# AI IN AFRICAN SCHOOLS: OBSTACLES, PERSPECTIVES AND PEDAGOGICAL STRATEGIES

#### Manuscript Info

# Manuscript History

#### Key words:

Artificial intelligence, Africa education systems, TPACK model, Sustainable development goals, Digital ethics and literacy, Educational sovereignty

#### Abstract

The rise of artificial intelligence (AI) is reshaping global educational paradigms, raising critical questions about the capacity of African education systems to adapt, innovate, and regulate. This study offers a critical and forward-looking analysis of the issues and challenges related to the integration of AI in African educational contexts, drawing on the technological pedagogical content knowledge (TPACK) theoretical framework, sustainable development goals (SDGs), and a mixedmethods approach based on surveys, documentary analyses and semi structured interviews. The overarching objective is to propose an AI training strategy tailored to African contexts on the basis of the development of technological, pedagogical and ethical competencies. The findings highlight four key structuring areas: literacy in emerging solutions, prevention of pedagogical distortions, promotion of responsible practices, implementation of educational protection and restoration mechanisms. The research also identifies major barriers such as the lack of regulation, unequal access and the absence of context-sensitive frameworks. divides. It proposes a methodological scenario built around TPACK. The TPACK model offers a relevant framework for analysing this integration by articulating teachers' technological, pedagogical and content knowledge.

Copy Right, IJAR, 2019,. All rights reserved.

2 3 4

5 6

7 8

9

10

11

12

13

14

20

21

22

23

24

25

26

27

28

29

30

31

32 33

34

3536

37

45

46

47

1

#### **Introduction:-**

The emergence of artificial intelligence (AI) is transforming global educational paradigms (Luckin, 2017; Holmes et al., 2019), yet African education systems face major challenges, including a lack of resources, inequalities in access and a digital skills gap (Alade and Mthetwa, 2025; Ouyang and Jiao, 2021). The challenge is twofold: to integrate AI technologies while ensuring both local relevance and inclusion on the one hand and digital sovereignty on the other (Chisom, Unachukwu and Osawaru, 2023; Falebita and Kok, 2024). AI redefines the ways in which knowledge is produced, work is organized and social interaction is structured. In education, AI opens up innovative possibilities such as intelligent tutoring systems, adaptive learning platforms, conversational agents, automated assessment and personalized learning pathways. These technologies, which are still in an exploratory phase in many countries, have raised both hope and controversy (Luckin, 2017; Holmes et al., 2019; Alade and Mthetwa, 2025).

- Across the African continent, where education systems already face structural challenges (such as a shortage of qualified teachers, geographic and social disparities, and uneven digitalization), the rise of AI poses a dual question:
  How can these innovations be leveraged to improve access to and the quality of education while avoiding the deepening of technological and educational divides? (Zickafoose et al., 2024; Huet, 2024; Modiba, Van den Berg and Mago, 2025).
  - Recent studies have called for the development of critical AI literacy among teachers and policymakers on the basis of frameworks such as the technological pedagogical content knowledge (TPACK) model to structure the necessary competencies (Mishra and Koehler, 2006). Moreover, several African and international institutions (Smart Africa, African Union, UNESCO) are advocating for training and governance strategies that account for the linguistic, cultural, and socioeconomic specificities of countries in the Global South. Research on the integration of AI in education in Africa remains fragmented and often focused on tools, which are rarely grounded in an ethical, inclusive and sovereign vision. There is an urgent need to lay the foundations for a critical, contextualized and cross-cutting approach that articulates sustainable development goals (SDGs), cognitive justice and digital regulation. This work aims to analyse current practices, identify barriers to the pedagogical integration of AI, evaluate curriculum adaptation and propose a training scenario rooted in African realities. In doing so, it seeks to contribute to building a coherent, equitable and transformative continental strategy for African education systems in the age of AI. The integration of AI in education is a global strategic issue that deeply questions educational practices, frameworks and policies. In Africa, the emergence of AI-supported digital tools is still characterized by fragmented, heterogeneous and often decontextualized practices. This initial observation justifies the need for a thorough assessment of observed practices to identify current dynamics, structural tensions and promising initiatives. Within this context, the positioning adopted in this study is critical, transdisciplinary, and forward-looking. The overarching objective is to construct a training scenario that enables the inclusive, contextualized and sustainable integration of AI in African education systems while promoting critical and restorative digital literacy.
- 38 The specific objectives are as follows:
- 39 The main barriers to the pedagogical integration of AI in African education systems, particularly in the initial and
- 40 ongoing training of teachers, should be identified and analysed (Ajani and Govender, 2023; Oubibi et al., 2024;
- 41 Cappelli and Akkari, 2025).
- 42 Assess the capacity of current curricula to integrate AI in a contextualized manner, taking into account the ethical,
- cultural and technical issues specific to African countries (Floridi, 2014; Holmes and al., 2019; Chisom, Unachukwu
- and Osawaru, 2023; Falebita and Kok, 2024).
  - The TPACK model is applied as a framework to analyse and structure teacher competencies related to AI, and an operational framework for teacher training institutions is proposed (Mishra and Koehler, 2006; Boateng and Kumbol, 2024).

• Recommendations for ethical, sovereign and inclusive governance of educational AI involving stakeholders in the education system should be formulated, with the aim of reducing the digital divide (Van der Vlies, 2020; Ouyang and Jiao, 2021).

50 51

48

49

- 52 To address this, a literature review drawing on recent sources helps map out models for AI integration, competence
- 53 frameworks such as TPACK and the critical tensions identified in Southern education systems. This approach is
- 54 complemented by a theoretical framework and the formulation of several research hypotheses.
- 55 The expected results include the coconstruction of training pathways, the creation of critical literacy indicators and the
- 56 emergence of communities of practice around an endogenous and inclusive educational AI.
- 57 The research methodology is based on a mixed approach (quantitative, qualitative, and participatory). The analysis
- will be deepened through a critical reading of the results via three complementary scales: temporal, spatial and
- 59 uncertainty.
- A structured diagnostic of analytical criteria (inclusion, ethics, sovereignty, feasibility, and transferability) will
- determine which SDGs can be mobilized to embed AI–education dynamics in a coherent global framework.
- 62 On the basis of this analysis, the article proposes a training scenario structured around tailored modules. This scenario
- aims to operationalize an inclusive integration of AI into African education.
- 64 In alignment with these proposals, a transition towards critical and restorative literacy is discussed. The discussion
- explores the levers and barriers in relation to international experiences, national strategies and African community
- dynamics. The conclusion revisits the study's contributions, conditions for transferability, limitations and prospects for
- 67 scaling up towards equitable, ethical and sovereign governance of educational AI in Africa.

#### 68 Framing:-

- 69 **Positioning**
- 70 The analysis of observed practices reveals a contrasting dynamic that is simultaneously marked by promising local
- 71 initiatives and systemic challenges. In this context, it is essential to adopt a critical and constructive position to guide
- an educational transition rooted in artificial intelligence in Africa.
- 73 The proliferation of fragmented and uncoordinated experiments, although innovative at the microscale, is not
- sufficient to induce lasting transformation. The integration of AI must not be seen as the mere accumulation of tools
- but rather as a system of interactions between public policies, curricula, training mechanisms, data governance and
- digital inclusion (Holmes and al., 2019; Huet, 2024; Modiba, Van den Berg and Mago, 2025). This systemic approach
- 77 requires coordination across macro (national policies), meso (institutions) and micro (pedagogical practices) levels
- 78 (Van der Vlies, 2020).
- 79 The TPACK model (Mishra and Koehler, 2006) serves as a tool to assess and design the skills needed for pedagogical
- 80 integration of AI. It is a strategic lever for structuring both initial and continuous teacher training programs by
- 81 addressing disciplinary, pedagogical and technological knowledge (Ajani and Govender, 2023; Oubibi and al., 2024).
- 82 The current absence of contextualized frameworks in African teacher training institutions (Modiba, Van den Berg and
- 83 Mago, 2025; Nyaaba and Zhai, 2024) highlights the urgent need for structured support for educators on the basis of
- 84 hybrid and collaborative training scenarios.
- 85 The challenge goes beyond mere access to technology. It is about fostering African educational digital sovereignty
- 86 and the ability to design, control and govern AI solutions grounded in local ethical and cultural references (Floridi,
- 87 2014). This entails the creation of open educational data, the rise of local EdTech start-ups and the establishment of
- 88 protective legal frameworks. Without such measures, AI risks reinforcing technological dependency. AI can play a
- 89 transformational role only if conditions of inclusion are guaranteed. This implies bridging the digital divide (in terms
- of access, usage and skills), addressing vulnerability contexts (rural areas, girls, and children with disabilities) and
- 91 analysing AI through the lens of educational justice (Alade and Mthetwa, 2025; Ouyang and Jiao, 2021; Organization
- 92 for Economic Cooperation and Development [OECD], 2023). It is crucial to ensure that the introduction of AI does
- 93 not generate new sociotechnical divides.

- 94 Finally, the positioning adopted here advocates for the ethical, inclusive and collaborative governance of AI in
- 95 education. This requires involving all stakeholders (teachers, students, parents, policymakers and developers) in
- 96 defining the purposes of educational AI. The goal is not only to optimize academic performance but also to cultivate
- 97 enlightened, critical and autonomous citizens in an algorithmic world (Floridi, 2014; Holmes et al., 2019).
- 98 This positioning calls for considering AI not as a technological end in itself but as a means to support inclusive,
- 99 sovereign and equitable education in line with Africa's aspirations for sustainable development and educational self-
- 100 determination.

