality of education and training continue to cause some concerns. Commentators have argued that graduate-level education in African universities is plagued by a number of challenges:

- low numbers of qualified staff;
- virtually non-existent research;
- poor quality of education materials and outmoded programs; and,
- education methodologies based on the model of rote memorisation that does not encourage critical thinking, problem solving and creativity.<sup>82</sup>

Unfortunately, this scenario cannot be expected to produce ARM graduates who can competently face the challenges of a profession that is globally redefining itself.<sup>83</sup> Therefore, it is critical to increase opportunities for students and improve the resources they need for their education and training.

In order to address the perceived weaknesses in graduate-level ARM education and training, there have been efforts to develop educational material through initiatives such as the Training in Electronic Records Management developed by the International Records Management Trust.<sup>84</sup> The primary geographic focus of the initiative was eastern and southern Africa and it developed three main products:

- route maps for moving from a paper-based to an electronic information environment including:
  - Implementing Electronic Records Management;<sup>85</sup>
  - Designing a Records Management Improvement Program;<sup>86</sup>
  - Integrating Records Management in the Systems Development Life Cycle;<sup>87</sup>
- good-practice indicators to measure records management integration in ICT control systems;<sup>88</sup>
- five training modules on the management of records in electronic form:
  - Module 1 – Understanding the Context of Electronic Records Management;<sup>89</sup>
  - Module 2 – Planning and Managing an Electronic Records Management Program;<sup>90</sup>
  - Module 3 – Managing the Creation, Use and Disposal of Electronic Records;<sup>91</sup>
  - Module 4 – Preserving Electronic Records;<sup>92</sup>
  - Module 5 – Managing Personnel Records in an Electronic Environment.<sup>93</sup>

Some of these training resources were developed in conjunction with African scholars with the aim of addressing local realities. However, there is a need for systematic assessment on the extent of the positive contribution such resources have made to research and professional development capacity in the African continent. This is because merely preparing and making training resources available, even if freely, does not automatically translate into quality improvements in education and training. Such resources have to be developed in full cognisance of local needs and, for them to continue being relevant to the intended audience, also be rooted in local or national initiatives. One such initiative, but one that has not yet been achieved, is a centre of excellence for digital records management that has been mooted for a number of years for the East African region.<sup>94</sup>

Beyond local initiatives, African scholars need greater visibility within global ARM research initiatives. While an argument may be made that African professionals have been exposed to international developments, it may be that their own informed contributions have been hampered by the lack of constant and lengthy exposure that can be made possible through research activities at a global level.<sup>95</sup> The question of whether African

scholars should contribute to the overall research agenda within the profession around the world has been asked at different points in the past.<sup>96</sup> Fundamentally, this should emanate from a determination by individual academic institutions within the continent to identify appropriate avenues for global collaboration.<sup>97</sup> For instance, since 2013 the Department of Information Science at the University of South Africa has been coordinating the contributions of Team Africa, which is part of the InterPARES Trust research project.<sup>98</sup> The research project is exploring issues concerning digital records and data entrusted to the Internet with the goal of generating theoretical and methodological frameworks to develop a variety of instruments that ensure ‘public trust grounded on evidence of good governance, a strong digital economy, and a persistent digital memory’.<sup>99</sup>

Other research discussions that need to be explored from an African perspective include the digital economy and its impact on long-term digital memory as well as the management of digital records through time and space. While these discussions have often been pitched at the global level, they need to be situated within a national context to ensure the results of the research do not remain alien to local realities.<sup>100</sup> In addition, there is a need to ensure ongoing research initiatives extend beyond just doctoral and post-doctoral studies that are limited to obtaining qualifications. As highlighted in the case of Kenya’s university education experience, merely increasing opportunities risks compromising the quality of education and training. As the Kenyan government has already observed, there is a need to increase the level of innovation and research specifically in ARM programs on the continent.<sup>101</sup>

### **Concluding remarks**

This article started with the ambition of outlining the major developments of ARM education and training in Africa. The historical outline was important in order to demonstrate the extent to which countries have undergone development with measured reliance on foreign actors. In addition, it illustrated some level of differentiation among countries by sociopolitical histories. However, owing to limited space this article did not fully explore the depth of differentiation, considering that countries with similar colonial pasts vary in their economic, cultural and linguistic composition. Nonetheless, the brief analysis helped demonstrate that even when similar challenges are identified among different countries, it would be foolhardy to assume solutions should be carbon-copy responses.

