Scoping Mission for an English Language Training (ELT) Programme in South Sudan. Final Report

How to cite:

For guidance on citations see FAQs

© 2011 DFID
Version: Version of Record

Copyright and Moral Rights for the articles on this site are retained by the individual authors and/or other copyright owners. For more information on Open Research Online’s data policy on reuse of materials please consult the policies page.

oro.open.ac.uk
Scoping Mission for an English Language Training (ELT) Programme in South Sudan

Final report

A study by Tom Power and John Simpson

28th July 2011
## Contents

**List of Abbreviations** ........................................................................................................ 3  
1  Executive Summary ........................................................................................................... 4  
2  Introduction: key issues relating to South Sudan and English language .... 6  
   2.1 Linguistic complexity in South Sudan ............................................................... 7  
   2.2 English in the history and politics of Sudan ..................................................... 8  
   2.3 English and the formation of national identity ............................................... 9  
   2.4 English and regional trade .......................................................................... 10  
   2.5 English in addressing inequalities ............................................................. 11  
   2.6 Spoken and written language; critical L1-L2 relationships ......................... 12  
   2.7 English in the development of South Sudan .............................................. 13  
   2.8 Preliminary evidence: ELT interventions with a track record of success, at scale .................................................................................................................... 15  
   2.8.1 English in Action (EIA), Bangladesh .................................................... 15  
   2.8.2 Rwanda English in Action (REAP), Rwanda ........................................ 16  
   2.8.3 English Language Improvement Programme (ELIP), Ethiopia .......... 17  
   2.8.4 Review of preliminary evidence .......................................................... 17  
3  Mission ................................................................................................................................ 18  
4  Data analysis ...................................................................................................................... 19  
   4.1 English language training needs in South Sudan ........................................ 19  
   4.2 Current activities in skills development ......................................................... 20  
   4.3 Issues to be addressed through future ELT provision ............................... 21  
   4.4 Sector specific analyses ............................................................................. 22  
   4.4.1 Conducting central and state level official business............................... 22  
   4.4.2 Creating a new national identity ............................................................ 24  
   4.4.3 Integrating with global and regional trade and commerce .................... 25  
   4.4.4 Introducing pedagogic change in the education sector ........................... 27  
5  In moving towards new programmes DFID should: ............................................. 29  
   5.1 ...focus on: ................................................................................................. 29  
   5.2 ...avoid: ....................................................................................................... 30  
6  Options for future EL skills development ...................................................................... 31  
   6.1 Foundation course: Functional Spoken English........................................ 31  
   6.2 Foundation course: Functional English Literacy for the Workplace............. 32  
   6.3 Communicating in English for leadership and management ....................... 33  
   6.4 Pedagogic reform through communicative English teaching in primary schools ............................................................................................................ 34
6.5 English language skills for Disarmament, Demobilisation and Reintegration ................................................................. 36

6.6 Raising the profile of South Sudan as an Anglophone state ...................... 36

7 Issues for further consideration .................................................................. 37

8 Annexes ........................................................................................................ 39

8.1 List of interviewees ......................................................................................... 39

8.2 Example of effective ELT at scale: English in Action – Summary of Research and Evaluation ..................................................... 40

8.3 Terms of Reference .......................................................................................... 43

References ........................................................................................................ 46
## List of Abbreviations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BC</td>
<td>British Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BBC-WST</td>
<td>the BBC World Service Trust</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLIL</td>
<td>Content and Language Integrated Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPA</td>
<td>Comprehensive Peace Agreement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DDR</td>
<td>Disarmament, Demobilisation &amp; Reintegration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EAC</td>
<td>East African Community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ELT</td>
<td>English Language Teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GOSS</td>
<td>Government of South Sudan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HEI</td>
<td>Higher Education Institute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IRI</td>
<td>Interactive Radio Instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JDT</td>
<td>Joint Donor Team</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L1</td>
<td>First language / mother tongue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L2</td>
<td>Second language / target language (English)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MHRD</td>
<td>Ministry of Human Resource Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MoI</td>
<td>Medium of Instruction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OU</td>
<td>the Open University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P1-P4</td>
<td>Primary 1 – Primary 4 (e.g. years of primary education)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIL</td>
<td>Summer Institute of Linguistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPLA</td>
<td>Sudan Peoples’ Liberation Army</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSA</td>
<td>Sub-Saharan Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSPS</td>
<td>South Sudan Police Service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEYL</td>
<td>Teaching English to Young Learners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TTI</td>
<td>Teacher Training Institute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UN</td>
<td>United Nations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WTI</td>
<td>Windle Trust International</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1 Executive Summary

The objective of this scoping mission is to assess and prioritise the most important English language training needs in South Sudan, in the period following independence, in relation to four thematic areas:

- conducting central and state level official business;
- creating a new national identity;
- integrating with global and regional trade and commerce;
- introducing pedagogic change in the education sector.

A team of two specialists gathered data from 19-22 July 2011. This consisted of meetings with representatives of Ministries, SPLA, SSPS, NGOs, DFID, USAID, BC, HEIs, TTIs, and public and private sector organisations.

South Sudan is linguistically very diverse: although four major ethno-linguistic groups (Dinka, Nuer, Zande and Bari) account for two-thirds of the population, there are some fifty mother tongues present. In addition, Arabic has also been an official working language, with a continuum running from north (Khartoum Arabic) to south (Juba Arabic, a creole).

In the period following independence in 1956, English played a role as the medium of instruction in most schools in the southern states until, under immense pressure from Khartoum, it was supplanted by Arabic in the mid-1990's. In the subsequent years, English became positively perceived and used as a language of unity and resistance. During this period, many groups were disadvantaged in relation to the acquisition of English language, notably those: who fled to the north and were immersed in an Arabic culture; children who remained in the south, and were schooled in Arabic; children who had no access to education; young people who were swept up into the armed confrontation, many of whom are now in the SPLA, the SSPF or the government. By comparison, those who fled to Anglophone countries in the region are returning with varying degrees of English language competence.

Following independence, the newly adopted constitution refers to English ‘as a major language of South Sudan’, positioning English as an official working language, and as the medium of instruction in schools. Our analysis leads us to suggest that whilst national identity is likely to rest on the regular manipulation of multiple languages – both mother tongues and local varieties of Arabic and English, English is liable to play an important role, particularly in strengthening regional ties and trade within the EAC, and in enabling individuals to access opportunities for personal and economic
development. The demand for English language was expressed strongly and universally, throughout the interviews.

In many settings, Juba-Arabic or mother tongues predominate in verbal interactions, particularly in less-formal settings, or in ‘customer-facing’ roles. However, all interviewees perceived spoken English as a critical factor for enabling people to exploit opportunities that are available to them for professional and career development, which typically takes place in English as the only available lingua franca between trainer and trainees. Away from customer-facing roles, spoken English is also needed more regularly and fluently, particularly for middle and senior management, as it is typically established as the language of business, in both the private (e.g. regional corporations) and public (e.g. central government) sectors. However, within both sectors, fluency and competency in English appears not to be widespread, at least in relation to the local population.

In most contexts where written documents are regularly used, those documents are likely to be in English. The ability to make sense of, or create such documents, can be critically important for participation in professional practices, and to institutional efficiency and effectiveness.

Whilst there are a number of current activities intended to improve competence in English language, these are typically small scale, working face-to-face with small groups (of around 20-60 people) over short time frames (typically 3-6 months). WTI are perhaps the largest provider of such training, currently reaching some 3,000 teachers, but much of the training offered appears to be in the form of ‘grammar translation’, which is not the most effective approach for improving the ability to communicate in the target language. In relation to the scale of need, current approaches seem piecemeal. There is a need for coherent and strategic activity in relation to English language teaching within South Sudan. Effective approaches need to be deployed at an appropriate scale, proportionate to need. Interventions should acknowledge the broader issues around basic literacy, numeracy and communication skills, as well as English language needs.

In particular, the opportunities for using appropriate, low-cost communications technologies (e.g. radio and mobile phone) should be thoroughly explored in relation to all interventions. The role of such technologies is likely to be critical in widening exposure to spoken English language, particularly in contexts where levels of literacy are generally very low. (The opportunity to supplement such resources through print, for example, through ELT pages in newspapers, should be explored, perhaps
particularly for more literate audiences, such as Arabic speaking teachers, or ELT facilitators in the workplace.) In addition, for the general population, the opportunity for community based, peer-supported initiatives should be explored.

Where possible, the private sector should fund their own implementation of English language training within their organisations, and private sector providers should be encouraged to provide such services. The role of donor funding to design and produce affordable and locally relevant materials should be explored, again exploiting economies of scale.

In particular, we recommend that DFID should focus on key areas of English language teaching, to provide for:

1. wide-spread need for basic functional English, to develop sense of inclusion in the new nation and to enable access to opportunities for development;
2. wide-spread need for professional / vocational English literacy, in relation to making sense of written texts in the work place;
3. higher level provision for middle managers, focussing upon critical reading of written texts, and ability to communicate ideas effectively through spoken and written English.

Above and beyond focussing on these aspects of ELT provision for the general population, we recommend a particular consideration be given to two specific audiences, both critical to nation building:

4. improving the English language competence and practice of teachers, particularly English language teachers in P1 – P4;
5. improving the English language competence and employability of soldiers going through DDR.

“Can English really make a difference”? The short answer is “yes”: English language training is not a ‘quick fix’ for South Sudan’s problems, but it can stimulate development, is relatively inexpensive and sustainable, and may underpin a range of skills transformation projects.

2 Introduction: key issues relating to South Sudan and English language

*English plays a vital role in increasing opportunity around the world. It provides access to the information with which individuals can learn and develop and it provides access to the networks which are vital in building and maintaining economic links. Perhaps more importantly, it provides a common language to share knowledge.*
and ideas and to create the kind of relationships which go beyond a simple deal or contract. It enables people to explore cultural differences and to create the kind of trust and understanding which is vital in negotiating and agreeing our common future.