#### 101 **Problem statement**

- Despite the global acceleration of artificial intelligence integration in education systems, African countries are 102 103 struggling to turn this trend into a driver of endogenous pedagogical transformation. While some African contexts 104 have witnessed promising pilot initiatives, they remain characterized by significant heterogeneity, a lack of structuring 105 policies and weak pedagogical appropriation (Huet, 2024; Modiba, Van den Berg and Mago, 2025; Zickafoose and 106 al., 2024; Nyaaba and Zhai, 2024). Recent research highlights that the divide extends beyond access to digital 107 infrastructure; it also concerns teachers' competencies in integrating AI into their daily pedagogical practices 108 (Cappelli and Akkari, 2025; Ajani and Govender, 2023; Oubibi and al., 2024). Furthermore, current curricula do not 109 adequately address the ethical, cultural and political implications of introducing algorithmic technologies into 110 education (Floridi, 2014; Holmes and al., 2019). Most educational frameworks are still grounded in imported and
- 111 poorly contextualized logics, which limits the effectiveness of digital innovations and may deepen existing
- 112 inequalities (Chisom, Unachukwu and Osawaru, 2023; Falebita and Kok, 2024; Alade and Mthetwa, 2025). In this
- 113
- context, the TPACK model (Mishra and Koehler, 2006) has emerged as a relevant analytical framework for assessing
- 114 training needs, but it has yet to be widely operationalized within African education systems.
- 115 In the era of global digital transformation, the central issue raised by this work is as follows: How can African
- 116 education systems develop a strategy for training in artificial intelligence that is inclusive, contextually grounded and
- 117 sovereign in response to challenges related to governance, competencies, and digital equity?
- 118 The research questions identified and addressed in relation to the central problem are as follows:
- 119 What are the main barriers to the pedagogical integration of AI in African education systems, particularly 120 with respect to teacher training?
  - To what extent do current curricula, practices and governance frameworks enable local ethical and inclusive appropriation of educational AI?
  - How can competency frameworks and AI training programs based on the TPACK model be structured to fit African realities?

#### LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK: -

#### 127 Literature review

121

122

123 124

125 126

- 128 In the context of global digital transformation, training in artificial intelligence within African education systems has
- emerged as a strategic necessity to bridge gaps in skills and technological access (Huet, 2024; Modiba, Van den Berg 129
- 130 and Mago, 2025; Zickafoose and al., 2024). However, most African countries still lack national strategies for AI
- 131 training in education (Chisom, Unachukwu and Osawaru, 2023; Falebita and Kok, 2024; Alade and Mthetwa, 2025).
- 132 This lack of strategic guidance has led to disorganized integration, which is often limited to isolated pilot initiatives
- 133 that are disconnected from field needs.
- 134 The TPACK model developed by Mishra and Koehler (2006) offers a valuable theoretical framework for structuring
- the competencies needed for pedagogical AI integration. It connects teachers' technological, pedagogical and 135
- 136 disciplinary knowledge, enabling the design of competency frameworks adapted to African realities (Ajani and
- 137 Govender, 2023; Oubibi et al., 2024). The absence of initial and ongoing training on AI technologies is one of the
- 138 primary obstacles to their pedagogical integration (Cappelli and Akkari, 2025; Modiba, Van den Berg and Mago,
- 139 2025; Nyaaba and Zhai, 2024). According to Holmes et al. (2019), even in systems where resources are available,
- 140 teachers often lack methodological support and institutional support to effectively adopt digital tools. In Africa, these

- barriers are further amplified by limited infrastructure, the digital divide and the absence of a professional digital culture. African curricula remain largely rooted in transmissive approaches and are slow to respond to current
- technological developments (Huet, 2024; Modiba, Van den Berg and Mago, 2025). Recent studies have shown that
- critical AI-related issues such as automation, algorithmic decision-making and AI ethics are absent from most school
- programs (Van der Vlies, 2020; Boateng and Kumbol, 2024). This highlights the urgent need for curricular reform
- that incorporates accessibility, contextualization and the cultural relevance of the knowledge being taught.
- Several African studies have proposed adaptations of the TPACK model to design hybrid training programs grounded
- in teachers' real practices (Huet, 2024; Ajani and Govender, 2023; Oubibi and al., 2024). TPACK is useful not only
- for designing teacher training but also for structuring evaluations of their technopedagogical skill development. In the
- 150 African context, this also entails incorporating local languages, project-based approaches and infrastructure-related
- 151 constraints. The implementation of educational AI raises critical governance issues, including data sovereignty,
- algorithmic ethics, transparency and equity (Floridi, 2014; Abulibdeh, Zaidan and Abulibdeh, 2024; Horváth, 2023).

  In Africa, legal frameworks are still underdeveloped, leaving education systems vulnerable to technological
- 153 III Africa, regai frameworks are sum underdeveloped, reaving education systems vulnerable to technological
- dependency and external interference. Research supports the need for coconstruction mechanisms involving teachers, students, parents and developers in the governance of educational AI (Holmes et al., 2019; Alade and Mthetwa, 2025).
  - - In light of this literature, this article positions itself at the intersection of three strategic priorities:
      - Strengthening teacher capacity through a contextualized TPACK approach.
      - Reforming curricula to integrate AI in a locally relevant and ethical way.
- Structuring sovereign and inclusive leadership for pedagogical innovation in Africa.

The integration of AI in education has profound implications for gender equity, particularly in contexts where structural inequalities already limit access to technology. In African schools, persistent disparities in access to digital devices, internet connectivity and technology-oriented extracurricular activities continue to disadvantage girls, especially in rural areas (Ajani and Govender, 2023). These gaps not only limit immediate engagement with AI-enabled learning platforms but also reduce the likelihood of girls pursuing AI-related fields in higher education and employment. The OECD highlights that targeted interventions such as integrating AI literacy into all subject areas promoting female role models in science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM) and ensuring the inclusive design of educational technologies are crucial to closing the gender gap (OECD, 2023).

Comparative policy analysis reveals substantial differences between African and OECD countries in their AI-ineducation strategies. While some African nations have begun to experiment with AI integration, national frameworks often lack explicit links between AI deployment, curriculum reform, teacher capacity building and ethical governance (van der Vlies, 2020). In contrast, OECD countries typically embed AI within broader digital education strategies that include measurable targets, sustained funding and multistakeholder governance models (OECD, 2023). This disparity is not solely resource-based; it also reflects differences in policy coordination, data governance maturity and the extent to which AI integration is treated as a systemic reform rather than an add-on to existing information and communication technology (ICT) initiatives. Strengthening African frameworks will require both alignment with continental strategies such as the African Union's (AU) digital education agenda and adaptation of best practices from OECD contexts to local realities.

The rapid growth of generative AI tools, ranging from large language models to adaptive content generators, has introduced new governance challenges in education. Abulibdeh, Zaidan and Abulibdeh (2024) stress the importance of embedding sustainability principles and ethical safeguards into the deployment of generative AI, including the transparency of algorithms, accountability for outputs and environmental considerations related to computational resources. Horváth (2023) further noted that governance frameworks must address issues of academic integrity, bias mitigation and the protection of learner autonomy, particularly in high-stakes assessment contexts. For African education systems where policy frameworks for AI are still emerging, integrating generative AI governance into broader digital sovereignty agendas is essential to prevent dependency on external providers and to ensure that technologies align with local cultural, linguistic and pedagogical needs.

156

157

158

160

161

162163

164

165

166

167

168

169

170

171

172

173

174

175

176

177178

179

180 181

182

183

184

185

186

187

#### Theoretical framework

189

190 Analysing the transformations driven by artificial intelligence in African education systems requires a 191 multidimensional theoretical foundation. This framework draws on three complementary conceptual axes: the TPACK 192 model to structure teacher competencies, the theory of sociotechnical appropriation to understand usage and resistance and the approach of digital commons and technological sovereignty to illuminate governance issues. The 193 194 technological pedagogical content knowledge (TPACK) model developed by Mishra and Koehler (2006) articulates 195 three essential dimensions, namely, content knowledge (CK), pedagogical knowledge (PK) and technological 196 knowledge (TK), and emphasizes the need for synergy between these dimensions to ensure the meaningful use of 197 technology in teaching. It is enriched by theories of technological appropriation (Akrich, 1992; Jouet, 2000; Rogers, 198 2003; Latour, 2005), the competency-based approach (Perrenoud, 1999; Tardif, 2006), and inclusive and digital 199 education frameworks (Abulibdeh, Zaidan and Abulibdeh, 2024; Horváth, 2023).

In the African context, the TPACK model enables the identification of training gaps (Ajani and Govender, 2023; Oubibi and al., 2024; Cappelli and Akkari, 2025) and supports the development of contextualized competency frameworks (Boateng and Kumbol, 2024). Several recent studies call for adapting this model to local constraints such as low connectivity, linguistic diversity and traditional pedagogies (Modiba, Van den Berg and Mago, 2025; Nyaaba and Zhai, 2024; Zickafoose and al., 2024).

