

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Overview

This chapter provides the background of the study and statement of the problem, purpose of the study, significance of the study, the objectives and the research questions that guided the study. Lastly, it briefly states what prompted the study.

1.1 Background

In Plato's haunting allegory of the cave, light is linked with knowledge and truth: those who emerge from the cave, leaving behind them an awareness of mere shadows, passions and prejudices grow accustomed to the light and may gaze at intelligible reality. For Plato, education enables the young to make progress from the darkness and to be saved from error and ignorance of true values (Nigel et al, 2003).

The Zambian curriculum does not include sex education. Yet there are strong arguments for it. The Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education (MESVTE) in its policy, spells out the importance of sex education on the contrary, as pointed out earlier, it is not included in the Zambian secondary school curriculum. The fact that young people experience problems arising from their developing sexuality cannot be overemphasised. Furthermore, it is common knowledge that sex education is not offered by parents in Zambian homes as noted by (MoE 1996). The coming of modernity has affected initiation ceremonies for boys and girls during which time some sex education occurred discursively. Discussing sexual matters between adults and children is not part of the African collective culture so, information is obtained informally from friends and the media and this information was doubtful of value (Kibera, 2007).

Kelly (2010) argues that the young have the right to appropriate sex education and it is a violation of their rights to deny them the necessary knowledge and access to the services they require. Sexual behaviour starts at an early age. Research has shown that it is between the age of 15 and 20 years that the individual develops sex consciousness and many types of ideas and feelings are around during this period (Schenker et al, 2002; Gallant et al, 2003 and Chaube et al, 2007,). In order to be beneficial, sex education needs to be age appropriate, thereby giving young people the information they need at the right time in order for them to make informed decisions and to put them at ease with the changes they experience. It is at this time that one may learn one's moral and social responsibilities (Kibera, 2007).

The researcher engaged pupils themselves, students from all Colleges of Education of the sampled provinces and reported from their perspective how they felt about sex education. One of the aims of the researcher was to establish whether the Zambian education sector has missed an opportunity to help young people develop informed attitudes about their sexuality and HIV and AIDS given the fact that the incidence of AIDS in Zambia is staggering.

According to UNESCO (2007) global report on the AIDS epidemic, nearly twenty percent of the Zambian population has AIDS. It is a disease strongly associated with poverty, affecting more women than men across Sub-Saharan Africa. Nearly half of the population in Zambia is less than fifteen years old, and there are an estimated 710,000 AIDS orphans, evidence of the crippling effects AIDS can have on a poor nation. Customarily, grandparents give sex education to boys and girls to their grandchildren, which explain that grandmothers talked with their granddaughters and

sometimes with their grandsons, while grandfathers talked with their grandsons. However, the information given is usually not direct but indirect in form of stories and examples, while the girl or boy is told to do or not to do certain things. However, the education is not given at a fixed time. During childhood there are several moments in which a grandmother or grandfather reveals parts of sexual knowledge to his or her grandchild. Traditionally, it is taboo to discuss sexual matters with somebody of the opposite sex (unless with the spouse, and even then these matters are hardly talked about), but between grandparents and grandchildren this taboo does not exist. In addition, it is a severe taboo to discuss sexual matters with one's child. Parents and other adults rarely communicate with the children about sexual matters. As a result, children greatly rely on information from the peers and media that at times if not often times may be misleading.

Most research focuses on what is known (knowledge) about HIV and AIDS especially in primary and secondary schools, also what teachers in these schools teach regarding the pandemic (Akoulouze, et al, 2001). These studies have emphasised that teachers lack the appropriate knowledge and skills needed to teach and deliver HIV and AIDS and Life Skills Education, thus, suggesting that learners need more knowledge, as well as new methodologies to enable them effectively prevent HIV and AIDS infections and impart Life Skills Education. The assumption made is that knowledge acquisition by teachers makes it easier to mediate HIV and AIDS education and thus resulting in behavioural change in the learners, and hence to the mitigation of the pandemic.