(Martin Davidson, Foreword to *English Next – India*, British Council, 2010)

One of the main legacies of former colonial languages in Africa is that they are entrenched in government and administration, not only in countries which have been independent for the last 50 or so years, but in newly-emerging nations such as Namibia and South Sudan. They are also positioned as languages of economic success, higher levels of employment and – by association – social prestige. The prestige value associated with an ex colonial language draws individuals and groups towards favouring it such that proficient use of the language is seen as a marker both of education and modernity in many African countries.

Language is central to individuals’ and communities’ lives, being intimately connected with access to education, health care, employment and political participation, as well as the growth of a shared sense of community and a symbol of group identity. It is important to pay careful attention to the process of national integration and nation building, and a possible role for English in this critical process.

### 2.1 Linguistic complexity in South Sudan

With a total population of between 8,000,000 and 10,000,000 people and a land mass covering an area larger than Spain and Portugal combined, the new nation state of South Sudan comprises around fifty different ethno-linguistic groups, presenting a linguistic landscape of mixed, multiple languages of varying size and geographic spread. SIL estimate that four major language groupings – Dinka, Nuer, Zande and Bari – account for around 65% of the population, with the ten largest groups representing 80% and the twenty largest covering 90% of people. This suggests there are about thirty ‘minority’ languages used among the remaining 10% of South Sudanese.

In addition to a large number of indigenous languages, Arabic also features in the situation, both as an official working language of government and as a creole, commonly referred to as Juba Arabic, which acts as a lingua franca in certain parts of the country - though it may be more accurate to say there is an Arabic continuum running from south to north of the new nation, with the variety spoken in northern states shifting towards that of Khartoum Arabic. Though the various forms of non-standard Arabic can be written (using the Roman alphabet), they basically exist as
spoken languages used for ease of communication amongst speakers of different tongues.

A further linguistic layer is provided by the presence of English in South Sudan, evidenced in the republic’s choice of English, and desire to position it centrally in government and education, both as an official working language at national and state levels and medium of instruction in schools. In the former context, the newly-adopted constitution refers to English “as a major language of South Sudan” which, together with Arabic, “shall be the official working languages of the governments of Southern Sudan, and the states.” (Pt 1, Chap 1, Article 6.4). Concerning language in education, the policy clearly states that “In pre-primary and primary 1 through 3, the medium of instruction shall be the indigenous language of the area. In primary 4 through 8, the medium of instruction shall be English.

For all secondary and tertiary education, the medium of instruction shall be English.”

2.2 English in the history and politics of Sudan

Sudan entered the twentieth century as an Anglo-Egyptian Condominium with unique constitutional status. For some time after independence in 1956, English, together with Arabic, continued to be an influential language, being the medium of instruction in most schools in the southern states. The 1980s and 1990s saw a period of intense pressure from Khartoum on southern Sudan for teaching and learning to be in Arabic, which led to English becoming positively associated with the campaign against what was perceived by southerners as an attempt by to impose Arabic language and culture.

The role of English in South Sudan’s struggle for freedom is somewhat analogous to its place in the South African anti-apartheid movement: in both contexts, English has been perceived, and used, as the language of freedom and unity, serving to bind together individuals and groups from many different ethno-linguistic backgrounds, both in-country and overseas among the diaspora and broader support groups.

Following South Sudan’s achievement of independence – as in the successful elimination of apartheid in South Africa – English has emerged with very positive connotations stemming from its recent role in opposition to the status quo and as a representation of future hopes. As such, it is likely to retain an important political function, both internally and externally, in developing and communicating government policies and engaging in political dialogue.
2.3 English and the formation of national identity

In any given context, the process of selecting and promoting a particular language as a symbol of national unity, requires consideration of a number of issues:

1. the local authenticity of the language in question
2. how widely accepted it is throughout the country
3. whether the language is deemed sufficiently prestigious to represent the nation
4. if it is able to distinguish or differentiate its speakers from those of other nations

(adapted from Simpson, 2008)

In the case of South Sudan, arguably national languages and Juba Arabic have stronger claims than English to fulfilling the first criterion, ‘local authenticity’. However, it can be further argued that English is better positioned to meet criteria two, three and four than either local languages or Juba Arabic. Evidence from interviews and bearings on the sociolinguistics literature lead us to believe that even larger indigenous languages, such as Dinka, Nuer and Zande, would not be universally accepted across South Sudan, or deemed prestigious enough to serve as the national language, being considered mainly spoken languages.

As regards Juba Arabic and other non-standard varieties of Arabic in the new state, though these appear to be quite widely spoken – as creoles or lingua francas – widespread negative attitudes towards Arabic together with the lack of clear differentiation it offers Southern Sudanese from their northern Sudanese neighbours, make this an unlikely choice for either national language or an expansion of present, largely oral, functions into more formal, written domains. Conversely, English, being widely held to be both acceptable – in the sense of ethnically neutral - and prestigious, is also able to serve as a linguistic marker of distinction for Southern Sudanese, particularly in relation to North Sudan.

With regard to the role of language in the development of national identity in Africa, in many cases the ethno-linguistically mixed nature of the population has hindered the use of a single language to impart a sense of uniqueness – even destiny - as a nation in the way that language has at times been used in Western European nationalism or in Asian countries like Japan and Korea. In Africa, languages used for formal purposes – which may include an ex colonial language like English – may also form part of speakers’ sense of national identity, besides those used for informal activities and that signal more local forms of solidarity (Simpson, 2008).
Our analysis of both the sociolinguistic situation obtaining in South Sudan and research data collected, leads us to suggest that linguistically-based national identity is likely to rest on the regular manipulation of multiple languages – mother tongues, local varieties of Arabic and English – and be less clearly isolated by reference to a single, prominent language.

However, one of the key roles of language in nation-building in the early post-independence era is that of maintaining social harmony and preserving the territorial integrity of the new nation state; hence a focus on containment, conflict reduction and increased cohesion. Positive valuation of the peace-keeping, integrative roles of English has led to an increasing acceptance of the former colonial language as a useful part of the linguistic landscape in many countries. The prominent position of English in multi-ethnic African states with imbalanced populations may actually be welcomed for its ‘ring-holding’ role - mitigating the effects of dominant indigenous languages, and maintaining the territorial integrity of the nation state (adapted from Simpson, 2008). In other words, English may be positively valued as ethnically neutral and theoretically capable of integrating mixed populations in a way that appears to be even and fair for all ethnic groups.

### 2.4 English and regional trade

Economic relationships between the developed countries and those of the ‘third world’ are changing. Asian and African economies, especially, have been growing fast, with annual GDP rates far exceeding that of Europe and the United States. The International Monetary Fund’s October 2010 Regional Economic Outlook for Sub Saharan Africa projects growth at 5.5 per cent in 2011, the report stating that “domestic demand in the region in 2011 is expected to remain strong on the basis of rising real incomes and sustained private and public investment.

In addition, exports are expected to benefit from the increased orientation of trade toward fast-growing markets in Asia.” Should this rate prevail, economic growth in most countries of the region would effectively bounce back to near the high levels registered in the mid-2000s.

In today’s globalised world, English operates as the main language of business and will continue to be an essential means to encourage further foreign investment and trade in SSA. As one of the most disadvantaged countries in the region, independent South Sudan, through its oil reserves, has a potential source of revenue to improve the lives of the very poorest of its citizens. The potential for South Sudan to increase trade and investment, and opportunity to align with the English-speaking economies
of the East African Community, reinforces the need for English so as to develop economically and engage with its neighbours (Davidson, 2011).

A recent piece of research carried out on behalf of the British Council by Euromonitor International in five developing countries in Africa and Asia indicated that a competent English speaker can expect to earn on average 30% more than a similarly skilled person without English. If that is correct, the distribution of wealth in future – including that of remittance economies - may be closely linked to the distributions of English.

Graddol (op cit) reports that Mexicans working in the USA are estimated to send back 18 billion dollars a year, but remittances are known to be drastically underestimated by official statistics. Studies in individual countries, such as Nepal, indicate that the actual flow may be 10 times or more than that published. In many countries, such as in sub-Saharan Africa, there may be no official statistics actually collected. In other words, remittance economies are probably of far greater importance in development than recognised in statistics.

If lack of English in some countries threatens to exclude certain sections of a population from growing national prosperity, then increasing access to English language learning opportunities will be a significant challenge to be addressed.

### 2.5 English in addressing inequalities

A number of significant changes have occurred in education and English language teaching within recent years. What may be referred to as the democratisation of schooling or ‘education for all’ has greatly expanded enrolment in developing countries. At the same time, the spread of English around the world, together with its (re)positioning in the curriculum as a primary school subject and/or language of instruction – where before it had been introduced only at secondary level and taught as a foreign language – has greatly increased the number of learners exposed to and engaging English. In view of these key movements in education and ELT, and within the context of a global economy, Graddol (2006) argues that English language in the 21st century is becoming a basic skill. From this perspective, English is viewed as playing an important role in equalising educational opportunities, particularly for the development of language and communication skills with wide currency that can contribute to economic development and poverty reduction.

Until now, the majority populations of SSA countries have lived in rural areas. However this is set to change, according to a recently published UN report which states that urbanisation is happening at a faster rate in Africa than anywhere else in
the world. The UN Habitat’s State of African Cities 2010 Report projects that the number of people living in African cities will triple over the next 40 years, and that by 2050 60% of Africans will be city dwellers. By this date, Africa’s urban population is expected to be 1.23 billion.