205 This approach posits that technologies are not universally adopted but are reconfigured, bypassed or rejected 206 depending on their context of use. In African education systems, this perspective helps explain the diversity of teacher 207 practices with AI, such as informal appropriation through WhatsApp, the repurposing of YouTube content or rejection 208 driven by negative social perceptions (Holmes et al., 2019; Ouyang and Jiao, 2021). Analysing the tensions between 209 institutional directives and actual practices provides insights into forms of resistance and helps guide transformation 210 processes. The growing influence of AI in education has raised pressing questions of governance and sovereignty. 211 Drawing on work related to digital commons (Hess and Ostrom, 2007) and educational technological sovereignty 212 (Chisom, Unachukwu and Osawaru, 2023; Falebita and Kok, 2024), this theoretical axis underscores the need for 213 ethical, equitable and participatory governance of educational data, algorithms and platforms. The commons approach 214 encourages viewing educational data not as marketable commodities but as collective resources to be governed 215 democratically (Alade and Mthetwa, 2025). This perspective calls for overcoming technological dependence on 216 Global North actors by fostering the emergence of local, open and inclusive solutions (Floridi, 2014; Huet, 2024; 217 Modiba, Van den Berg and Mago, 2025). This theoretical framework therefore combines a pedagogical approach 218 (TPACK), a sociotechnical perspective (appropriation) and a political dimension (sovereignty and commons) to 219 analyse the tensions and levers associated with the integration of AI in African education. It guides the analysis of 220 practices, the formulation of proposals and the evaluation of education policies through a transformative and context-221 sensitive lens.

#### CONTEXT AND CURRENT SITUATION:-

#### State of observed practices

222

223

224 The integration of artificial intelligence into African education systems remains marginal, fragmented and highly 225 heterogeneous. Nevertheless, several emerging practices reveal both promising potential and significant structural 226 challenges to overcome. In many African educational contexts, teachers and learners increasingly rely on accessible 227 digital tools such as WhatsApp, YouTube and local educational apps to increase distance or supplementary learning 228 (Ouyang and Jiao, 2021). These tools enable a certain degree of pedagogical continuity, particularly during health 229 crises or in poorly served rural areas (Luckin, 2017). However, the use of AI in these environments remains 230 embryonic due to the lack of technical and pedagogical skills among teachers (Holmes et al., 2019; Cappelli and 231 Akkari, 2025).

- Some automated platforms, such as learning management systems (LMSs), educational chatbots or adaptive systems,
- have started to be piloted in select universities or model schools (Zickafoose et al., 2024). However, their use often
- 234 remains exogenous, poorly contextualized and confined to better-equipped institutions. The question of how both
- 235 teachers and learners appropriate these tools raises the critical issue of support for change and the cultural anchoring
- of digital solutions (Akrich, 1992; Ajani and Govender, 2023; Oubibi and al., 2024).
- One major finding remains the inequality of access to digital infrastructure (electricity, internet, computer equipment),
- especially in rural and disadvantaged areas (Alade and Mthetwa, 2025; Organization for Economic Co-operation and

- 239 Development [OECD], 2023). This digital divide increases students' vulnerability and prevents the equitable
- 240 implementation of educational innovations, including those based on AI. As a result, in many contexts, AI is
- perceived as an elitist technology unsuited to local realities (Chisom, Unachukwu, and Osawaru, 2023; Falebita and
- 242 Kok, 2024; Huet, 2024; Modiba, Van den Berg and Mago, 2025).
- 243 Initial teacher training programs rarely include modules on educational AI, and curricular reforms remain in their
- 244 infancy. Studies by Modiba, Van den Berg and Mago (2025) and Nyaaba and Zhai (2024) confirm the lack of
- structured training on generative AI in teacher education. This mismatch between pedagogical content and the needs
- of the 21st century is also highlighted by Laurillard (2012) and Van der Vlies (2020).
- 247 Most Ministries of Education in Africa still lack intelligent educational information systems capable of aggregating,
- analysing and predicting trends in performance or school dropout rates (Misra, 2022). This structural weakness limits
- the use of AI for governance, evaluation and personalization of learning pathways.

## 250 Policy landscape and regional strategies for AI in African education

- The integration of AI into African education systems is unevenly shaped by diverse national priorities, institutional
- 252 capacities and regulatory maturity. Across the continent, countries are experimenting with AI-enabled platforms for
- 253 teaching, assessment and administration, yet few possess coherent, system-wide strategies that connect classroom
- practice to governance, ethics and workforce development (Chisom, Unachukwu, and Osawaru, 2023; Falebita and
- Kok, 2024). Continental agendas, including Smart Africa's digital transformation efforts and the African Union's
- 255 Took, 2021). Containing share full of the state of signal data contained and the Article of the state of
- Continental Education Strategy for Africa (CESA 16-25), offer scaffolding for policy convergence, but national
- 257 uptake remains heterogeneous (Huet, 2024; Alade and Mthetwa, 2025). Comparative insights from OECD work on
- digital strategies further underline the need for whole-of-system approaches that link infrastructure, skills, curriculum
- and regulation (OECD, 2023; van der Vlies, 2020).
- In Ghana, policy attention to digitalization in teacher education has accelerated, with pilots focusing on generative AI
- 261 literacy and blended professional development. However, most initiatives remain project-based and weakly tethered to
- 262 national curriculum standards and classroom assessment norms, creating risks of fragmentation and shallow adoption
- 263 (Chisom et al., 2023; Falebita and Kok, 2024).
- In Rwanda, a comparatively clearer national vision links digital infrastructure with classroom technology use. Early
- use of AI-ready learning platforms positions Rwanda to test adaptive learning and analytics, but long-term governance
- data protection, algorithmic transparency and procurement standards require continued consolidation (Falebita and
- Kok, 2024; OECD, 2023). Building on digital literacy reforms, Kenya shows strong higher education and EdTech
- 268 entrepreneurship energy. The main gap is a cross-sector policy that harmonizes school-level practices, teacher
- standards and ethical safeguards for AI-mediated assessment and student data (Chisom et al., 2023; van der Vlies,
- 270 2020). In Côte d'Ivoire, momentum is growing in tertiary institutions and teacher training, but national frameworks
- specific to AI in schooling (ethics, curriculum integration, and capacity building) are emergent rather than
- consolidated, with opportunities to align with continental roadmaps and regional partnerships (Huet, 2024; Alade and
- 273 Mthetwa, 2025). Smart Africa and AU-CESA 16-25. Both agendas encourage interoperable infrastructure and
- 274 teacher upskilling and innovation ecosystems. Translating these into national policies calls for explicit AI-in-
- education compacts: ethical and data-governance baselines; competency standards for teachers; and curriculum
- 276 guidance for age-appropriate AI literacies and sustainable financing models (Huet, 2024; Alade and Mthetwa, 2025).
- 277 Cross-border collaboration, shared repositories of open educational data, benchmark assessments and procurement
- 278 guidelines can reduce costs and strengthen sovereignty in regional cooperation while ensuring cultural and linguistic
- relevance (Alade and Mthetwa, 2025; OECD, 2023).
- 280 Evidence from OECD systems points to four levers that travel well to African contexts when adapted: strategy
- 281 coherence (a single, living AI-in-education framework that ties goals to classroom practice); teacher capability
- 282 (funded, staged professional learning anchored in classroom use); assessment and curriculum alignment (clear
- 283 guidance on AI-supported formative/summative assessment); and governance and trust (transparent rules for data use,
- vendor accountability and bias) (OECD, 2023; van der Vlies, 2020). Gaps include project-driven pilots without scale
- paths, limited teacher standards for AI use, nascent data protection enforcement in education, and weak mechanisms
- to evaluate learning impact (Chisom et al., 2023; Falebita and Kok, 2024; OECD, 2023). Opportunities include
- embedding AI within national teacher professional standards and preservice curricula; adopting continental ethical
- baselines; pooling procurement and evaluation across RECs (regional economic communities); and catalyzing local
- EdTech aligned with national languages and curricula (Huet, 2024; Alade and Mthetwa, 2025; van der Vlies, 2020).
- 290 The identified policy recommendations are as follows:

- 291292293
- 292 293 294
- 295 296
- 297 298

299

- Publish a national AI-in-education framework that operationalizes AU-CESA 16-25 and Smart Africa
  principles into curriculum, assessment and professional development roadmaps with measurable milestones
  (Huet, 2024; Alade and Mthetwa, 2025).
- AI-aligned teacher standards (with staged proficiency levels) should be mandated, and multiyear professional development focused on classroom tasks, not tools, should be financed (OECD, 2023; van der Vlies, 2020).
- Education-specific data governance (student privacy, the auditability of algorithms, vendor transparency) should be adopted to build trust and sovereignty (Falebita and Kok, 2024; OECD, 2023).
- Regional testbeds for shared evaluation protocols, cost-sharing procurement, and open datasets should be created to accelerate evidence-based scales (Alade and Mthetwa, 2025; Chisom et al., 2023).