One of the common challenges that faced ARM professionals in newly independent countries was the lack of education and training opportunities. The response was to create two regional centres, one for Anglophone and the other for Francophone countries. Owing to various financial and logistical challenges, these efforts did not last more than a decade, and since their demise national education and training programs have emerged.

Once African nations began developing their own ARM programs, there was a perceived lack of standardisation among the qualifications they were offering. This perception is held against a backdrop of the lack of detailed analyses regarding the education and training landscape within individual countries. The case of Kenya demonstrated the rapid changes that took place in recent times, with 70% of the current universities having been accredited between 2011 and 2014. While such growth may offer greater access to opportunities in African countries, there needs to be an examination of whether there has been a negative impact on the quality of education and training being offered. Commentators on the Kenyan university system have noted the

deterioration in quality ‘compounded by the emerging practice of introducing new programs, considered marketable, without due regard to existing capacity to offer such programs’.<sup>102</sup>

While there are no recent surveys of ARM programs on the continent, this article has explored developments from the perspective of graduate-level research studies towards the granting of doctoral qualifications. Commentators have noted that both graduate-level education and research continue to be the core of strengthening the profession globally.<sup>103</sup> By analysing doctoral-level studies undertaken by African scholars, this article has highlighted several trends including the increasing number of South African universities granting qualifications but also a steady level of graduates from UK universities.

It is hoped that these graduates will contribute to the academic staff of the increasing number of new programs offered by African universities as well as actively participating in global research. Commentators have argued that ARM research and education need to go hand in hand, a challenge that is not unique to the African continent but is also experienced in the developed world.<sup>104</sup> However, research needs to go beyond the attainment of university qualifications, and in this regard the efforts by the University of South Africa to host the Africa Team of the InterPARES Trust research project are commendable. The increasing number of African scholars with doctoral qualifications gives a sense of hope for the future of the profession on the continent. Kenyan researchers have noted that the younger generation of lecturers are not engaged with research and publication and that this threatens the ability of Kenyan universities to sustain research productivity.<sup>105</sup> One has to be optimistic that the new generation of African scholars do engage in research and publication. And one research study that is sorely needed is a comprehensive survey of education and training institutions in Africa and their impact on the profession, similar to the efforts conducted in South Africa in 2010.<sup>106</sup>

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**Appendix 1. Universities that offer ARM qualifications in sub-Saharan Africa**

**Legend:** B – Bachelor degree, Btech – Bachelor of Technology degree, C – Certificate, D – Diploma, HD – Higher Diploma, M – Masters, NC – National Certificate, ND – National Diploma, NHC – National Higher Certificate, PD – Post-diploma Diploma, PDC - Post-diploma Certificate, PGD – Postgraduate Diploma, Ph – Doctor of Philosophy.

Country	2001	2009
Botswana	University of Botswana (C, D)	Institute of Development Management (C)
Ghana	University of Ghana (D, B, M)	University of Botswana (C, D) African Regional Training Centre for Archivists (C, PGD) University of Ghana (D, B, M)
Kenya	Kenya Polytechnic (C) Kenyatta University (M) Moi University (B)	Eldoret Polytechnic (C) Kenya Polytechnic (C, D, HD) Kenya School of Professional Studies (C, D) Kenyatta University (B, M, Ph) Moi University (B, M)
Lesotho	Institute of Public and Administration Management (C)	Institute of Development Management (C)
Malawi		Mzuzu University (D, B)
Mozambique		Arquivo Historica de Mocambique (C) Centre for Professional Training (C)
Namibia	University of Namibia (D, B)	University of Namibia (B)
Nigeria	University of Ibadan (M)	University of Ibadan (M)
Senegal		Universite Cheikh Anta Diop de Dakar (B, PGD)
Sierra Leone	University of Sierra Leone (D)	
South Africa	Rand Afrikaans University (B)  Technikon South Africa (NC, NHC, PD, Btech) University of Natal (B, PGD)  University of South Africa (B)	University of Johannesburg (B, PGD, M, Ph)  University of KwaZulu Natal (B, PGD, M, Ph) University of South Africa (PDC, C, HC, D, B, M, Ph)
Sudan	University of Witwatersrand (M) University of Omdurman (D, B)	University of Witwatersrand (PGD, Ph) University of Omdurman (B)
Swaziland	Institute of Development Management (C)	Institute of Development Management (C)
Tanzania	Bagamoyo School (D) University of Dar es Salaam (M)	Bagamoyo School (D) University of Dar es Salaam (M)
Uganda	Makerere University (D, B, M)	
Zambia	ChalimbaEvelyne Hone (C, D) University of Zambia (B, M)	University of Zambia (D, B)
Zimbabwe	Harare Polytechnic (NC, ND) University of Science and Technology (B)	Harare Polytechnic (C, D) National University of Science and Technology (C, D)