Concerning the impact of internal migration to urban areas on rural economies, Graddol (2006) states that workers send home money which is vital to the support of their families and the rural economy. Such internal flows of money have a language implication: Many rural migrants seek employment in one of the hospitality industries where some level of English is expected. Because the language of the city is often different from that of their home area, new linguistic skills are acquired, and a linguistic conduit established between the urban and rural varieties. If life in the city goes well, the worker may be joined by the children who will also acquire new languages. (ibid)

2.6 Spoken and written language; critical L1-L2 relationships

In many African states there is the perception of an important linguistic division between oral and written communication, and the related perception that European languages may be best suited for use in more formal areas – which often invoke the written text – whereas indigenous languages are more appropriate for use in less formal interactions which may be largely conducted orally (Simpson, 2008). Our interviews would seem to support the idea of English fitting into such a multi-variety system in terms of instantiating the more formal uses of language deemed necessary in written and official communication in South Sudan.

Due to the disruptive effects of civil war and instability over several decades, it is generally acknowledged that a generation of young to middle aged adults have received little or no basic education, a fact that would also account for very high rates of illiteracy.

Besides the multilingual nature of the country and fact that many citizens ‘lost out’ on a basic education, the issue of literacy is a further complicating factor as regards the provision of ELT since learning to read and write in the mother tongue – the language that users are most familiar with and have developed oral skills in – is an easier, quicker process than attempting to do so in a foreign language. For many people in South Sudan who have not received a basic education, the issue of literacy cuts across that of language and introduces a fundamental question of how the acquisition of both can best be structured. In terms of the development path of language and literacy skills in bilingual education, the usual sequence of stages is:
1. Develop listening and speaking in L1 (Mother tongue)
2. Progress to reading and writing in L1
3. Introduce listening and speaking in L2 (English)
4. Progress to reading and writing in L2

The mother tongue foundation (stages 1 and 2) enables a bridge to be built to oracy and literacy in the second language (stages 3 and 4). Whilst some variation on this basic pattern is possible (e.g. there may be an overlap between stages 2 and 3) - it is normally considered inadvisable to seek to introduce reading and writing in the foreign language (stage 4) before these skills have been acquired in the first language (stage 2). In educational or workplace contexts, the acquisition of reading and writing skills in L1 should be seen as a pre-requisite to the development of reading and writing skills in L2.

2.7 English in the development of South Sudan

If English is to play a long term role in South Sudan– as seems likely from its enshrinement in the constitution and from interviewees’ positive attitudes and aspirations towards the language – and given the parlous state of English within the country at present, then significant investment will be required to address this skills issue.

Barely a month ago, on 9th July 2011, South Sudan celebrated its independence as the newest country in Africa. The people and politicians have built up to this moment since the Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) was signed in 2005, ending decades of civil war. When faced with political change, poverty and a shortage of basic services, key questions to ask are, “why focus on English?” and “how can we justify investment in developing the English language competence of civil servants and other personnel in a situation where there are many priorities and only limited quantities of these resources”?

To answer these questions, it is generally understood that post-conflict recovery is made possible when economic growth and human development are fostered at the same time as other factors that could lead to a recurrence of conflict are addressed. Where English is a vital tool for accessing education and other development opportunities such as employment, widespread competence in the language can be regarded as one of the keys to post-conflict development.

English language competence is also a key to good governance in the context of South Sudan, and improving governance is a widely applied strategy for reducing
poverty and maintaining peace. DFID\(^1\) recognises the following overlapping principles of good governance:

- **Capability** ~ the extent to which leaders and governments are able to get things done; to formulate and implement policies effectively
- **Accountability** ~ the ability of citizens, civil society and the private sector to scrutinise public institutions and governments and hold them to account; this includes, ultimately, the opportunity to change leaders by democratic means
- **Responsiveness** ~ whether public policies and institutions respond to the needs of citizens and uphold their rights

All of these principles rest on effective communication and therefore good individual communication skills. Without the ability to express oneself in a shared language - officially English, in South Sudan's case - to ask the right questions, hear what others have to say, write a comprehensible memo or letter, tell your political representative what you want and need, read about new developments and so on, how can these principles be put into practice? (Griffiths, 2009).

Given the large number of civil servants who are potential ELT clients, large-scale training will be required to meet the needs of Government and other institutions. Alternatively, workplace-based learning could be considered as an ELT solution. The situation in GOSS institutions, where some individuals speak English rather well, lends itself to mentoring.

The government of South Sudan is also changing the old legal system, which was based on Islamic law, into a new English-language based legal system. Despite the importance now placed on English, many of the current generation of South Sudanese lawyers were trained in Arabic and have limited English skills. Consequently many members of the judiciary require English language skills to implement this major reform. Some ELT for this audience is already in hand, with the Joint Donor Team (JDT) having subsequently committed to engaging with the Audit Chamber to support the next module of ELT (JDT, 2011).

South Sudan must deal with potential instability within its own borders, and, after years of militarisation, needs also to strengthen its civil structures. Providing police and army officers with English language skills increases peacekeeping capabilities by

\(^1\) From Civil Society and Good Governance: Taking Forward the White Paper: *Making Governance Work for the Poor*, UK Department for International Development (DFID), 13 February 2009
enabling them to benefit from professional training, thereby improving their ability to tackle issues such as conflict prevention, terrorism and people trafficking. It will also allow South Sudanese officers to join multinational peacekeeping forces that use English as their medium of communication.

Related to this, there is also a need for improving English language skills within the media sector of South Sudan: “Given the presence of high illiteracy rates in Southern Sudan, emphasis shall be placed primarily on radio and television as the main media for information dissemination ... we will establish a satellite-based TV network in order to provide technically high quality broadcasts and expand the reach of its programmes within and beyond Sudan, particularly for the benefit of our diaspora... English language is very important for us - it's one of our main challenges in developing the service” (quote from a GOSS press release).

The role of English will be both a short term and a long-term one, but one that has important implications for the country’s stability and prosperity. Right now, South Sudan is a country that needs a way to continue talking, both internally and with its northern neighbour. In this context, English is the main language that allows North Sudan and South Sudan to communicate, and that can cut across tribal divides in the South, thereby paving the way for nation building.

“Can English really make a difference”? The short answer is “yes”: English language training is not a ‘quick fix’ for South Sudan’s problems, but it can stimulate development, is relatively inexpensive and sustainable, and may underpin a range of skills transformation projects.

### 2.8 Preliminary evidence: ELT interventions with a track record of success, at scale

#### 2.8.1 English in Action (EIA), Bangladesh

English in Action (EIA) is a nine-year project contributing to the economic development of Bangladesh. By 2017, EIA will have reached 25 million people in Bangladesh, including 14 million primary and secondary school children, and 11 million adult learners, improving their ability to use English language to participate in social and economic opportunities.

EIA is implemented in partnership with the Government of Bangladesh and a consortium of three international partners: BMB Mott McDonald, BBC World Service Trust, and the Open University; and two national partners: Underprivileged Children’s
Education Programme, and Friends in Village Development Bangladesh. EIA is funded through UKAID, at £50M.

During 2010-2011, a first cohort of 700 teachers took part in EIA, introducing new English language learning activities to 120,000 students from a representative sample of schools across all seven divisions of Bangladesh, with the next cohort of 5,000 teachers being due to begin EIA in early 2012. By 2014, EIA will reach 12,500 teachers and over 100,000 teachers by 2017.

In schools, EIA uses a work-based model for supporting changes in classroom practice, which has been shown to be effective in changing teacher attitudes (EIA, 2011a) and behaviours (EIA, 2011b) towards those that enable more communicative language learning activities. One of the central tools for facilitating such changes has been the use of the mobile phone, both to provide classroom audio resources in English language, and to provide teacher professional development resources through audio and video.

The focus on carrying out new classroom activities, supported through a work-based model, and drawing upon the power of low cost mobile phones to provide rich audio and visual materials, has enabled significant gains in English language competence, as assessed by independent monitoring and evaluation. For example, after one year, the proportion of primary students able to pass the Trinity assessment rose from 35% to 50%, whilst the pass rate for secondary students rose from 71% to 90% (EIA, 2010a & b, EIA, 2011c) (see Appendix 8.2 for further information).

2.8.2 Rwanda English in Action (REAP), Rwanda

REAP is a programme of the Rwandan Ministry of Education, following the decision to move to English as MoI in 2008. REAP targets the country’s primary and secondary school teachers, who are recognised as having generally low levels of English.

Key strategies are motivating teachers to learn English, increase their exposure to English, and maximising opportunities to practise English and use English in the classroom. To do this, REAP uses face-to-face English language training during long school recess, with self-directed study materials for self-paced learning in term time, and school-based mentoring to support teachers developing English. REAP also uses low cost recorded audio to reach large numbers of teachers, this time through broadcast radio: with national broadcasting of Teaching English Radio (TER) in 2010, and Learn English Radio (LER) in 2011. Monitoring is through the use of standardised English language assessments.
A thousand district level English trainers attended training events in Nov 2009 and November 2010, with the first cohort of forty thousand teachers beginning in December 2009, and a second round of training taking place in December 2010.

Between 2011 – 2015, REAP aims to train enough EL mentors to have one per school cluster, and to progress the face-to-face training to include subject specific English (e.g. English for Maths, English for Science...). REAP plans to provide self-directed learning resources to teachers, including an audio and video materials component, and to commission an English language assessment tool, matched to international standards.

### 2.8.3 English Language Improvement Programme (ELIP), Ethiopia

The ELIP programme (2003 – 2008) focussed upon improving the English language and pedagogic skills of primary and secondary teachers in Ethiopia. ELIP was funded by 6 European development partners, with technical input from the BC and two UK HEIs.

ELIP provided 120 hours of face-to-face training to 150,000 teachers from the state sector, with training delivered through 1,200 local trainers, and 200 training advisors. An external evaluation of ELIP by Lund University stated that “Teachers report ELIP having increased their confidence to use English and introduced them to modern teaching methods. It has shown them how to develop their own materials for language learning, how to create a friendly atmosphere and foster better relations with students”.