However, some examples of research (Baxen, 2006; 2008), focusing on teachers and the teaching of HIV and AIDS in the classroom at primary and secondary school levels, have brought out evidence, that despite adequate knowledge, teachers find it difficult to negotiate their way through HIV and AIDS education classrooms; pointing out that teaching about this topic involves talking about sex and sexuality. They have also stated that more knowledge does not necessarily lead to behaviour change because despite people's increased knowledge of the pandemic, infection rates keep rising.

Kelly (2010) noted that the public targeted by certain billboards and media programmes may perceive information campaigns as conveying messages that it is all right to have sex as long as you have it safely. Some of these campaigns emphasise messages of "condomize", be tested and abstain. However, while education is vital, no education campaign is useful unless it obtains the desired effect of altering the behaviour of the target audience so that the knowledge gained in schools should be applied to the real world.

In the past adolescents accepted ideals and morals from parents and elders without question. Simpson (2005) noted that despite some cultures in Zambia that had no ritual initiation to adulthood, morals were learnt literally at the hands of the parents and their peers both before and during school days. This implies that traditionally, adolescents were not given any information on sexual matters as the discussions were considered a taboo. Such was left to the parents of the child and generally put off until just before one's marriage. Currently, the young generation is affected by the rapid change in society with conflicting values. Sexuality plays a major role in the Zambian

society. Sex is surrounded by fear, but also associated with pleasure (Richards 1939, 1956, Rasing 1995, 2001). It is considered vital for health and physical and emotional wellbeing of men and women. Simpson (2005) argues that global forces necessarily play an important role in the construction of one's identity and the local can only be understood within the larger global frames when it comes to sexuality as at times the forces from the wider global affects the local.

Education can be the most powerful force in combating the spread of HIV/AIDS as noted by UNESCO (2000). Has the Zambian society missed the prevention owing to lack of sex education in secondary schools? There was no evidence of decrease in HIV infection levels among the young in Zambia by 2008 (UNESCO 2008). The above shows that despite the many approaches that the government and NGOs had put up yielded undesired fruits. The researcher argues for an education that would include sex education to enable the young know their sexuality and thereby long lasting effects. The argument is that the pandemic might be reduced through sex education.

The HIV and AIDS pandemic has continued to affect and undermine the lives of many people worldwide. Sub-Saharan Africa remains the region that is most hit by the pandemic. With an estimated population of less than 10% of the world's total, it is home to more than 60% of the people living with HIV/AIDS, and it is estimated that 26 million of the people living with the virus are between 15 and 49 years (UNAIDS, 2008).

Zambia is among the countries in the sub-Saharan region that have been worst hit by the HIV/AIDS pandemic. With an estimated population of 12 million people,

statistics suggest that Zambia has 1 200 000 people living with HIV/AIDS with the prevalence rate of 16.4% among the 15-49 year old groups (UNAIDS, 2008).

The aim of this study was not only to discover the effective measures of HIV and AIDS prevention messages but also to find out from the target audience how such campaigns could be more effective at reaching them and bringing about the required behavioural change that lead to HIV and AIDS prevention. The questionnaire designed for the study and the focus group sessions asked respondents and participants questions such as what was sex?, what was sex education? Their knowledge of HIV and AIDS, vis-à-vis what it is and how it is contracted, their attitudes and sex education as a prevention measure.

Even though the Zambian response to HIV and AIDS has been aggressive and persistent (ZDHS, 2013). The HIV epidemic in Zambia is a generalised and mature epidemic within the population, indicative of the need for a continued and strengthened prevention-focused, decentralised multisectoral response that can effectively contain the spread of HIV and reduce the impact of AIDS (Ministry of Health, 2010). It is this background that the researcher arguments for an education system that would contributed to prevention of HIV infections of sex education is explored as one of the response. HIV and AIDS is not only a health issue but the education system would equally contribute to the prevention measures. The global trends in HIV and AIDS pandemic have been staggering considering the new infections as observed in table 1.