**Appendix 2. Accredited universities in Kenya**

Year the institution received accreditation	Universities	University status
1970	University of Nairobi (UON)	Public University
1984	Moi University (MU)	Public University
1985	KAG – East University	Private University
1985	Kenyatta University (KU)	Public University
1987	Egerton University	Public University
1991	University of Eastern Africa, Baraton	Private University
1992	Catholic University of Eastern Africa	Private University
1994	Daystar University	Private University
1994	Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology (JKUAT)	Public University
1997	Scott Christian University	Private University
1999	United States International University	Private University
2001	Maseno University	Public University
2002	Africa Nazarene University	Private University
2002	Aga Khan University	Private University (interim)
2002	Kiriri Women’s University of Science and Technology	Private University (interim)
2006	Gretsa University	Private University (interim)
2006	Kenya Methodist University	Private University
2007	MasindeMuliro University of Science of Technology (MMUST)	Public University
2007	St Paul’s University	Private University
2008	Kabarak University	Private University
2008	Pan Africa Christian University	Private University
2008	Presbyterian University of East Africa	Private University (interim)
2008	Strathmore University	Private University
2009	Inoorero University	Private University (interim)
2010	GENCO University	Private University (interim)
2010	The East African University	Private University (interim)
2011	Africa International University	Private University
2011	Embu University College	Public University (constituent of UON)
2011	Garissa University College	Public University (constituent of MU)
2011	Kenya Highlands Evangelical University	Private University
2011	Kibabii University College	Public University (constituent of MMUST)
2011	Kirinyaga University College	Public University (constituent of JKUAT)
2011	Machakos University College	Public University (constituent of KU)
2011	Management University of Africa	Private University (interim)
2011	Mount Kenya University	Private University
2011	Murang’a University College	Public University (constituent of JKUAT)

*(Continued)*

**Appendix 2.** (Continued).

Year the institution received accreditation	Universities	University status
2011	Rongo University College	Public University (constituent of MU)
2011	TaitaTaveta University College	Public University (constituent of JKUAT)
2011	The Co-operative University College of Kenya	Public University (constituent of JKUAT)
2012	Dedan Kimathi University of Technology	Public University
2012	Great Lakes University of Kisumu	Private University
2012	Pioneer International University	Private University (interim)
2012	Riara University	Private University (interim)
2013	Adventist University of Africa	Private University
2013	Chuka University	Public University
2013	JaramogiOgingaOdinga University of Science and Technology	Public University
2013	Karatina University	Public University
2013	KCA University	Private University
2013	Kisii University	Public University
2013	Laikipia University	Public University
2013	Maasai Mara University	Public University
2013	Meru University of Science and Technology	Public University
2013	Multimedia University of Kenya	Public University
2013	Pwani University	Public University
2013	South Eastern Kenya University	Public University
2013	Technical University of Kenya	Public University
2013	Technical University of Mombasa	Public University
2013	UMMA University	Private University (interim)
2013	University of Eldoret	Public University
2013	University of Kabianga	Public University
2014	International Leadership University	Private University (interim)
2014	Zetech University	Private University (interim)