### 2.8.4 Review of preliminary evidence

Whilst there were significant differences in an approach and local context, there are a number of commonalities amongst the successful, large scale programmes identified:

- working at a scale appropriate to the need, reaching in the order of tens of thousands to over a hundred thousand teachers in each case;
- providing on-going, school-based support (or work based learning), in addition to short-term workshops or training;
- reaching such scale, and providing for institutionalisation, by working through or enhancing the existing state sector infrastructure for teacher training and support;
- premier UK institutions working in close collaboration with local partners, to develop skills and competence in large numbers (hundreds to thousands) of agents of change / teacher facilitators, spread across the country;
leaving a legacy of human capital for sustainability and future growth.

In addition, EIA and REAP both demonstrate the importance of:

- leveraging the potential of low cost / large reach communications technologies (mobile phones in EIA, radio in REAP) to provide appropriate English language audio resources to teachers and students;
- having a robust system of independent monitoring and evaluation, including assessments of English language competence that are standardised and that can be mapped to recognised international frameworks.

3 Mission

The objective of the scoping mission was to assess and prioritise the most important English language training needs in South Sudan, in the period following independence, in relation to four thematic areas:

- conducting central and state level official business;
- creating a new national identity;
- integrating with global and regional trade and commerce;
- introducing pedagogic change in the education sector.

The intention was to broadly establish, in relation to each thematic area:

- the key target groups;
- appropriate methodologies for enhancing ELT within these groups;
- the usefulness/benefits of ELT for these target groups;
- further questions that could be explored in the design and implementation of a programme of ELT provision for these groups.

A team of two specialists gathered data from 19-22 July 2011. This consisted of meetings with representatives of Ministries, SPLA, SSPS, NGOs, DFID, USAID, BC, HEIs, TTIs, and public and private sector organisations (see Appendix 8.1, List of Interviewees). Operating within severe time constraints, it was not possible to carry out interviews or fieldwork outside of Juba, to explore issues at State, County or Payam level.

Meetings with representatives followed a semi-structured format, covering four areas:

- personal histories in relation to English and other tongues;
- perspectives on the role of English and other tongues in South Sudan’s past, present and future;
- perspectives on the role of English and other tongues within their sector;
• perspectives on English language training and education within their sector: at present, and in desired futures.

The report provides a broad indication of areas of ELT need, and related issues, such as the need for basic education, literacy and numeracy. The report also identifies current activities attempting to address such needs, and the nature of the unresolved issues or tensions between the needs identified and current activities attempting to meet them.

Looking forward, the report makes recommendations of things donors should and should not do, in attempting to resolve some of these issues, and outlines a range of options for future donor investment in ELT skills development within South Sudan. The report also identifies a number of issues requiring further investigation, in order to be able to develop sufficient depth of insight for adequate planning.

4 Data analysis

4.1 English language training needs in South Sudan

The demand for English language was expressed strongly and almost universally, throughout the interviews. However there was significant variation in the nature of English language skills that were seen as desirable, depending upon the audience being discussed, and the purposes or practices for which that audience might use English language.

In 2.6, it was noted that in many African contexts, indigenous languages are seen to be more useful for more informal communication, often orally, whilst European languages may been seen as better suited to more formal contexts, particularly those that draw upon or generate written texts. This was borne out in many of the interviews, which indicated that Juba-Arabic or mother tongue languages predominate in verbal interactions, particularly in less-formal settings. Within the workplace, this is particularly true in situations where employees are working with the general public, from bank clerks serving customers, to nurses caring for patients in a hospital. English is generally not seen to have an important role to play, at least currently, within such contexts.

However, even for such ‘public-facing’ staff, spoken English is seen as a potentially critical factor for enabling people to exploit opportunities that are available to them for professional and career development. Almost all available training or development opportunities are facilitated by regional trainers from the EAC, or in some cases by English speaking nationals from the UK, USA or South Africa. For some, typically
middle-to-higher level employees, there may also be opportunities to attend training outside South Sudan, but again almost always in an Anglophone context. Therefore, even for staff who may not need English for their day-to-day interactions with the public, the ability to communicate in spoken English is seen to be important, and highly prized, in relation to skills and career development (see 2.8).

For middle and senior management spoken English is needed more regularly and fluently, as it is typically established as the language of business, in both the private (e.g. regional corporations) and public (e.g. central government) sectors. However, within both sectors, fluency and competency in English appears not to be widespread, at least in relation to the local population.

In most contexts where written documents are regularly used, those documents are likely to be in English. The ability to make sense of, or create such documents, can be a critically important aspect of participation in professional practices (see 4.4.1). Developing English language competence in relation to handling the written word, in the workplace, is likely to play an important role in increasing the effectiveness of organisations to function efficiently. For example, one interviewee gave the illustration of written documents being printed and then travelling through an organisation from hand-to-hand, with a verbal explanation as to what the document might say being given at each hand-over, as neither the person giving, nor receiving the document is likely to be able to read and effectively comprehend the meaning of the documents. This clearly is both inefficient, and very likely to be ineffective, in terms of organisations being able to function. Whilst almost all interviewees gave the impression this issue was widespread in their sector, and the literature clearly indicates literacy levels to be very low, there has not been sufficient time to establish the extent to which those employed are the literate minority, or in what roles or levels within organisations literacy presents a challenge. Further investigation of literacy and in particular English literacy levels in the workplace is recommended.

Several interviewees, representing all sectors, also made reference to a need for senior managers and leaders within their sector to have higher-level communication skills, linked not solely to competence in English language, but more broadly to be able to communicate in English, through written forms and presentation, to effect good governance (see 2.8) and effective leadership within their organisations.

4.2 Current activities in skills development

When interviewees described the current response to the identified English language needs within their sector, or the opportunities available for people to develop English
language competence, they typically referred to face-to-face training, working with small groups (i.e. around 20-60 people), for a relatively short period (e.g. 3 months). The numbers of people able to participate in such training may be quite small, in relation to the extent of need identified. For example, in central government, MHRD estimate there are approximately 4,000 people requiring ELT training within the ministries; a UK consultancy is shortly expected to begin face-to-face training, limited to groups of 30 people by the available training venues, and drawing attendees only from the Ministry of Agriculture and ministry of Public Service. The British Council is involved in a number of such activities at present. In the security services, two BC consultants are providing training over 3-6 month periods, to groups of 60 middle ranking to senior soldiers, drawn from an army of some 200,000 soldiers; similarly, in the SSPS the BC is providing ELT to around 40 senior police officers, and to an additional 40 senior officers of the Joint Integrated Unit. The BC has also recently provided ELT to 100 officials from the GOSS Ministry of Legal Affairs.

In the schools sector, the Windle trust is the largest provider of ELT, currently working with approximately 3,000 teachers. Again this is face-to-face training with groups of 25-30 teachers, typically running over 3 months. Windle are unique in that all of their trainers are Sudanese nationals. However, much of the training provided appears to be in the form of ‘grammar translation’, which is not an effective approach for helping people improve their ability to communicate in the target language.

In some cases staff have been encouraged to attempt to improve their own English, but there appear to be very few options open for them to do this. There is little evidence of private sector provision in ELT at this time. There were reports of informal English learning groups organised by staff within some hospital wards, but these were short lived and ineffective. We have observed large numbers of girls attending an informal English learning club during the school holidays, with much enthusiasm, but the women facilitating the club had no access to supporting learning materials.

**4.3 Issues to be addressed through future ELT provision**

The evidence suggests that there are large-scale needs for ELT across the population in general, and within the different sectors targeted by the study. Future ELT provision must be at an appropriate scale, if it is to have significant impact within the short-to-medium term future. In order to work at scale, future training cannot depend upon expatriate trainers. More scalable approaches, with higher value for money, would include the use of regional trainers, local trainers, and peer facilitators.
All provision should have an emphasis on the communicative practices that the participants need to engage in; in other words, it should be relevant to the ways in which the participants need to use English, and they activities they are likely to be carrying out when they use it: focussing upon communication and understanding.

It can be assumed that ELT participants will present along a cline of proficiency, which likelihood needs to be taken into account in programme design. Besides addressing the needs of individuals at various broad levels of English competency, it will also be important to distinguish two other key dimensions of training: that which centres around listening and speaking skills, and that which focuses on manipulating written text. This might broadly suggest three different audiences for ELT:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Audience</th>
<th>Basic functional spoken English</th>
<th>Basic functional English literacy</th>
<th>Communicating in English through writing and presentation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General population</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General working population</td>
<td></td>
<td>(x)</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle to Senior management</td>
<td>(x)</td>
<td>(x)</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.4 Sector specific analyses

4.4.1 Conducting central and state level official business

Two broad patterns of language use are generally observed in public domains such as government, health and education: the first is that day-to-day paperwork and the more formal mechanisms of state bureaucracy are conducted in the ex-colonial language – English being the preferred vehicle for this in South Sudan. However, outside these formal areas of interaction, African languages tend to be used, though the case of South Sudan is different in this regard in that Juba Arabic – or another non-standard variety of classical Arabic - is frequently reported as the language of choice for spoken interaction in the workplace.

In central government ministries, all written documentation, data and communication is handled in English. Most meetings are also conducted in English. In a recent Training Needs Assessment, many staff within central government identified English as their most important training need. Collated at Ministry or Department level,
English was frequently identified as one of the 5 most important training needs. For some Ministries, it was identified as the most important training need. 

The generally low levels of ability to use written English effectively within the workplace may also be a critical issue in relation to organisational efficiency and effectiveness, not just in public sector ministries, but also in relation to field level staff too. For example, within hospitals, nurses ought to be able to read the instructions on drug packaging or prescriptions; junior doctors should be able to read medical notes; within schools, teachers should be able to read curriculum documents, or classroom texts; within the security services, soldiers should be able to read orders, and police officers should be able to take statements and write incident reports. Yet in all of these professional practices, it appears from interview testimony that many current employees are likely have low levels of literacy in general, and low levels of English literacy in particular.

There are also important issues relating to English language competence and the Judiciary. Despite the importance placed on English, many of the current generation of South Sudanese lawyers were trained in Arabic and have limited English skills. This creates a problem as regards the government’s desire to change the former legal system that was based on Islamic law into a new English-based legal system. This legal system is imperative to establishing the rule of law, yet many members of the judiciary do not have the English language skills to implement this major reform.