1.2 The Global Situation of HIV and AIDS

Global summary of the AIDS epidemic | 2011

Number of people living with HIV	Total	34.0 million [31.4–35.9 million]
	Adults	30.7 million [28.2–32.3 million]
	Women	16.7 million [15.4–17.6 million]
	Children (<15 years)	3.3 million [3.1–3.8 million]
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People newly infected with HIV in 2011	Total	2.5 million [2.2–2.8 million]
	Adults	2.2 million [1.9–2.4 million]
	Children (<15 years)	330 000 [280 000–390 000]
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AIDS deaths in 2011	Total	1.7 million [1.5–1.9 million]
	Adults	1.5 million [1.3–1.7 million]
	Children (<15 years)	230 000 [200 000–270 000]

Table 1-Source: WHO, UNAIDS & UNICEF (2012)

The rate at which HIV and AIDS is spreading worldwide is alarming as reflected in table one. Close to two million five hundred thousand (2,500,000) people were newly infected by the virus in 2011 while one thousand seven hundred (1,700) people died with close to half a million (330,000) among them children (UNAIDS 2012). Globally, the scale shows that more women and girls are the most vulnerable to HIV/AIDS pandemic owing to cultural, biological, social and economic factors (UNAIDS 2005). Recent researched data shows that the proportion of girls and women infected by HIV is steadily increasing. In 2005, 17.5 million women were living with HIV/AIDS globally, one million more than in 2003 (UNAIDS/WHO 2005) with 13.5 million or 77% of all women with HIV/AIDS living in Sub Sahara Africa. The high rates of HIV/AIDS

among female population compelled the UNAIDS and WHO to focus on the theme of HIV/AIDS among girls and women during the 2004 World AIDS Day (UNAIDS, 2007). To reverse these gender based inequalities the 2005 AIDS Epidemic Update Report emphasised HIV prevention in the general population with special attention to girls and women who are more vulnerable to infections (UNAIDS/WHO 2005). The report stressed the need to provide resources for preventing and treating HIV/AIDS to all. However, the dimension of education in particular sex education was not addressed despite the much awareness of how likely sex education can influence the ability of school going children to know and have the skills of HIV prevention. Kelly (2005) postulates that education is the only vaccine against HIV as at now. It was thus worth investigating how this vaccine would be effective and this study argues for the education which should include sex education. Therefore, it is worth having a glance at the aims of education.

1.3 Aims of Education

Oliva (1997:164) argues that “aims of education are very broad, general statements of the purposes of education. Aims are meant to give general direction to education throughout the country”. Pratt (1980:139) asserts that “aims refer to a statement of general change to be brought about in a learner”. In addition, Ornstein and Hunkins (1998:269) contended that “aims are starting points that suggest an ideal or inspirational vision”. Aims reflect value judgements and value laden statements and they furnish educators with guides for the educational process. Because of the global quality, only a few are necessary to guide education. According to Oliva (1997:165) the following statements of purposes represent the aims of education;

- To inculcate family issues
- To prepare youth to fit in a planned society
- To promote free enterprise
- To prepare and enlighten citizens and
- To correct social ills

Similar to the aims of education as postulated by Oliva (1997), MoE noted that the learners should be responsible persons capable of making useful contribution to the society and adequately prepared to adopt adult roles by developing intellectual skills and qualities such as reflective reasoning, logical thinking, ability to concentrate, attentiveness to detail and objectivity, maintaining discipline and hard work as a cornerstone of personal and national development. It is thus the reflective reasoning and logical thinking that would be viewed as a way of protecting oneself against HIV infections through a formalised sex education.

Thus, the researcher argues for an education system that would attend to such statements as postulated by Oliva (1997). The current approaches to the sensitisation or preventions of HIV infections might not correct the social ills. The promotion of condoms and male circumcision a means of reducing the risk of contracting HIV and AIDS have promoted illicit sexual behaviour among people especially the youth. Education therefore will prepare an enlightened citizen who will be able to the challenges of life.