Table 1:-Comparative Overview of AI Policy and Strategy Readiness in African Education by Region

AFRICAN	AI POLICY	IMPLEMENTATION	TEACHER	GOVERNANCE	KEY
SUB-	READINESS STATUS		TRAINING	MATURITY	REFERENCES
REGION			INTEGRATION		
West	Emerging	Pilot programs in	Limited;	Weak	OECD (2023);
Africa (e.g.,	policy	select urban areas	concentrated in	enforcement, low	Boateng
Ghana,	frameworks in		higher education	interministerial	&Kumbol
Côte	draft or early			coordination	(2024)
d'Ivoire,	adoption			N	
Senegal)					
East Africa	Advanced in	Large-scale EdTech	Integrated into	Moderate; some	Falebita& Kok
(e.g.,	pioneers	and AI pilots	teacher PD in	regional	(2024); van der
Rwanda,	(Rwanda),		lead countries	collaboration via	Vlies (2020)
Kenya,	emerging		$\mathcal{C}_{\lambda}$ .	EAC	
Uganda)	elsewhere				
Southern	Mature in	Established AI-in-	Strong in-service	Moderate to high;	Cappelli &
Africa (e.g.,	South Africa;	education programs	training	ethical guidelines	Akkari (2025);
South	others in early		frameworks	emerging	UNESCO
Africa,	adoption				(2025)
Namibia)					
North	Well-	Scaling	Teacher digital	High policy	Nyaaba& Zhai
Africa (e.g.,	developed	implementation	training	maturity; regional	(2024); OECD
Morocco,	national AI	through EdTech	mandated in	cooperation via	
Egypt,	strategies	partnerships	policy	AU & Arab	
Tunisia)				League	

The AI policy landscape in Africa remains highly heterogeneous, with pioneers such as Rwanda and South Africa demonstrating mature integration strategies, while others are still in pilot stages (Falebita& Kok, 2024; Cappelli & Akkari, 2025). Regional economic communities such as ECOWAS and the EAC have facilitated collaborative frameworks, but disparities in teacher training and infrastructure persist (OECD, 2023; Boateng &Kumbol, 2024). The consolidation of ethical and regulatory guidelines is emerging, particularly in southern and North Africa (Nyaaba& Zhai, 2024; UNESCO, 2025).

#### Ethical and regulatory frameworks for AI in African classrooms

Without clear frameworks, AI adoption risks amplifying algorithmic bias, enabling intrusive surveillance, and eroding cultural autonomy (Floridi, 2014; Alade and Mthetwa, 2025). In contexts where sociotechnical infrastructures are uneven and legal protections are limited, these risks can undermine trust in educational technology and exacerbate inequities. AI systems deployed in classrooms (ranging from adaptive learning platforms to automated assessment tools) are often trained on datasets that reflect sociocultural contexts far removed from African realities. This can lead to biased recommendations or evaluations that disadvantage particular linguistic, cultural or gender groups (Alade and Mthetwa, 2025). Moreover, the widespread use of platforms that collect sensitive student data without transparent

consent protocols raises concerns about surveillance and long-term data exploitation (Floridi, 2014). Cultural autonomy is further threatened when imported AI systems impose external pedagogical norms, marginalizing local knowledge systems and epistemologies.

Robust data protection laws tailored to education constitute a cornerstone of digital sovereignty. In countries such as Rwanda and Ghana, emerging legislative frameworks seek to regulate personal data use in digital learning environments, setting a precedent for regionally harmonized standards (Huet, 2024). However, on much of the continent, such legislation remains fragmented or unenforced, creating vulnerabilities in AI-enabled classrooms (Modiba, Van den Berg and Mago, 2025). Complementing legal safeguards, investment in local EdTech development is essential for ensuring that AI tools are culturally relevant, linguistically inclusive and responsive to national curricula. Building domestic capacity in AI design, deployment and evaluation not only reduces dependence on foreign vendors but also supports the creation of open educational resources aligned with African priorities.

A comparison of countries with more robust educational AI regulations versus those without reveals stark contrasts. In nations such as Rwanda, where data protection laws intersect with digital education policies, AI adoption is accompanied by clearer procurement guidelines, accountability mechanisms for vendors and mandatory teacher training on ethical AI use (Huet, 2024). In contrast, in systems lacking such frameworks, AI deployment is largely unregulated, leaving decision-making to individual institutions or external providers often without consideration for bias mitigation, privacy safeguards or pedagogical appropriateness (Modiba, Van den Berg and Mago, 2025). The policy recommendations are as follows:

- Education-specific AI ethics charters incorporating bias detection, transparency and accountability principles should be established.
- Robust data protection legislation with sector-specific provisions for education should be enforced.
- Regional cooperation should be promoted to develop common AI governance benchmarks aligned with the African Union's digital sovereignty agenda.
- Investment in local AI innovation ecosystems ensures that tools are developed and maintained within the continent, reflecting African cultural, linguistic and pedagogical contexts.
- By embedding AI integration within a coherent ethical and regulatory framework, African education systems can balance technological innovation with the imperatives of equity, sovereignty and cultural preservation.

#### Gender and inclusion in AI education

While AI has the potential to bridge educational gaps, its adoption can also reinforce existing inequities if access, design and implementation are not explicitly inclusive (Ajani and Govender, 2023; Oubibi et al., 2024). Empirical studies indicate that gendered disparities in access to AI-enabled learning tools persist across many African educational contexts. In several countries, boys are more likely to be granted extended computer lab time, participate in coding clubs or receive encouragement to explore emerging technologies, whereas girls often encounter implicit bias from teachers and peers (Ajani and Govender, 2023). In addition, the limited integration of AI concepts into curricula for traditionally female-dominated disciplines reduces opportunities for girls to develop AI literacy early on (Oubibi et al., 2024). Such disparities risk perpetuating gender gaps in STEM participation and digital career pathways. Beyond gender, AI adoption in African classrooms must also account for compounded vulnerabilities. Rural girls face infrastructural constraints such as unreliable electricity, poor internet connectivity and a lack of digital devices, which are barriers that disproportionately affect their ability to benefit from AI-enhanced learning platforms (Alade and Mthetwa, 2025). Students with disabilities experience further exclusion when AI tools and platforms lack accessible design features such as screen readers, sign language interpretation or adaptive user interfaces (OECD, 2023). Without targeted interventions, these groups risk being excluded from both the immediate benefits of AI in education and the long-term opportunities in AI-related fields. To align AI adoption with SDGs 4 and 5, several policy actions are recommended:

- Gender and accessibility audits are embedded into all AI procurement and deployment processes to ensure that platforms meet universal design standards (OECD, 2023; Alade and Mthetwa, 2025).
- AI literacy should be integrated into all subject areas, not only STEM, to normalize participation by girls and students from marginalized groups (Ajani and Govender, 2023).
- Rural inclusion programs such as mobile AI labs, community-based teacher training and subsidized device distribution should be targeted, with a focus on girls and students with disabilities (Oubibi et al., 2024; Alade and Mthetwa, 2025).

 Monitoring frameworks that track participation and performance disaggregated by gender, disability and location should be established to inform evidence-based interventions (OECD, 2023).

By incorporating inclusivity into the design, policy and practice of AI integration, African education systems can harness AI not only to modernize pedagogy but also to advance equity, ensuring that technological transformation serves all learners.

This section synthesizes the key dimensions, challenges, and strategies for ensuring gender equity and broader inclusion in AI education within African contexts. It organizes the analysis into a structured table, linking each dimension to practical examples and recent bibliographic references.

**Table 2:-**Synthesis for ensuring gender equity and broader inclusion in AI education within African contexts

DIMENSION	DEFINITION	KEY	PRACTICAL	AFRICAN	ILLUSTRATIVE
		CHALLENGES	STRATEGIES	EXAMPLES	REFERENCES
Gender	Ensuring	Persistent	Mentorship	Women in AI	OECD, 2023; Huet,
Equity	equitable	gender gaps in	programs;	Africa	2024;Oubibi et al.,
	participation	STEM	gender-	mentorship	2024
	of women and	enrolment; lack	responsive	initiatives;	
	girls in AI-	of female role	pedagogy;	STEM girls'	
	related	models;	scholarships	clubs in Ghana	
	learning and	sociocultural	for women in		
	careers	barriers	AI fields		
Inclusion of	Providing AI-	Limited access	Universal	Use of AI	OECD,
Learners with	enabled	to assistive	design for	sign-language	2023;Cappelli&Akkari,
Disabilities	learning	technologies;	learning	recognition	2025;Zickafoose et al.,
	environments	absence of	(UDL); AI-	tools in South	2024
	accessible to	inclusive design	powered	African	
	students with	in AI tools	assistive apps;	classrooms	
	disabilities		teacher		
		$\langle \langle \rangle \rangle$	training on		
		) Y	inclusion		
Rural and	Reducing	Poor	Subsidized	AI-enabled	Falebita& Kok,
Marginalized	digital and AI	connectivity;	connectivity;	offline	2024;Oubibi et al.,
Communities	literacy gaps	lack of devices;	community	learning	2024; Ajani & Govender,
	for learners in	insufficient	digital hubs;	platforms in	2023
	underserved	trained teachers	mobile AI labs	rural Kenya	
	areas				
Cultural and	Ensuring AI	Dominance of	Development	Local-	Huet, 2024;Oubibi et
Linguistic	tools support	English/French	of low-	language AI	al., 2024;Chisom et al.,
Inclusion	local	in AI platforms;	resource	chatbots for	2023
	languages and	lack of local-	language	literacy in	
	respect	language	models;	Nigeria	
	cultural	datasets	community		
	contexts		codesign		

## RESEARCH METHODOLOGY:-

This study adopts an interpretive qualitative approach enriched with mixed methods to ensure both contextual depth and the robustness of findings. This strategy is well suited for analysing African education systems that are undergoing complex technological transitions with significant social implications (Ajani and Govender, 2023;

Oubibi et al., 2024; Huet, 2024; Modiba, Van den Berg and Mago, 2025). It enables the cross-analysis of empirical field data (teachers, institutions, curricula) with normative theoretical frameworks (TPACK, educational sovereignty, digital commons theory). The data collection tools used are as follows:

- TPACK Questionnaire (Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge) A standardized self-assessment tool will be used to measure teachers' competencies across the TK (Technological Knowledge), PK (Pedagogical Knowledge) and CK (Content Knowledge) dimensions (Mishra and Koehler, 2006; Modiba, Van den Berg and Mago, 2025; Nyaaba and Zhai, 2024).
- The curriculum document analysis grid tool evaluates the explicit and implicit presence of AI in secondary education programs and initial teacher training curricula (Holmes et al., 2019; Boateng and Kumbol, 2024).
- Semi structured interview guide interviews with teachers, education inspectors, policymakers and training officials explore perceptions, barriers, and local innovations (Floridi, 2014; Zickafoose et al., 2024).
- The Territorial Case Studies African countries are Côte d'Ivoire, Ghana, and Senegal for comparative analysis. This method helps capture spatial dynamics and proposes contextualized models (Chisom, Unachukwu and Osawaru, 2023; Falebita and Kok, 2024; Huet, 2024; Modiba, Van den Berg and Mago, 2025).