Within the Security Services, the need for English literacy is critical. The lead consultant developing ELT for the SSPF estimates that 80% of all police staff have extremely low levels of literacy, and are will have very little ability to engage with written English in their work. Subsequently, the minority of officers and support staff that are literate in English are hugely overworked, carrying the literacy and information burden of the whole system.

Whilst the literacy rate for South Sudan is very low, at 38%, the proportion of literate women is far lower than this (UNESCO, year), and this has significant repercussions for the effectiveness and deployment of women in field level activities. For example, the SSPF has a policy that victims of violent crime against women should be seen by female police officers, yet in practice this rarely happens, as many female officers are unable to take statements from the victims, as they may not have sufficient literacy skills (in English) to produce a written statement. Therefore, male officers who can take a written statement are usually deployed instead.
Within the SPLA, it is estimated that only 10% of soldiers have basic functional English; many soldiers may also be effectively illiterate and enumerate, though a large-scale 6-week basic literacy programme may have raised literacy levels amongst servicemen to 30% since CPA (though we cannot verify this). The lack of basic education, including being able to engage with written English, severely limits the ability of the army to function effectively, at all ranks. Education is one of the top 5 programmes within the SDLA transformation strategy.

The SPLA currently has at approximately 200,000 soldiers (or significantly more, according to some interviewees), but following independence, there is a pressing need to Disarm, Demobilise and Rehabilitate between 80,000 to 100,000 of these men. The majority of these soldiers have had little or no education, and providing them with basic literacy and numeracy is seen to be an important aspect of the DDR process. Within this, there may be some role for also providing English language training, as a marketable skill.

### 4.4.2 Creating a new national identity

Possible roles of English language in contributing to African national identity are discussed in section 2.3, drawing upon the literature and the experiences of other nations in Sub-Saharan Africa. The interview data is supportive of this analysis, suggesting that English is likely to have an important and unifying role in establishing national identity, but within a collectivity of other languages, including Juba-Arabic and fifty mother tongues.

Many interviewees refer to particular groups who are least likely to have well developed English language skills:

- those who fled the fighting, taking refuge in northern Sudan, being immersed in an Arabic environment;
- children who stayed in South Sudan during the conflict, and were educated with Arabic as an imposed medium of instruction in the school system. Now as adults, for some there is a powerful affective reaction to the previous imposition of Arabic (for example ‘I began learning in English at school, but then I was forced to learn Arabic; it was imposed upon us.’);
- those who stayed in South Sudan during the conflict, but who had no access to education;

and particularly:

- those who participated in the armed conflict in throughout their youth.
Many of the people within these groups are now aged 25-50, and may make up a significant proportion (possibly a majority) of the adult population.

By comparison, those South Sudanese who fled to Anglo-phone countries within the region during the conflict, are generally returning with much higher levels of English language competence. Some talk of having made great commitment to acquire English, as part of their aspirations for a new national identity (for example, ‘During the war, I was a refugee in DRC, where I was schooled in French. One day, a British man visited our refugee school. He advised us to go to Uganda, so we could adapt to English, as this would be key to our national future. I and about 50 other students hiked to Uganda, where we completed our schooling. There were many more students who followed us. Most of my colleagues left French, and took up English.’).

The uneven distribution of English language competence leads to unequal access to opportunities for employment, career development, and unequal access to personal or professional development opportunities through training or education. This situation is a potential source of resentment between those who stayed in SS during the conflict and fought for their country (SPLA or ex-SPLA); yet who may now feel they are at risk of being excluded from opportunities which are open to returnees who fled during the war, but have returned with better English language skills.

This underlines the importance of embedding principles of equity and inclusion in any plans to facilitate access to English, particularly if these should be large-scale, so that the as many people as possible feel opportunities to access English language are open to them, and through that opportunity, they are included in further opportunities for personal and community development, and have a stake in the new nation.

4.4.3 Integrating with global and regional trade and commerce

Stability in South Sudan, like everywhere else, goes beyond the government, judiciary and security organs: it is also essential to encourage further foreign investment and trade. As one of the most disadvantaged countries of the world, with extremely high rates of hunger and infant mortality, independent South Sudan, through its oil reserves, has a potential source of revenue to improve the lives of the very poorest of its citizens.

Even in today’s globalised world with the rise of other languages such as Chinese, English still remains the language of business. The potential for South Sudan to increase trade and investment, and opportunity to align with the English-speaking economies of the East African Community, reinforces the need for English so as to develop economically and engage with its neighbours.
The interview evidence broadly affirms the importance of links between South Sudan and the East African Community (EAC), and the role of English language in enabling and supporting those links. Whilst Swahili and Arabic may serve as a lingua franca between some nations in the region, English language is seen to be the only acceptable, available lingua franca between South Sudan and the EAC.

The CEO of Equity bank estimates that up to 75% of all employed labour in South Sudan is currently filled with immigrant workers, predominantly from Kenya and Uganda, with others from Ethiopia, Eritrea and elsewhere in the EAC. This is supported by the example of a local hotel employing some 30 staff, of whom 83% are Kenyan and Uganda, with only 27% South Sudanese. In contrast to the general finding in 4.1, where we suggest Juba-Arabic or mother tongue languages predominate for spoken communication in informal contexts, if it is true that the majority of employed workers are immigrants, then spoken English may actually act as the lingua franca for a majority of the workforce. This needs further investigation.

English is typically the language of business within such regional corporations, and may be a pre-requisite for employment with them. For example, Equity Bank has a minimum requirement of ‘O’ level division 2 in English, for all employees. Although Equity are currently able to find recruit enough staff with this level of English, they anticipate this becoming problematic as they double the number of staff employed over the next year, in the process of opening new branches in the states. The increase in regionally based businesses is expected to increase competition for staff able to communicate in English, both orally and through the written word.

Although English is seen an essential skill for Sudanese workers to be employed within regional businesses, it is not the only essential skill that is required. Literacy levels in particular, and adequate levels of basic education in general, are very low. For example, Equity bank has a policy to employ 90% local staff, in whichever country it is operating in, but in South Sudan, it is currently achieving less than 70% local staffing, as it is unable to recruit enough appropriately skilled and qualified staff.

However, when regional businesses carry out skills development programmes, these are generally facilitated by English speaking regional trainers, or in some instances sending South Sudanese staff for training courses hosted in other EAC countries. In both cases, staff who do not have sufficient English language skills to participate appropriately, are likely to be excluded from opportunities for professional or career development.
4.4.4 Introducing pedagogic change in the education sector

The challenges within the education sector of South Sudan could hardly be overstated. At grassroots level, an estimated 85% of the population cannot read or write. However polls consistently demonstrate that education is the number one priority for the people of Southern Sudan (USAID SS RFA 2011).

South Sudan has arguably one of the poorest performing education systems in the world. In a listing of net primary education enrolment rates in 123 countries, South Sudan is ranked second lowest; and for secondary enrolment, South Sudan is the lowest ranked of 134 countries, with only 34,000 secondary students in the country. Half of all 18 year olds have never attended school.

Unsurprisingly, the situation for girls is even worse than these rankings suggest, with just 37% of primary students and 12% of teachers being female.

In addition to this, a further 1 million school aged children are expected to be added to the population, as refugee families return to South Sudan following independence.

There is an urgent and ongoing need for school building: in 7/10 states, there are over 500 school-age children per classroom: for example in Unity state, there are 2,113 children per classroom, in Jonglei state: 1,008 children per classroom; NBEG: 797 children per classroom and Upper Nile, 686 children per classroom.

In a system that should offer eight years of primary education, only 13% of schools offer the whole primary cycle, with low retention rates meaning many primary schools only run from years 1-4. A number of interviewees suggest that in primary schools lessons typically only take place for approximately two to three hours a day.

60% of teachers did not themselves complete primary education. The Education Management Information System (EMIS) estimates that the majority of primary teachers are unqualified: Of the 24,000 primary teachers that MoE supports, 96% of them have no formal qualifications and 63% have no teacher training at all. This has a dramatic effect on the quality of teaching and learning.

(UNSECO press briefing).

The need for English language within schools needs to be seen within this wider context, of a system that is effectively failing to provide meaningful education to the majority of children.
Utilising a European language as educational mainstay represents perhaps the easiest choice for government in so far as it allows for a uniform set of teaching materials to be produced in a single language for the entire school population – though this may not be optimal for young learners from a pedagogic perspective. Although the language education policy is for children to be schooled in two languages – the mother tongue and a European language of wider communication – there may not be sufficient learning materials or trained teachers in the either, to be able to implement such a policy effectively at this time.

In relation to mother tongue teaching, mixed classes of students speaking different national languages –often the case in urban areas - makes it difficult for a single mother tongue to be selected for teaching purposes, in which case the European language may become the default. This is more likely to be so where negative attitudes towards use of the mother tongue in formal settings, such as education, are reinforced by economic pressure to learn languages associated with better employment opportunities.

The government of South Sudan has adopted English as the language of instruction from upper primary level onwards, in schools, colleges and universities. Due to the severe shortage of English-speaking teachers, teacher educators and academics, there is an urgent need to train these cohorts, as well as to ensure English language skills are embedded within and across the key implementation agencies of the education system: among officials in the ministry of education charged with reforming the sector, among curriculum development staff responsible for developing new syllabi in English, among school inspectors who have the key role of quality assuring English-medium teaching and among national examination setters and markers whose task is to organise and carry out learning assessment in English.

Communicative ELT may have considerable potential for introducing pedagogic change in the education sector by modelling contemporary, learner-centred teaching methods where students are more engaged in classroom activities and there are more opportunities to promote 'deeper learning' across all subjects.