**Appendix 3. Doctoral studies undertaken by African scholars**

Name of author (and year of completion)	Title of doctoral research study	University (and country)
Abankwah, R (2008)	Management of Audiovisual Materials in the Member States of the Eastern and Southern Africa Regional Branch of the International Council on Archives (ESARBICA)	University of KwaZulu Natal (South Africa)
Adjei, E (2000)	The Management of Medical Records in Government Hospitals in Ghana: An Agenda for Reform	University College London (UK)
Akotia, P (1997)	The Management of Public Sector Financial Records: The Implications for Good Government	University of London (UK)
Alegbeleye, G (1983)	The Methodist Church Records in Nigeria: Their Nature, Use and Organization	University of Ibadan (Nigeria)
Akussah, H (2003)	Preserving Documentary Heritage in Ghana: The National Archives of Ghana in Focus	University of Ghana (Ghana)
Boamah, E (2014)	Towards Effective Management and Preservation of Digital Cultural Heritage Resources: An Exploration of Contextual Factors in Ghana	Victoria University of Wellington (New Zealand)
Chachage, B (2006)	Developing a Village Records Management System Model for Rural Development in Tanzania: A Case Study of Iringa Region	University of KwaZulu Natal (South Africa)
Garaba, F (2011)	Records and Archives Management by National and Private Archival Institutions: The Case of Former National Liberation Movements' Records in East and Southern Africa	University of KwaZulu Natal (South Africa)
Kalusopa, T (2012)	Developing an E-records Readiness Framework for Labour Organisations in Botswana	University of South Africa (South Africa)
Keakopa, S (2006)	Management of Electronic Records in Botswana, Namibia and South Africa: Opportunities and Challenges	University of London (UK)
Kemoni, H (2007)	Records Management Practices and Public Service Delivery in Kenya	University of KwaZulu Natal (South Africa)
Kenosi, L (2008)	Records, the Truth Commission, and National Reconciliation: Accountability in Post-Apartheid South Africa	University of Pittsburgh (US)
Lihoma, P (2012)	The Impact of Administrative Change on Record Keeping in Malawi	University of Glasgow (UK)
Luyombya, D (2010)	Framework for Effective Public Digital Records Management in Uganda	University College London (UK)
Makhura, M (2006)	The Contributions of Information User Behaviour and Records Management Towards an Organization's Competitive Performance	University of Johannesburg (South Africa)
Mnjama, N (1994)	Railway Records: Their Management and Exploitation in Kenya	University College London (UK)
Musa, A (2010)	The Management of District Assembly Records for Development Planning: Implications for Good Governance	University of Ghana (Ghana)

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**Appendix 3.** (Continued).

Name of author (and year of completion)	Title of doctoral research study	University (and country)
Ndenje-Sichalwe, E (2011)	The Significance of Records Management to Fostering Accountability in the Public Service Reform Programme of Tanzania	University of KwaZulu Natal (South Africa)
Nengomasha, C (2009)	A Study of Electronic Records Management in the Namibian Public Service in the Context of e-Government	University of Namibia (Namibia)
Ngoepe, M (2013)	Fostering a Framework to Embed the Records Management Function into the Auditing Process in the South African Public Sector	University of South Africa) South Africa
Ngulube, P (2003)	Preservation and Access to Public Records and Archives in South Africa	University of Natal (South Africa)
Nsibirwa, Z (2012)	Preservation of, and Access to, Legal Deposit Materials in South Africa	University of Kwazulu-Natal (South Africa)
Peters, D (1999)	Oxidation at the Wet/Dry Interface in the Deterioration of Paper in Library and Archival Collections in Humid Climatic Conditions	University of Natal (South Africa)
Schellnack-Kelly, I (2014)	The Role of Records Management in Governance-Based Evidence, Service Delivery and Development in South African Communities	University of South Africa (South Africa)
Sebina, P (2006)	Freedom of Information and Records Management: A Learning Curve for Botswana	University College London (UK)
Sibanda, R (2011)	Developing a Service Quality Measurement Instrument for Archival Institutions	University of South Africa (South Africa)
Tekfi, C (1990)	Design of a Computer Information System for the Algerian National Archives	City University (UK)
Wamukoya, J (1996)	Records Management and Administrative Reform Programmes in Kenya	University College London (UK)