#### **RESULTS AND ANALYSES:-**

#### Case studies of AI integration in African education

While the integration of AI into African education systems remains fragmented, several notable national initiatives provide valuable insights into both the potential and the limitations of current approaches. These case studies illustrate how local contexts, institutional readiness and governance structures shape the outcomes of AI adoption.

Ghana's Ministry of Education, in partnership with local teacher training colleges, launched a national pilot to introduce generative AI tools such as ChatGPT for lesson planning, content creation and formative assessment (Modiba, Van den Berg and Mago, 2025). The program aimed to equip teachers with foundational AI literacy and integrate AI into existing digital pedagogy frameworks. While initial feedback indicated increased teacher confidence in experimenting with AI tools, the project faced notable limitations. According to Nyaaba and Zhai (2024), the training lacked strong curricular alignment, resulting in inconsistent integration into classroom practice. Furthermore, ethical considerations such as addressing algorithmic bias, ensuring academic integrity and protecting student data were insufficiently embedded, leading to concerns about sustainability and teacher preparedness beyond the pilot phase. Rwanda has taken a more structured approach by deploying AI-powered learning management systems (LMSs) to select secondary schools as part of its broader digital education strategy (Zickafoose et al., 2024). These LMS platforms integrate adaptive learning algorithms that personalize content delivery on the basis of student performance, providing real-time analytics for teachers to adjust instruction. Early results indicate improved engagement and differentiated learning outcomes, particularly in STEM subjects. However, the program also reveals scalability challenges (rural schools often lack stable connectivity, teachers require sustained professional development to leverage LMS features effectively, and data privacy protocols are still evolving to meet international best practices). In 2023, Senegal implemented a pilot AI curriculum reform targeting upper secondary education with the goal of introducing AI concepts, ethics and applications across disciplines (Huet, 2024). The reform was accompanied by teacher training workshops and the introduction of AIrelated modules in science and technology courses. While the initiative demonstrated strong political will and generated enthusiasm among urban schools, it encountered postimplementation challenges. Many rural institutions lack the infrastructure and trained personnel to implement the curriculum effectively. Moreover, the absence of follow-up support and monitoring mechanisms led to uneven adoption, with some schools reverting to traditional teaching methods after the pilot period. Across these three cases, several common themes emerge: the necessity of aligning AI initiatives with national curricula, the importance of continuous teacher professional development and the critical role of infrastructure readiness. Without robust governance frameworks, ethical guidelines and sustained resource allocation, pilot projects risk remaining isolated successes rather than catalysts for systemic transformation. These experiences underscore the need for integrated strategies that combine technological innovation with capacity building, policy coherence and inclusive access.

Table 3:-Comparative case studies (Ghana, Rwanda, Senegal)

Countr	Initiative/Conte	AI Focus	Reported	Constraints/Ris	Policy &	Core References
у	xt		Outcomes	ks	PD	
					Implications	
Ghana	National pilot	Teacher	Increased	Weak	Align with	Modiba et al.,
	using	productivity	teacher	curricular	curriculum	2025;Nyaaba&Zh
	generative AI	; lesson	confidence;	alignment;	standards;	ai, 2024
	(e.g., for lesson	design;	experimentati	limited ethical	embed AI	
	planning,	formative	on with AI	guidance on	ethics;	
	content	assessment	tools	bias, integrity,	sustained,	
	creation,			student data	staged PD	
	formative				for teachers	
	assessment)					
Rwand	AI-enabled	Adaptive	Improved	Rural	Invest in	Zickafoose et al.,
a	LMS in select	learning	engagement;	connectivity;	infrastructur	2024
	secondary	algorithms;	more	sustained PD	e;	
	schools within	real-time	differentiated	needs; evolving	continuous	
	a broader	analytics	learning in	data-privacy	teacher	
	digital strategy		STEM	protocols	coaching;	
					strengthen	
					data	
					governance	
Senega	Pilot AI	AI concepts	Strong	Rural	Postpilot	Huet, 2024
1	curriculum	&ethicsacro	political will;	infrastructure	support;	
	reform (upper	ss	enthusiasm in	& staffing	targeted	
	secondary)	disciplines	urban schools	gaps; limited	resourcing	
	with teacher			follow-up &	for rural	
	workshops and		O	monitoring	areas;	
	AI modules				monitoring	
					&	
					evaluation	

Ghana's pilot efforts increase teacher confidence in the use of generative AI, yet curricular alignment and ethical guidance remain uneven (Modiba, Van den Berg, & Mago, 2025; Nyaaba& Zhai, 2024). Rwanda's AI-enabled LMS deployments report improved engagement and differentiation, although persistent rural connectivity challenges and ongoing teacher coaching need a limited scale (Zickafoose et al., 2024). In Senegal, policy momentum is strong, and early reception is positive in urban settings; however, sustained support and rural resourcing are critical to avoid reform fatigue (Huet, 2024).

## Comparative synthesis of readiness, governance and infrastructure

The integration of artificial intelligence in African education systems is shaped by significant variations in readiness, governance maturity and infrastructure availability. While some countries are experimenting with AI-enabled learning management systems (LMSs) and adaptive technologies, others are still laying the groundwork for basic digital access. A comparative synthesis across African subregions illustrates these disparities and highlights targeted opportunities for intervention (Zickafoose et al., 2024; Huet, 2024).

**Table 4:-**Comparative synthesis

African	AI	Governan	Infrastruct	Key	Strategic	APA	Bibliographic
Subregio	Readines	ce	ure	Challenges	Opportuniti	References	
n	s Level	Maturity	Availabilit		es		
			y				

West	Moderate	Emerging	Variable	Limited	Leverage	Zickafoose, A., Ilesanmi, O.,
Africa	pilots in	some	with	rural	regional	Diaz Manrique, M., Adeyemi,
(Ghana,	teacher	policy	urban–rura	connectivity	ECOWAS	A. E., Walumbe, B., Strong,
Côte	training	framewor	1 divide		education	R., Wingenbach, G.,
d'Ivoire,	and	ks but	remains	inconsistent	agenda for	Rodriguez, M. T., and
Senegal)	curriculu	limited	significant	teacher	AI	Dooley, K. (2024). Barriers
Benegar)	m	enforceme	significant	capacity	curriculum	and challenges affecting
	innovatio	nt		capacity	and joint	quality education (Sustainable
	n	IIt			procureme	Development Goal #4) in Sub
	11				nt	Saharan Africa by 2030.
					IIt	Sustainability, 16(7), Article
						2657.
						https://doi.org/10.3390/su160
						72657
East	High in	Advanced	Moderate	Sustainabilit	Regional	Huet, JM. (2024).
Africa	leading	in	improving	y of	cooperatio	L'intelligence artificielle et la
(Rwanda,	countries	pioneers	mobile	funding;	n on AI	digitalization de
Kenya,	AI-	like	penetration	data privacy	governance	l'enseignement: des leviers
Uganda)	powered	Rwanda;	but uneven	laws under	and teacher	essentiels pour l'avenir de la
	LMS and	nascent	broadband	developmen	capacity	formation en Afrique.
	adaptive	elsewhere		t	through	Communication, technologies
	learning				EAC	et développement, (16).
	tools in				framework	
	use					
Southern	High	More	Stronger	Digital	Strengthen	Huet, JM. (2024).
Africa	strong	mature	infrastructu	divide	teacher	L'intelligence artificielle et la
(South	EdTech	with	re in urban	across	professiona	digitalization de
Africa,	sector	regulatory	areas but	socioecono	1	l'enseignement: des leviers
Namibia)	and	structures	rural gaps	mic groups	developme	essentiels pour l'avenir de la
	research	and	persist		nt for rural	formation en Afrique.
	capabiliti	ethical			schools;	Communication, technologies
	es	guidelines			promote	et développement, (16).
		emerging			local	
			7		EdTech	
		7			solutions	
Central	Low	Weak	Low	Funding	Target	Zickafoose, A., Ilesanmi, O.,
Africa	minimal	with few	infrastructu	shortages;	donor and	Diaz Manrique, M., Adeyemi,
(Cameroo	AI-	dedicated	re deficits	lack of	AU-backed	A. E., Walumbe, B., Strong,
n, DRC)	specific	AI	and	teacher	infrastructu	R., Wingenbach, G.,
	projects	governanc	political	training	re	Rodriguez, M. T., and
	in	e	instability		investment;	Dooley, K. (2024). Barriers
4 1)	educatio	framewor			develop	and challenges affecting
	n	ks			foundation	quality education (Sustainable
					al AI	Development Goal #4) in Sub
					literacy	Saharan Africa by 2030.
					programs	Sustainability, 16(7), Article
						2657.
						Saharan Africa by 2030. Sustainability, 16(7), Article

While SDG 4 (quality education) remains essential for the adoption of AI in education, aligning initiatives with other sustainable development goals can create broader development synergies:

• SDG 5 (gender equality) involves deploying AI tools to close gender gaps in access, participation, and skills development.