Most teachers do not have adequate English Language skills to benefit from pre-service or in-service training related to the new curriculum, or to engage with new curriculum materials written in English; this is a likely to be a significant factor contributing to the implementation difficulties experienced in introducing the new curriculum.
In four states (Upper Nile, Western B.E.G., Unity and Warap), where up to 80% of teachers are reported to be Arabic trained, with poor English Language skills. These teachers need to be able to both understand the new curriculum in English and teach their subject in English, and will require training and support in order to do this.

The English language component of USAID’s forthcoming Teacher Professional Development Initiative (TPDI) is likely to reach only about one third of the teaching workforce (9,000 out of 26,000) over the next 3 years, leaving significant numbers of teachers unskilled in English language. In addition, MoEST’s ambition is that all secondary school teachers will be qualified at degree level. Given the choice of English as MoI, this will entail considerable English language skills training in this area in the university-based colleges of education.

In addition, English language has been identified as a roadblock to gender empowerment and fulfilment of the 25% female quota in all public bodies as prescribed in the CPA. Besides a governance issue, English is a barrier in education due to the lack of female teachers who make up only 14% of all teachers (USAID SS RFA, 2011).

5 In moving towards new programmes DFID should:

5.1 …focus on:

There is a need for coherent and strategic activity in relation to English language teaching within South Sudan. Approaches deployed need to be at an appropriately large scale, to be proportionate to the needs identified. The approaches should focus upon activities explicitly designed to deliver impact: that have a high degree of relevance to the practices the end users require English language competence for.

Materials should be developed to support English language development, capitalising upon economies of scale, and maximising reach and impact. In particular, the opportunities for using appropriate, low-cost communications technologies (e.g. radio and mobile phone) should be thoroughly explored in relation to all interventions. The role of such technologies is likely to be critical in widening exposure to spoken English language, and in providing model language and stimulus material for peer and individual learning, particularly in contexts where levels of literacy are generally very low. The opportunity to supplement such resources through print, for example, through ELT pages in newspapers, should be explored, perhaps particularly for more literate audiences, such as Arabic speaking teachers, or ELT facilitators in the workplace.
Trainers should be recruited, ideally from the local population, or regionally, that can support English language development cost-effectively (e.g. at $200-$300 pcm), and in sufficient numbers to ultimately operate implementation at scale, across broad geographic regions. In addition, for the general population, the opportunity for community based, peer-supported initiatives should be explored.

Where possible, the private sector should fund their own implementation of English language training within their organisations, and private sector providers should be encouraged to provide such services. The role of donor funding to design and produce affordable and locally relevant materials should be explored, and again exploiting economies of scale.

Interventions should be developed to acknowledge the broader issues around basic education, literacy and numeracy and communication skills, as well as English language needs.

In particular, we recommend that DFID should focus on key areas of English language teaching, to provide for:

1. wide-spread need for basic functional English, to develop sense of inclusion in the new nation and to enable access to opportunities for development;
2. wide-spread need for professional / vocational English literacy, in relation to making sense of written texts in the work place;
3. higher level provision for middle managers, focussing upon critical reading of written texts, and ability to communicate ideas effectively through spoken and written English.

(see table in section 4.3)

Above and beyond focussing on these aspects of ELT provision for the general population, we recommend a particular consideration be given to two specific audiences, both critical to nation building:

4. improving the English language competence and ELT practice of teachers, particularly in P1 – P4;
5. improving the English language competence and employability of soldiers going through DDR.

### 5.2 …avoid:

Although there are some positive aspects of current provision that could be drawn together and built upon, there are several common features that DFID should avoid replicating in future funding:
• small scale, piecemeal approaches;
• general or decontextualized approaches to English (low relevance to context / practice; low impact);
• training that emphasises grammar-based learning over the ability to communicate and be understood through English;
• unsustainable / un-scaleable / uneconomical approaches that operate with over-dependence on native speaking expatriate trainers.

6 Options for future EL skills development

6.1 Foundation course: Functional Spoken English

This is intended to reach the widest possible audience, focussing particularly upon spoken English. The intention is to equip local community groups (for example, informal learning circles or English learning clubs, which arise from schools, workplaces, churches or villages) with a range of tools and activities to support their informal learning of spoken English. Although aimed primarily at socially supported informal peer learning environments, such materials should also be designed so that individual learners could use them.

Given the low levels of literacy, the main resources would have to be audio resources, which might be delivered through Radio (possibly building / adapting the ‘Rabea’ IRI resources and broadcasts currently developed for informal adult learning by SSIRI; possibly working with or through the BBC-World Service Trust, which may have the second highest radio listenership figures for South Sudan). According to the commercial director of Zain, South Sudan’s largest mobile network provider, mobile phone buyers are expressing a strong preference for phones that have FM radio built-in, and this is underpinning an increase in radio listenership across the country. Many phones with FM radio built in also have an option for recording broadcasts, which might allow for further flexibility of use and benefit from broadcast radio output.

Audio resources may also be developed to be delivered through the mobile phone network, most simply through Interactive Voice Recognition systems, such as those currently used within English in Actions’ Janala programme in Bangladesh. In addition, it may be possible to offer some further support materials in print, through local newspapers, such as used with REAP by the British Council in Rwanda, though this would require further investigation.
Whilst the materials and activities should be designed for informal learning groups, it is recommended that thought is also given to the role of a peer-facilitator, and some guidance or support as to how a facilitator might lead a group, or respond to IRI prompts, should be included. Further exploration should be given to the possibility of supporting peer facilitators through:

- audio resources that could be made available on mobile phones, which could be played ‘on demand’ within meetings of informal learning groups (as opposed to IRI, which has its own immutable time frame);
- some form of training, assessment and accreditation for effective facilitators, that could be the basis for these being recognised as marketable skills.

6.2 Foundation course: Functional English Literacy for the Workplace

In the workplace, there is a particular need for making sense of the written word, which is predominantly in English language.

The low levels of literacy amongst the general population complicate this challenge, as discussed in sections 2.7, 4.1, and 4.4.1. The extent to which South Sudanese staff employed in the workplace have sufficient basic literacy to begin developing literacy in English is likely to vary from sector to sector, and at different levels within each sector. Further investigation is required to provide a clearer analysis of basic literacy skills in the workplace (as a foundation for developing literacy in English), and through this, to clarify the extent to which programmes to develop functional English literacy for the workplace might also need to include general foundations of literacy. (It may be, that with only 25% of jobs currently being taken by Sudanese nationals in some sectors, those who are employed represent the literate minority.)

In order to increase value for money and sustainability, it is recommended that donor funding might be used to support the development and production of materials (in consultation with representatives from the target sectors), and to devise a ‘training of the trainers’ programme.

But it is also recommended that the possibility of provision and delivery of training through the private sector should be explored. For example, if donor funding was used to develop low-cost, high impact materials and activities, adapted for the literacy practices within key sectors, private sector providers (in house or independent) might be able to pay for training of trainers, and offer delivery of service.
In relation to service delivery within GOSS: certain challenges beg to be considered: it would seem that the number of potential ELT clients within the civil service is countless while local capacity to deliver training is limited.

Three complementary strategies suggest themselves for ELT activity:

i. support the development of ability in an established institution to provide large-scale training to meet the needs of Government and other institutions (e.g. the University of Juba English Language Centre);

ii. provide a specialist service for cadres whose efficiency impacts crucially on effectiveness e.g. Secretaries working for Ministers, Under-Secretaries and Directors;

iii. strengthen English competence in GOSS institutions by creating and building the capacity of a cadre of English mentors.

As an alternative to formal classroom-based training, workplace-based learning could be considered as a preferred ELT solution. The situation in GOSS institutions, where some individuals speak English rather well, lends itself to mentoring. This would operate by identifying able and willing speakers of English to work with a group of mentees in their own department - a ratio of 1:10 would be feasible. The mentor would have a certain amount of time available - written into their job description - to assist mentees with challenges posed by English e.g. letter-writing and preparing and giving presentations. Mentors would need initial training to be able to carry out their role as well as some follow-up support. Given that this would be a fairly novel approach for South Sudan, it would make sense to demonstrate the value of the scheme through a pilot.

6.3 Communicating in English for leadership and management

The third area or potential activity relates to developing effective leadership and management at middle to senior levels within organisations. In relation to public sector bodies (Central and State government, the Education and Health systems, the Security services and the Judiciary), this is bound up with the development of good governance (see section 2.8).

The purpose of activity in this area would be to develop faculty for:

- critical reading of documents in the workplace;
- authoring written texts for different purposes: persuasive writing, report writing, giving instruction….focus on clarity of communication;
- presenting ideas in English.
In broadest terms, this is about enabling the leaders and managers within sectors to be able to clearly weigh and evaluate the merits of different key texts within their document, to judge what the quality of what is being communicated, and the way in which it is being communicated. It is also the help participants develop skills in different genres of writing, from producing reports, setting out procedures, giving instruction, to persuasive writing. Finally, it intended to help participants be able to communicate these ideas, through English in a face-to-face environment.

It may be worth considering integrating such a programme with some basic ICT skills, in relation to word processing or presentation software.

The audiences for such programmes are clearly significantly smaller than 6.1 or 6.2, and the level and quality of facilitation required being significantly higher. Such programmes, at least in the early stages, may possibly require significant input from regional or international facilitators, although the intention should be to work towards developed the skills of local facilitators to deliver such training, with the support of high quality materials.

Consideration should be given to whether there may be some currently recognised assessment and award in leadership and management that could be incorporated, as additional incentive and recognition.

6.4 Pedagogic reform through communicative English teaching in primary schools

As previously noted in section 4.4.4, the issues in relation to educational reform in South Sudan are amongst the most challenging to be found anywhere. It is therefore recommended that DFID should view any initiatives related to ELT in schools as situated within the wider context of seeking to improve school enrolment and attendance (especially for girls) as well as improving the quality, training and practice of teachers in broad pedagogic terms. Further, the authors recognise that attempts to improve teachers knowledge, skill and practice must also be supported by broader systemic engagement with other stakeholders, including head teachers, school management committees, as well as Payam and County level education officers or inspectors.

In this context, we suggest ELT is seen as a vehicle for pedagogic reform within the primary education sector, initially focussing upon P1-P4, given the relatively small percentage of the school age population who currently proceed to higher levels of primary education. Within this broad umbrella, we argue that to be successful in
delivering broad impact, interventions should seek to include and integrate across three areas of activity:

1. Communicative ELT for English as a subject, in years P1-P3: Teaching English to Young Learners (TEYL). This will help challenge traditional – grammar-based – approaches to ELT and help build a platform for the transition to English as MoI in P4.

2. Improving Mother Tongue literacy as foundation for English literacy, P1-P3.

3. Transitioning to English as Medium of Instruction (TEMoI), in P4. Providing support to P4 teachers of core subjects in learning and implementing bilingual teaching methods (L1-L2-L1) for the transition from mother tongue instruction (L1) to English as the language of learning (L2) in subsequent primary education (P5- P8).

Donors might also consider (possibly later) interventions to support teachers of core subjects in acquiring content and language integrated teaching (CLIL) methods, so that they may effectively deliver the curriculum as prescribed, through English as the medium of instruction.

The recommended methodology would be to include and build upon face-to-face training, but to spread the available number of days training over a significantly longer period of time (perhaps 12-24 months), to allow teachers to develop both the language competence and practical pedagogy required. In between the face-to-face workshops or local cluster meetings, we recommend on-going school-based, peer supported learning, supported by locally relevant, high quality materials. The focus of each strand of the intervention should be on introducing new activities in the classroom, with support.

Supporting materials would need to include audio resources, made available through either radio or mobile phones as appropriate, alongside hard-copy materials. Supporting materials would need to include materials for direct use with students in the classroom, as well as materials aimed at developing the teachers own knowledge and competence.

Such an approach has been demonstrated to have a higher impact on practice, whilst being inherently more scale-able and cost effective than traditional ‘face to face’ centre based training (see EIA research summary, appendix 8.2).

Additionally, consideration should be given to supporting inspectorate and administrative staff, to help in acquiring EL skills and understandings of communicative language learning practices, so as to be able to undertake and report
on school visits, including classroom observations, as well as provide advice to
teachers working in English as medium of instruction.

6.5 English language skills for Disarmament, Demobilisation and
Reintegration

The DDR programme is anticipated to demobilise approximately ten thousand
soldiers per year, to a total of some eighty to a hundred thousand personnel. Within
the 12-month DDR programme, current plans include a six-month ‘optional’
component, related to (vocational) education, to equip personnel with certifiable,
marketable skills, which will improve their employment opportunities. A course in
functional English language proficiency might be an attractive option within this
context.

As it is reported that only around a third of the military personnel have mother tongue
literacy (provided through a six week basic literacy programme, BLP), it is likely that
this provision would need to include provision for basic literacy in mother tongue too.
Although further investigation is needed, it might be possible to adapt the BLP
programme, or draw upon some of the capacity currently used to deliver it.

The six month optional English for DDR programme, could draw upon, or be a
specific instance of, the functional English course (section 6.1) and functional English
literacy course (6.2) already proposed, in which case the materials and facilitator
resources may already be available, needing only adaptation of the training schedule
for this context.

Military advisors strongly recommend that to ensure effective training, the personnel
would have to be independently assessed for competence at the end of the course,
and trainers would have to be on some form of ‘performance based pay’, dependant
upon the number of personnel achieving the target outcomes. To be cost effective
and scale-able, the programme should draw upon local or regional trainers, with
salaries around $200-$300 per month.

6.6 Raising the profile of South Sudan as an Anglophone state

Whilst all of the previous options are actually aimed at improving aspects of English
language competence for different target audiences in South Sudan, this final option
is aimed at raising the symbolic value of English, in relation to the new nation state
(see 2.2 and 2.3), and in relation to the function of English as a tool for development
(see 2.4 and 2.8).
This option is to use a series of high profile events to celebrate and affirm the position of South Sudan as a member state in the Anglophone world, and within the East African Community. The events would also be used as a platform to publicise other activities taking place in South Sudan, where English is being used to support or foster development.

These might be based upon similar events that have been organised for the government in Rwanda and other Sub-Saharan Africa states, through the British Council.

7 Issues for further consideration

In the course of laying out the options in section 6, a number of issues have already been identified, requiring further consideration. These are to:

- investigate the extent to which spoken English operates as a lingua franca within the workplace, in relation to proportion or balance of local and regional workers (6.1);
- explore whether there is a possible role of print materials (e.g. in Newspapers) in supporting 6.1 and particularly those facilitating it;
- explore the possibility of using mobile phone based resources to support peer facilitators (6.1);
- explore options for training and accreditation of facilitators (6.1);
- develop a clearer understanding of the extent of literacy, and specifically English literacy, amongst South Sudanese employees in the workplace (6.2);
- explore the possible role of the private sector in service provision (6.2);
- explore whether there may be an appropriate level existing accreditation for leaders / managers (6.3);
- explore whether or not aspects of the basic literacy programme could be incorporated within the suggested ELT programme for DDR (6.5).

In addition to these, it is suggested further consideration be given to:

- role of ICT in South Sudan, and interface between English communication skills development and ICT skills development, for gateway functions;
- how best to address the interface between English and mother tongue, so as to ensure successful transfer of language and literacy skills from L1 to L2 for education, employment, trade, peace-keeping etc.;
- desirability of ELT for key group not included in ToR – members of the fourth estate, the press and media;
- Nexus opportunities - to help establish/strengthen formal ELT networks such as:
  - The Association of Sudanese Teachers of English Language (ASTEL) - established in 2006 and currently has around 100 members - mostly university teachers but with school teachers forming a small minority;
  - Student Action for Education (SAFE) - established in 2003 to provide - and support - volunteer English teachers for schools.
8 Annexes

8.1 List of interviewees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Organization</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Johnny Torrens-Spence</td>
<td>Director, Training Support and Policy, SPLA</td>
<td>Adam Smith International, Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charlie Goldsmith</td>
<td>Payroll consultant to GOSS</td>
<td>Booz &amp; Co</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mark Malleleieu</td>
<td>Head, DFID South Sudan</td>
<td>DFID</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paul Gitahi</td>
<td>Executive Director, South Sudan</td>
<td>Equity Bank</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mirella</td>
<td>Acting Undersecretary for Capacity and Development</td>
<td>Ministry of Human Resource Development, GOSS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hezron Nyagaka</td>
<td>HRD Officer, IGAD project</td>
<td>Ministry of Human Resource Development, GOSS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>William Osafo</td>
<td>Education Office</td>
<td>USAID, SUDAN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Steward Kutiyote</td>
<td>Education Programme Manager</td>
<td>Windle Trust International</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ayak De Dut</td>
<td>English Language Specialist</td>
<td>Windle Trust International</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Richard Trewby</td>
<td>Chief of Party</td>
<td>Southern Sudan Interactive Radio Instruction; Education Development Centre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mervyn Patterson</td>
<td>Senior Governance and Conflict Adviser</td>
<td>DFID</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Billy White</td>
<td>Military education advisor to SPLA</td>
<td>US special forces (retired)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>William Wilberforce</td>
<td>Brigadier General, Chief Administrator</td>
<td>Moral Organisation (MO), SPLA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wani Mena</td>
<td>CEO</td>
<td>Juba Teaching Hospital</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sharon Hart</td>
<td>Safety &amp; Access to Justice Programme</td>
<td>SS Police Service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yasir Eldiridiri</td>
<td>Commercial Director - South Sudan</td>
<td>Zain (Telecom)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rev Emmanuel</td>
<td>Education Programme Manager</td>
<td>Episcopal Church of Sudan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Janella Neslon</td>
<td>Education Programme Manager</td>
<td>Norwegian Refugee Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foda Michael</td>
<td>Project Delivery Manager</td>
<td>British Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alice Castillejo</td>
<td>Country Representative</td>
<td>Voluntary Service Overseas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professor Aggrey Abate</td>
<td>Vice Chancellor</td>
<td>Juba University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Michael Baffoka</td>
<td>Head of English Dept and Director of Centre for Languages and Translation</td>
<td>Juba University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simon Nyok Deng</td>
<td>Secretary for Secondary Examinations</td>
<td>Ministry of Education, GoSS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jackie Marshall</td>
<td>Bilingual Education Coordinator</td>
<td>Summer Institute of Linguistics, SS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nicholas Ramsden</td>
<td>M&amp;E Officer Education, Basic Services Fund Secretariat</td>
<td>BMB Mott MacDonald</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stefanie von Westarp</td>
<td>Policy Officer, Aid Effectiveness / Head of Technical Secretariat- CBTF</td>
<td>Joint Donor Team</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caroline D’Anna</td>
<td>Education Programme Support Officer</td>
<td>Episcopal Church of Sudan</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
8.2 Example of effective ELT at scale: English in Action – Summary of Research and Evaluation

Project overview

English in Action (EIA) is a nine-year project contributing to the economic development of Bangladesh. EIA aims to increase the number of people able to use English language in order to participate in social and economic activities. By 2017, EIA will have reached 25 million people in Bangladesh, including primary and secondary school children, and adult learners.

EIA is implemented in partnership with the Government of Bangladesh and a consortium of three international partners: BMB Mott McDonald, BBC World Service Trust, and the Open University; and two national partners: Underprivileged Children’s Education Programme, and Friends in Village Development Bangladesh. EIA is funded through UKAID.

During 2010-2011, 700 teachers took part in pilot interventions, introducing new English language learning activities with 120,000 students from a representative sample of schools across all seven divisions of Bangladesh.

Teachers carried out these new activities with the support of project materials, including audio-visual training and classroom materials made available at low cost through mobile technologies.

Pairs of teachers supported each other in school, as well as participating in workshops and cluster meetings beyond school.