- SDG 9 (Industry, Innovation, and Infrastructure) adopts AI as a driver for the development of local education technology industries and digital infrastructure.
- SDG 12 (Responsible Consumption and Production) promotes environmentally friendly and ethically sourced AI solutions.
- SDG 17 (Partnerships for the Goals) strengthens intergovernmental and public–private partnerships to share resources, governance frameworks, and best practices in AI.

#### Critical analysis on temporal, spatial and uncertainty scales

The integration of AI into education cannot be conceived as an immediate reform. It falls within a long-term transformation trajectory of African education systems. This requires a progressive approach to capacity building, particularly through the adoption of the TPACK model, which structures technological, pedagogical, and content knowledge (Mishra and Koehler, 2006; Ajani and Govender, 2023; Oubibi and al., 2024).

National training plans spanning three to five years are therefore necessary to gradually train teachers, starting with awareness of AI fundamentals and then moving toward contextualized use within specific disciplines. For example, Zickafoose et al. (2024) recommended a three-phase strategy: training of trainers, curriculum adaptation, and evaluation and sustainability. This temporal phasing is essential to avoid deepening the technological divide.

Africa is not a homogeneous bloc. The linguistic, socioeconomic, and institutional diversity between and within countries necessitates a spatialized analysis of AI integration strategies. While some cities, such as Kigali or Accra, are piloting AI tools in secondary schools, many rural areas remain deeply affected by the digital divide (Chisom, Unachukwu and Osawaru, 2023; Falebita and Kok, 2024). Comparative studies (Huet, 2024; Modiba, Van den Berg and Mago, 2025) highlight significant gaps between the Francophone and Anglophone education systems as well as between centralized public policies (Senegal) and localized experiments (Côte d'Ivoire). This supports the need for differentiated territorial diagnostics and adaptable pedagogical frameworks at the local level (Boateng and Kumbol, 2024).

AI integration in education is subject to substantial uncertainties that must be anticipated to develop resilient policies. These uncertainties include the following:

- The rapid evolution of generative technologies (conversational AI, adaptive systems).
- Ethical risks are linked to data protection, algorithmic surveillance and bias reproduction (Floridi, 2014; Alade and Mthetwa, 2025).
- The volatility of education policies in politically or financially unstable contexts.

A prospective approach is therefore essential. It enables the development of differentiated scenarios such as an optimistic scenario based on open pan-African cooperation or a pessimistic scenario involving technological importation without educational sovereignty (Holmes et al., 2019; Chisom, Unachukwu and Osawaru, 2023; Falebita and Kok, 2024). These scenarios inform the design of adaptive mechanisms such as continuous training, strategic monitoring and guided local experimentation.

#### **DISCUSSION AND PERSPECTIVES:-**

#### Teacher professional development models for AI competency

Professional development models for AI competency must therefore be anchored in established pedagogical frameworks adapted to local contexts and designed for scalability. The technological pedagogical content knowledge model provides a robust foundation for structuring these competencies but requires expansion to address AI-specific skills, here conceptualized as TPACK-AI (Mishra and Koehler, 2006; Boateng and Kumbol, 2024). In preservice teacher education, TPACK-AI modules should introduce foundational AI concepts, their pedagogical applications and the ethical considerations surrounding their use. For in-service training, modules should focus on subject-specific application integration into existing curricula and troubleshooting AI-driven tools in real classroom settings. The TPACK-AI framework ensures that TK is developed alongside PK and CK, fostering a holistic approach to AI integration (Mishra and Koehler, 2006). Boateng and Kumbol (2024) emphasized that contextualization through local case studies, culturally relevant datasets and language-appropriate tools is essential for teacher engagement and the transfer of learning. Blended learning models offer a flexible and scalable route to building AI competency among teachers. These approaches combine face-to-face workshops with online modules, enabling iterative learning and reflection (Ajani and Govender, 2023). In practice, synchronous sessions can be used for collaborative problem-

solving and peer exchange, whereas asynchronous modules provide self-paced learning on AI fundamentals, ethics and subject-specific applications (Oubibi et al., 2024). Such models are particularly valuable in African contexts where geographic and infrastructural disparities require adaptive training delivery.

Effective teacher professional development must include robust evaluation mechanisms to track skill acquisition and ensure sustained competency growth. Cappelli and Akkari (2025) recommend the use of a combination of self-assessment surveys, classroom observation rubrics and digital portfolios where teachers document AI-integrated lesson plans and reflections. Continuous feedback loops through coaching, peer review and microcredentialing reinforce skill retention and encourage iterative improvement. These mechanisms also enable training providers to adapt content and delivery methods in response to emerging challenges and technological shifts. The strategic recommendations are as follows:

- Institutionalize TPACK-AI modules in teacher education curricula and professional development frameworks.
- Leverage blended learning models to overcome logistical and resource constraints in diverse African contexts.
- Multidimensional evaluation tools that measure not only technical proficiency but also ethical application and pedagogical integration of AI should be implemented.
- Create communities of practice for continuous peer learning and knowledge exchange with AI in education.

By embedding AI literacy into the professional identity of teachers, African education systems can ensure that AI serves as a tool for inclusive, ethical and contextually relevant pedagogical transformation.

This section presents structured models for enhancing teacher professional development (PD) in AI competencies, with a focus on African educational contexts. The table details each model's scope, implementation methods, benefits, challenges, African examples, and supporting bibliographic references.

**Table 5:-**Structured models for enhancing teacher professional development (PD) in AI competencies in African educational contexts

PD Model	Scope &	Implementati	Benefits	Challenge	African	Illustrative
	Focus	on Methods	,	S	Examples	References
TPACK-based AI	Integrating	Workshops	Holistic	Need for	Rwanda's AI-	Mishra & Koehler,
PD	Technologic	combining	teacher	ongoing	enhanced	2006;Cappelli&Akk
	al,	AI tools	capacity;	mentoring	STEM	ari, 2025;Modiba et
	Pedagogical,	training,	better	; context-	teacher	al., 2025
	and Content	pedagogical	alignment	specific	training	
	Knowledge	integration,	of AI use	adaptation		
	with AI-	and content	with			
4	specific	adaptation	subject			
	competencie		pedagogy			
	S					
Mentorship &	Pairing	Peer	Sustained	Limited	Women in AI	Ajani & Govender,
Peer Learning	novice AI	coaching,	skills	availabilit	Africa	2023; Huet, 2024;
\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \\ \	educators	collaborative	developme	y of	mentorship	OECD, 2023
	with	lesson	nt; builds	experienc	for educators	
	experienced	planning,	teacher	ed AI		
	AI-	observation-	community	mentors		
	integrating	feedback				
	teachers	cycles				
Microcredentialin	Short,	Online or	Flexible,	Risk of	UNESCO	Oubibi et al.,
g& Badging	targeted	blended	scalable	superficia	microcredenti	2024;Falebita&
	certification	modules;	skill	1	als for AI	Kok, 2024;Chisom
	s on AI tools	project-based	recognition	engageme	literacy	et al., 2023
	and ethics	assessment		nt without		

				practice integratio		
				n		
School-based	Continuous,	Weekly AI-	Embedded	Requires	South African	OECD,
Professional	collaborativ	focused PLC	PD in daily	strong	school AI	2023;Zickafoose et
Learning	e AI	meetings;	practice;	school	PLC pilots	al.,
Communities	integration	shared	fosters	leadership		2024;Nyaaba&Zhai,
(PLCs)	practice	resource	innovation	and		2024
	within	banks	culture	culture		
	schools					

#### Training scenario for inclusive AI integration in African education systems

The proposed scenario aims to equip African teachers and policymakers with tools for critical, pedagogical, and ethical appropriation of AI. It aligns with the TPACK model (Mishra and Koehler, 2006), the principles of educational digital sovereignty (Chisom, Unachukwu and Osawaru, 2023; Falebita and Kok, 2024) and sustainable development goals (SDGs) 4, 5, 9, and 17.

The scenario is guided by the following principles:

- Competency-based approach (CBA) adapted to teacher profiles (urban, rural, experienced, novice).
- Active and collaborative pedagogy combining in-person and remote learning modalities.
- Formative and reflective assessment, including self- and peer-assessment.
- Operational transfer to pedagogical practices anchored in national curricula.

The expected outcomes of this training scenario include the following:

- Development of contextualized TPACK-AI competency frameworks.
- The creation of pilot modules integrating AI into scientific and literary disciplines.
- The adoption of a shared ethical charter for educational AI use.
- The formulation of national dissemination plans tailored to each target country.

#### Towards critical and restorative literacy in African education systems in the age of AI

Digital literacy is no longer limited to technical tool use; it must now encompass a critical understanding of emerging AI-based solutions, including generative AI, adaptive learning platforms and intelligent tutoring systems. In African contexts, the lack of structured teacher training in educational AI is a major barrier to empowerment (Modiba, Van den Berg and Mago, 2025; Nyaaba and Zhai, 2024; Huet, 2024). Pilot initiatives such as Ghana's generative AI training project reveal superficial appropriation, often centered on using ChatGPT without curricular or ethical integration (Modiba, Van den Berg and Mago, 2025; Nyaaba and Zhai, 2024). The rise of educational AI comes with risks such as algorithmic bias, facilitated plagiarism, dehumanization of pedagogical relationships and nonconsensual surveillance of learners (Floridi, 2014; Alade and Mthetwa, 2025). For example, some platforms used in African schools collect sensitive data without transparent consent mechanisms or local regulation, increasing digital vulnerabilities (Chisom, Unachukwu and Osawaru, 2023; Falebita and Kok, 2024).

Preventing such distortions thus becomes an ethical, institutional and legal priority. It calls for specific teacher training in detecting misuse, understanding algorithmic regulation and safeguarding data privacy (Holmes et al., 2019).

The responsible integration of AI into African education must align with the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), particularly:

- SDG 4 (quality education) involves contextualizing AI tools in curricula.
- SDG 5 (Gender Equality) ensures access to technology for girls and women.
- SDG 12 (Responsible Consumption) promotes sustainable and informed technology choices.

Recent studies (Zickafoose et al., 2024; Ajani et al., 2023; Oubibi et al., 2024) emphasize that unregulated AI adoption exacerbates inequalities between rural and urban areas, between genders and between the Francophone and Anglophone education systems. In this context, the development of national ethical frameworks has emerged as a responsible best practice. The digital transformation of African education systems must not only be forward-looking.

It must also be restorative; that is, it is capable of repairing existing inequalities, addressing the negative effects of unregulated experimentation, and rebuilding teachers' trust in digital tools. The protection and restoration approach is aligned with SDG 13 (climate action) and SDG 15 (life on land), as it emphasizes strategies for resilience and educational justice. For example, the lack of institutional support following the failure of a pilot AI project in Senegal in 2023 left teachers disoriented and resulted in lasting mistrust (Huet, 2024; Modiba, Van den Berg and Mago, 2025). This underscores the need for mechanisms of pedagogical recovery.

#### **Discussion**

The findings of this study confirm that the integration of artificial intelligence into African educational systems cannot be reduced to mere technological transfer or instrumental modernization. It requires a reinvention of pedagogical frameworks, contextualized ethical reflection and a reconfiguration of educational policies.

The analysis of practices reveals that while some countries, such as Ghana, Rwanda, and Kenya, are launching structured initiatives around AI in education (Chisom, Unachukwu and Osawaru, 2023; Falebita and Kok, 2024), the majority of states still face a lack of clear strategies, basic infrastructure and adequate teacher training (Zickafoose and al., 2024). These disparities widen the digital divide (Alade and Mthetwa, 2025), both between countries and within rural, urban, northern and southern territories.

Most AI educational platforms used in Africa are imported (Holmes et al., 2019). This raises issues of digital sovereignty, as learners' data, algorithm design and cultural references are rarely locally controlled. This technological dependence weakens the capacity for curricular adaptation, particularly in African languages or nonformal learning contexts (Huet, 2024; Modiba, Van den Berg and Mago, 2025). The use of the TPACK model helps structure teacher capacity-building at the intersection of content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge and technological knowledge (Mishra and Koehler, 2006). However, applying this model in African contexts requires adaptation that takes into account the diversity of resources, the linguistic realities, and the social representations of AI (Ajani and Govender, 2023; Oubibi et al., 2024).

The risks associated with the unregulated use of AI (bias, surveillance, and exclusion) make it urgent to develop ethical charters and local regulatory frameworks (Floridi, 2014; Alade and Mthetwa, 2025). Aligning with the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), particularly SDG 4 (Quality Education), SDG 5 (Gender Equality) and SDG 9 (Innovation), provides an operational framework to guide public policies. The recommendations from this research are rooted in a logic of cognitive justice (Huet, 2024; Modiba, Van den Berg and Mago, 2025) and the protection of educational communities. In addition to providing technical opportunities, AI can be mobilized to address structural inequalities in African education, provided that its use is embedded in inclusive, participatory and sovereign strategies. This requires a paradigm shift: AI should not be seen as an end in itself but as a tool in the service of a renewed African educational project centered on learners, cultural diversity and territorial resilience.

Embedding AI within a multi-SDG framework strengthens its potential not only as an educational innovation but also as a catalyst for equitable, sustainable, and collaborative development in Africa.

This variation demonstrates that AI integration is not only a technological issue but also a governance and equity challenge. In particular, governance maturity—defined by the existence of ethical guidelines, data protection laws, and transparent procurement processes—strongly correlates with sustainable AI adoption (Huet, 2024).

Strengthening links to the Sustainable Development Goals

While SDG 4 (quality education) remains the central driver of AI adoption in education, linking AI initiatives to other sustainable development goals can create broader development synergies:

- SDG 5 (Gender Equality) ensures that AI tools are designed and deployed to close gender gaps in access and participation.
- SDG 9 (Industry, Innovation, and Infrastructure) uses AI adoption in schools as a catalyst for local EdTech innovation and digital infrastructure expansion.
- SDG 12 (Responsible Consumption and Production) promotes energy-efficient AI solutions and ethical procurement to minimize environmental impact.
- SDG 17 (Partnerships for the Goals) strengthens cross-border collaborations for shared AI policy frameworks, opens educational resources, and pools procurement mechanisms.

By situating AI in education within a multi-SDG framework, policymakers can ensure that investments in technology contribute to systemic transformation, inclusive participation, and sustainable growth across the continent.

This section synthesizes the key cross-cutting insights emerging from the previous sections, highlighting thematic intersections, implications for African education systems, and opportunities for policy, pedagogy, and research. The table provides an integrated overview to facilitate understanding and further strategic action.

Table 6:-Integrated overview to facilitate understanding and further strategic action

Theme	Key Insights	Cross-links to	Implications	Illustrative References
		Other Sections		
Policy-Practice	Policies for AI in	Links with	Need for	OECD,
Alignment	education must be	Sections 9 (Policy	implementation	2023;Falebita& Kok,
	translated into	Landscape), 7	roadmaps,	2024;Cappelli&Akkari,
	actionable school-	(Training	capacity building,	2025
	level strategies	Scenario), 11	and localized	
		(Teacher PD)	policy adaptation	
Ethical and	Ethics must be	Links with	Development of	Huet, 2024;Oubibi et
Inclusive AI	embedded into	Sections 10	culturally relevant	al., 2024; Chisom et al.,
	teacher training,	(Gender &	AI ethics	2023
	curriculum, and	Inclusion), 9	guidelines for	
	technology design	(Ethical	schools	Y
		Frameworks), 8		<i>y</i>
		(Critical Literacy)		
Teacher Capacity	Professional	Links with	Institutionalize AI	Mishra & Koehler,
for AI	development	Sections 11	PD in teacher	2006;Modiba et al.,
	requires	(Teacher PD), 7	training colleges	2025; Ajani & Govender,
	continuous,	(Training	and ministries of	2023
	collaborative, and	Scenario)	education	
	context-specific			
	approaches			
Infrastructure and	Bridging	Links with	Invest in	Zickafoose et al., 2024;
Access	rural–urban digital	Sections 9	connectivity, low-	OECD,
	divides is central	(Regional	cost devices, and	2023;Falebita& Kok,
	to equitable AI	Strategies), 10	offline AI-enabled	2024
	integration	(Inclusion)	platforms	
Critical and	Empowering	Links with	Integrate critical	
Restorative	learners to	Sections 8	AI literacy into	Luckin, 2017; Huet,
Literacy	critically assess AI	(Critical Literacy),	curricula at	2024
	outputs while	9 (Ethics)	multiple education	
	restoring cultural		levels	
	and linguistic			
	contexts			

#### **Conclusion:-**

The integration of artificial intelligence into African educational systems has emerged as both a strategic necessity and a systemic challenge. The rapid rise of AI in the educational field is reshaping the landscape of teaching and learning on a global scale. In Africa, this transformation offers unprecedented opportunities to address systemic challenges related to educational quality, equity and governance. However, it also raises significant risks in terms of digital divides, ethical appropriation and pedagogical sovereignty. This research highlights the need for a training strategy based on the TPACK model adapted to African contexts to enable teachers to develop critical literacy in AI tools, prevent pedagogical distortions and promote responsible practices aligned with the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). The data collected and the practices observed underscore the importance of a contextualized competency framework, an ethical governance structure and restorative mechanisms capable of rebuilding trust within educational communities.

Far from being a mere question of technological innovation, the integration of AI into education is a political, cultural and ethical issue. It calls for strong regional coordination, targeted investments in initial and continuing teacher education, and shared regulation of digital uses in education.