The EIA teacher support model

Map of intervention areas
Research summary

Alongside the teacher training and support ran an extensive research programme seeking to:

1. understand views and experiences of teaching and learning English
2. monitor changes in classroom practice
3. independently evaluate any gains in the ability to communicate in English.

EIA studies focusing upon teachers included quantitative observations of almost all teachers’ classroom practice, together with in-depth observations, interviews and questionnaires with approximately a fifth of the 700 teachers taking part. In addition to this, over 1500 secondary students responded to a questionnaire, and 900 students took part in individual and group interviews.

Views and experiences of teaching and learning English

Findings indicate some success in changing views on English language teaching and learning, establishing the necessary pre-conditions for a more communicative approach.

Most EIA teachers now agree that the focus of their English classes is on communication, explaining grammar as necessary to aid understanding. (But attitudes are a little mixed; around a third of teachers still think studying and practicing grammar is a quick way to improve English, and students, particularly in secondary school, like to learn grammar, perhaps for exams).

Practice

There is strong evidence of basic changes to classroom practice from large-scale quantitative observation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Impact 1: Substantial increase in teachers’ spoken English</th>
<th>Impact 2: Substantial increase in students’ spoken English</th>
<th>Impact 3: Substantial increase in students’ participation in communicative practices.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>71% of all observed primary teacher talk now in English.</td>
<td>Most (88%) observed student talk now in English, in both primary and secondary EIA classrooms.</td>
<td>During 30 minute primary classroom observations, there were on average 12.5 minutes student talk, made up of individual (3.5m), pair (2m), group (2m) and choral work (5m).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>86% of all observed secondary teacher talk now in English.</td>
<td>On average, over 1/3 of all observed lesson time now given to student talk.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Scoping Mission for an ELT Programme in South Sudan

English language competence

Assessors from Trinity College carried out diagnostic (GESE) interviews of English language competence. Findings show statistically significant improvements in teachers' and students' oral / aural communication in English language, on the GESE scale.

Impact 4: The numbers of teachers scoring higher GESE levels increased all the way up Levels 3-7.

Impact 5: Increase in primary GESE pass rate

Impact 6: Increase in secondary GESE pass rate

Within educational research literature, there are very few examples of teacher professional development activities that are able to show evidence that student outcomes improve (see reviews by Lawless and Pelligrino 2007, Wilson and Byrne 1999). The findings of EIA show statistically significant improvement for primary and secondary students, and in secondary, an improvement across all initial and elementary grades of the GESE scale. These results indicate a positive outcome of the EIA programme in almost all aspects of the data examined.

Concluding remarks

EIA recognises the scope of the challenge, in sustaining such impacts as the project moves to substantially larger scale, as well as the need to take teachers further in their professional development journey than these early steps. However, we consider these to be extremely encouraging findings, that at least provide ‘proof of concept’ for the effectiveness of the teacher training and support model.
8.3 Terms of Reference

Scoping Mission for a English Language Training (ELT) Programme in Southern Sudan

Objectives
1. The objective of the scoping mission is to assess and prioritise the most important English language training needs in Southern Sudan in the period following independence.

Recipient
2. The recipient of the consultancy service will be DFID Sudan. Juba office will officially manage the consultancy and receive the deliverables.

Scope
3. The scoping exercise should explore four thematic areas in Southern Sudan:
   • conducting central and state level official business;
   • creating a new national identity;
   • integrating with global and regional trade and commerce; and
   • for introducing pedagogic change in the education sector.

Within each thematic area the study should broadly establish, through interviews and background reading:
   • The key target groups
   • The methodology for enhancing ELT for these groups
   • The usefulness/benefits of ELT for these target groups
   • Further questions that could be explored in the design and implementation of a programme of ELT provision for these groups

The policy level scoping mission should also explore the history and context of ELT in South Sudan

Within the broader remit outlined for the scoping study, the mission could some of the questions below and/or use these to guide interviews. It will be up to the Experts to identify the most useful questions within the framework of the Scoping Report and its intended outcomes:
   • What is the policy context of ELT in Southern Sudan?
   • What are the historical and political compulsions for ELT in Southern Sudan?
   • What level and type of government work, including judiciary, is done in English?
   • Who are the key people responsible for conducting official business in English at various levels of the government?
   • How is English language relevant for a new national identity for South Sudan?
   • How can English language help creating a national identity for South Sudan?
   • How can ELT boost trade, including regional and international trade?
   • How can ELT support private sector development in South Sudan?
   • How can ELT help address conflict?
   • How can ELT address the issues of inequality, including gender inequality, and corruption in Southern Sudan?
   • What is the current ELT delivery capacity in Southern Sudan?
4. The mission should be able to create a preliminary evidence base of past ELT interventions with successful track record of government capacity building, creating national identity and boosting regional and global trade relationships.

5. At the same time, the mission should be able to indicate the issues needing further investigation during the design phase of the programme as outlined above under point 3.

Methodology
6. The mission should employ a range of methodologies including mainly desk study and interviews to successfully produce a Scoping Report.
7. It is important that the mission members consult as extensively as possible with stakeholders at central and state levels – refer to Annex A for an overview of potential stakeholders. DFID-South-Sudan will arrange meetings with key stakeholders and will provide a schedule for the Experts’ visits. The Experts will work with DFID-Sudan to refine this schedule.

Deliverables
8. The mission is expected to deliver a not more than 20-page Scoping Report on ELT in Southern Sudan highlighting the findings. The Table of Contents of the report should be agreed with DFID Sudan during the first week of the mission.
9. Annexes, if necessary, should be submitted as part of the main report.

Timeframe and Resources
10. The mission is expected to start on 19th July 2011 with Expert One entering Sudan for one week, and Expert Two entering Sudan for 4 days.
11. The total budget will cover consultants’ fees, accommodation, travel and subsistence.
12. The mission will require two experts with skills in English Language Training and policy/strategy experience at central government level. Expert One will stay in Sudan for seven working days, with two working days for writing up the Scoring Report and one day for editing in response to comments from DFID. The second expert should input for four working days in South Sudan working in close collaboration with the Expert One to frame the research and to ensure best use of time in country. Expert Two will conduct interviews and background research as agreed with Expert One. Expert Two will have two working days on return from South Sudan for writing contributions to the Scoping Report.

Management
13. DFID Sudan will be responsible for managing the mission. The education adviser will be the lead adviser for the mission and the deputy programme manager at the Juba office will manage the mission.
14. The mission is expected to agree on a work schedule with DFID Sudan and de-brief to DFID Sudan at the end of the mission.

Background
15. In 2008 the Government of Southern Sudan (GoSS) adopted a policy to use English as the medium of instruction in schools. The policy was introduced to further the strategic direction set in the 2005 Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA). The Section 2.8.8 of the CPA stated that Arabic and English shall be the official working languages of the National Government businesses and languages of instruction at higher education. The 2008 policy reflected the popular mood of forming a new national identity and set in
motion a long term education reform in Southern Sudan by introducing English as the medium of instruction at the school level.

16. The new policy came with a set of challenges. The level of English proficiency among the educated southerners was low due to the fact that English was not the medium of instruction in schools across Sudan from the middle of the 1900. Most of the teachers, health workers, government officers at various levels suffer from this linguistic deficit. The Government of Southern Sudan has identified this deficit as the principle capacity building issue.

17. The 2010 referendum in Southern Sudan caused an influx of people returning mainly from the North to various parts of Southern Sudan. Between 30 October 2010 and May 2011, over 300,000 people have returned to Southern Sudan. While the return was expected and planned, the scale and diversity of the services required for the returnee population is overwhelming the Central and the State governments.

18. Rapid needs assessment done by the Plan International and the Education Cluster in the area pointed towards a host of demands including a demand for education in general and English language skills in particular. This demand was driven both by a feeling that English skills will enhance the job prospects at the same time will fashion a national identity.

19. DFID has been supporting English language training for teachers through a NGO challenge fund since 2007. The new context gives DFID an opportunity to launch a new programme for a broader audience.

20. Several parts of Southern Sudan have been devastated by decades of civil wars and conflict, destruction of physical and human resources, and erosion of institutions and social capital. The state of continuous conflict that had prevailed since 1983 in southern Sudan ended in 2005 with the signing of a Comprehensive Peace Agreement (CPA) by the Government of Sudan and the Sudan People’s Liberation Movement/Army.

21. With the signing of the CPA, the Government of Southern Sudan has made efforts to cement peace by putting in place governance mechanisms and institutional structures and systems at GOSS, State and County levels that will focus on post-war recovery, reconstruction and development.
References

Davidson, Martin (2011) “Sudan needs English to build bridges between North and South” in Guardian newspaper.


USAID Sudan (2011) Sudan Teacher Professional Development and Infrastructure Program, RFA 650-11-004.
Disclaimer

The DFID Human Development Resource Centre (HDRC) provides technical assistance and information to the British Government’s Department for International Development (DFID) and its partners in support of pro-poor programmes in education and health including nutrition and AIDS. The HDRC services are provided by three organisations: HLSP, Cambridge Education (both part of Mott MacDonald Group) and the Institute of Development Studies.

This document has been prepared by the HDRC on behalf of DFID for the titled project or named part thereof and should not be relied upon or used for any other project without an independent check being carried out as to its suitability and prior written authority of Mott MacDonald being obtained. Mott MacDonald accepts no responsibility or liability for the consequences of this document being used for a purpose other than the purposes for which it was commissioned. Any person using or relying on the document for such other purpose agrees, and will by such use or reliance be taken to confirm his agreement, to indemnify Mott MacDonald for all loss or damage resulting there from. Mott MacDonald accepts no responsibility or liability for this document to any party other than the person by whom it was commissioned.

To the extent that this report is based on information supplied by other parties, Mott MacDonald accepts no liability for any loss or damage suffered by the client, whether contractual or tortious, stemming from any conclusions based on data supplied by parties other than Mott MacDonald and used by Mott MacDonald in preparing this report.