Ultimately, envisioning AI in African educational systems is about shaping the future of training, cognitive justice and the continent's intellectual sovereignty. This strategic undertaking involves governments, universities, teachers, technology partners and citizens in a collective and responsible dynamic.

The expected outcomes include the identification of TPACK competency gaps, the proposal of a national AI training strategy, the development of competency frameworks adapted to African contexts and the reduction of the educational digital divide.

The integration of artificial intelligence (AI) into African education systems presents both a transformative opportunity and a strategic challenge. While pilot initiatives and emerging policies demonstrate that AI can enhance teaching, personalize learning and support data-driven decision-making, sustainable impact requires coordinated action across governance, capacity building and infrastructure development. Policymakers must move beyond fragmented projects to establish coherent national and regional frameworks that align AI adoption with curriculum reform, teacher professional development and ethical governance (Alade and Mthetwa, 2025).

Teacher training institutions play a central role in embedding AI literacy and pedagogical integration skills into both preservice and in-service programs. This includes leveraging contextually adapted frameworks such as TPACK-AI to ensure that technological knowledge is developed alongside pedagogical and content expertise (Boateng and Kumbol, 2024). Likewise, EdTech entrepreneurs must commit to designing solutions that are culturally relevant, linguistically inclusive, and compliant with robust data protection standards, thus contributing to digital sovereignty. To facilitate sustained progress and cross-country learning, the establishment of Pan-African AI at Education Observatories is imperative. This body would monitor policy implementation, track teacher competency development, evaluate the impact of AI initiatives on learning outcomes, and disseminate best practices across the continent (Alade and Mthetwa, 2025; Boateng and Kumbol, 2024). This observatory could serve as a hub for multistakeholder collaboration, ensuring that AI in African education is guided by shared values of equity, innovation, and sustainability.

Ultimately, realizing the potential of AI in African education demands a collective commitment: policymakers to create enabling environments, teacher training institutions to prepare educators for an AI-driven future, and EdTech innovators to deliver inclusive and contextually grounded solutions. Coordinated efforts at both the national and continental levels will be essential to ensure that AI becomes a lever for educational equity, innovation, and long-term development.

Exploring reinforcement learning and adversarial training mechanisms could further strengthen the system's resilience to novel and adversarial threats [49], [50]. Lastly, although the dataset used in this study reflects real-world conditions, future evaluations on larger and more heterogeneous datasets will be necessary to assess generalizability across different threat landscapes [21], [51].

#### REFERENCES

- [1] Abulibdeh, A., Zaidan, E., & Abulibdeh, R. (2024). Navigating the confluence of artificial intelligence and education for sustainable development in the era of Industry 4.0: Challenges, opportunities, and ethical dimensions. Journal of Cleaner Production, 437. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2023.140527">https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2023.140527</a>
- [2]Ajani, O. A., & Govender, S. (2023). Impact of ICT driven teacher professional development for the enhancement of classroom practices in South Africa: A systematic review of literature. Journal of Educational and Social Research, 13(5), 116. https://doi.org/10.36941/jesr-2023-0125
- [3] Akrich, M. (1992). The description of technical objects. In W. E. Bijker & J. Law (Eds.), Shaping Technology/Building Society (pp. 205–224). MIT Press.
- [4]Alade, I. A., &Mthetwa, P. (2025). Artificial intelligence and transformative curricula practices in Africa for educational development. International Journal of Emerging and Disruptive Innovation in Education: VISIONARIUM, 3(1), Article 8. <a href="https://doi.org/10.62608/2831-3550.1032">https://doi.org/10.62608/2831-3550.1032</a>
- [5]Boateng, G., &Kumbol, V. (2024, July). AfricAIED 2024: 2nd Workshop on Artificial Intelligence in Education in Africa [Communication]. In Artificial Intelligence in Education. Posters and Late Breaking Results, Workshops and Tutorials, Industry and Innovation Tracks, Practitioners, Doctoral Consortium and Blue Sky (pp. 427–431). <a href="https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-64312-5\_53">https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-64312-5\_53</a>
- [6]Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. Qualitative Research in Psychology, 3(2), 77–101. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1191/1478088706qp0630a">https://doi.org/10.1191/1478088706qp0630a</a>
- [7]Cappelli, M. A., & Akkari, A. (2025). Academic ICTs training in South Africa, Cameroon, and Nigeria. Strategies for ICT training course design. Education and Information Technologies, 30, 10463–10510. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10639-024-13200-1
- [8]Chisom, N. O., Unachukwu, C., &Osawaru, P. (2023). Review of AI in education: Transforming learning environments in Africa. International Journal of Applied Research in Social Sciences, 5(10), 637–654. https://doi.org/10.51594/ijarss.v5i10.725
- [9]Falebita, O. S., & Kok, P. J. (2024). Strategic goals for artificial intelligence integration among STEM academics and undergraduates in African higher education: A systematic review. Discover Education, 3, Article 151. https://doi.org/10.1007/s44217-024-00252-1
- [10]Floridi, L. (2014). The Ethics of Information. Oxford University Press.

https://doi.org/10.1093/acprof:oso/9780199641321.001.0001

- [11] Hermès, J.-M. (2024). L'intelligence artificielle et la digitalization de l'enseignement: des leviers essentiels pour l'avenir de la formation en Afrique. Communication, technologies et développement, (16). https://doi.org/10.4000/12nfg
- [13]Holmes, W., Bialik, M., & Fadel, C. (2019). Artificial intelligence in education: Promises and implications for teaching and learning. Center for Curriculum Redesign.
- [14]Horváth, L. (2023). Challenges and opportunities of artificial intelligence in education: A scoping review from an educational sciences perspective. Communication presented at DISCO, June 2023. https://doi.org/10.13140/RG.2.2.10609.08804
- [15] Huet, J.-M. (2024). L'intelligence artificielle et la digitalization de l'enseignement: des leviers essentiels pour l'avenir de la formation en Afrique. Communication, technologies et développement, (16). https://doi.org/10.4000/12nfg
- [16] Jouët, J. (2000). Retour critique sur la sociologie des usages. Réseaux, 18(100), 487–521. https://doi.org/10.3406/reso.2000.2235
- [17]Latour, B. (2005). Reassembling the Social: An Introduction to Actor-Network Theory. Oxford University Press.
- [18]Laurillard, D. (2012). Teaching as a design science: Building pedagogical patterns for learning and technology (1st ed.). Routledge. <a href="https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203125083">https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203125083</a>
- [19]Luckin, R. (2017). Intelligence Unleashed: An Argument for AI in Education. Pearson Education.
- [20]Mertens, D. M., & McLaughlin, J. A. (1995). Research methods in special education. SAGE Publications, Inc. <a href="https://doi.org/10.4135/9781412985727">https://doi.org/10.4135/9781412985727</a>
- [21]Misra, A. (2022). Fostering digital skills in developing countries what works? Oxford BSG.
- [22] Mishra, P., & Koehler, M. J. (2006). Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge: A Framework for Teacher Knowledge. Teachers College Record, 108(6), 1017–1054. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9620.2006.00684.x">https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9620.2006.00684.x</a>

- [23]Modiba, F. S., Van den Berg, A., & Mago, S. (2025). Opportunities and challenges of generative artificial intelligence supporting research in African classrooms. South African Journal of Higher Education, 39(3), 173–193. https://doi.org/10.20853/39-3-6272
- [24]Nyaaba, M., & Zhai, X. (2024). Generative AI professional development needs for teacher educators. Journal of AI, 8(1), 1–13. <a href="https://doi.org/10.61969/jai.1385915">https://doi.org/10.61969/jai.1385915</a>
- [25]Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). (2023). Equity and inclusion in education: Finding strength through diversity. OECD Publishing. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1787/e9072e21-en">https://doi.org/10.1787/e9072e21-en</a>
- [26] Oubibi, M., Fute, A., Kangwa, D., Barakabitze, A. A., &Adarkwah, M. A. (2024). Interactive technologies in online teacher education in Africa: A systematic review 2014–2024. Education Sciences, 14(11), 1188. <a href="https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci14111188">https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci14111188</a>
- [27]Ouyang, F., & Jiao, P. (2021). Artificial intelligence in education: The three paradigms. Computers and Education: Artificial Intelligence, 2, 100020. <a href="https://doi.org/10.1016/j.caeai.2021.100020">https://doi.org/10.1016/j.caeai.2021.100020</a>
- [28] Perrenoud, P. (1999). Construire des compétences dès l'école. ESF.
- [29] Rogers, E. M. (2003). Diffusion of Innovations. Free Press.
- [30] UNESCO. (2025). AI in Education: Regional Policy Outlook for Africa. UNESCO Publishing.
- [31] Tardif, J. (2006). L'évaluation des compétences. Chenelière Éducation.
- [32] van der Vlies, R. (2020). Digital strategies in education across OECD countries: Exploring education policies on digital technologies. OECD Education Working Papers, No. 226. OECD Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1787/33dd4c26-en
- [33]Zickafoose, A., Ilesanmi, O., Diaz Manrique, M., Adeyemi, A. E., Walumbe, B., Strong, R., Wingenbach, G., Rodriguez, M. T., & Dooley, K. (2024). Barriers and challenges affecting quality education (Sustainable Development Goal #4) in Sub Saharan Africa by 2030. Sustainability, 16(7), Article 2657. <a href="https://doi.org/10.3390/su16072657">https://doi.org/10.3390/su16072657</a>