According to Ndlovu (1997:33) the basic questions that relate to curriculum and aims of education are:

- What kind of education would best ensure every person's attainment of effective and responsible membership in a democratic society?
- What kind of education would prepare each person for any situation they may encounter in life?

Ndlovu (1997) asserts that the aim of general education is to find the most appropriate common curriculum aims of honouring individuality while serving the democratic purposes of society. Ornstein and Hunkins (1998) postulate that education should be for developing self-realisation, and furnishing the tools necessary for lifelong learning.

Education is the only vaccine against HIV and AIDS prevention (Kelly and Bain; 2000, UNESCO 2000a). For this reason, education plays a role of preventing the infections of HIV and AIDS. I argue for the type of education which in this case should focus on the sexuality as understanding ones sexuality might be of help in the prevention of the pandemic.

1.4 HIV and AIDS in Zambia

In the Zambian situation, there are alarming statistics regarding the HIV infections suggesting that morally, economically and educationally AIDS is a national and unprecedented challenge in the Zambian society. Zambia's first reported AIDS diagnosis in 1984 was followed by a rapid rise in the proportion of people living with HIV. Only one year later 17.5% of hospital patients in the capital Lusaka were found to be HIV-positive. Within two years of the first report of AIDS in the country the National

AIDS Surveillance Committee (NASC) and National AIDS Prevention and Control Programme (NAPCP) were established to coordinate HIV and AIDS-related activities. In the early stages of the epidemic much of what was known about HIV prevalence was kept secret by the authorities under the first Republican President, Kenneth Kaunda.

In the face of the most deadly sexually transmitted disease to confront humanity, some would prohibit even the study of the human behaviours that put the children at risk. Thus disarming oneself in the middle of a lethal battle (US National Commission on AIDS 1994). Among the many problems that might demand investigation, consideration and attention of the contemporary mankind, sexual problems are undoubtedly some of the most crucial concerns. Sahu (2004) noted that mankind today is living through an acute sexual crisis, which is far more unhealthy and long drawn out. He adds that human sexuality is a powerful force, which has moulded the culture of all human societies and the lives of individuals. In most societies in Zambia there are cultural and social factors related to sexuality. These factors vary with each society owing to the traditional and cultural views on sexuality.

Sex education that is not on the syllabus and is not a school based approach shows great weakness work of deception, concentrating on biological and technical aspects of reproductive sexual health without much attention to relationship and the celebration of life, which is more interesting to a puberty individual (Kelly, 2010 and Sahu, 2004). Sahu (2004) further asserts that this emphasis obscures what he believed to be a basic psychological principle that all worries and difficulties originate from unsatisfied sexual impulses. The MoE (1996) asserts that many of those attending school in Zambia have not been given the help they need in their sexual development. In

addition, Kelly (2010) pointed out that educators, community leaders and religious personnel feel unease and uncomfortable at the thought of sex being discussed openly with the young for fear of perceived encouragement of more promiscuous behaviour. There is no evidence that correctly designed sex education programmes do so. Thus, the argument in this research is that the school may compensate for the loss of the opportunities missed by the pupils. This is more urgent today in view of the high prevalence of HIV and AIDS. It is not enough to go by what the MoE has proposed that each school should have the curriculum that will include an education programme in the areas of sexuality and interpersonal relationship (MoE:1996). This research explored the possibility of a common curriculum that requires trained and specialised personnel like any other subjects of the school curriculum with great respect to the age. Co-curricular activities involve only a few at times handled by personnel who are uncomfortable to face their own life realities.

The presence of HIV and AIDS has presented a new sense of urgency to the topic of sex education. In many African nations where HIV and AIDS are at pandemic levels, sex education might be a vital public health strategy. One approach to sex education is to view it as necessary to reduce risk behaviours such as unprotected sex, and equip individuals to make informed decisions about their personal sexual activity (WHO;2000). There has been an increase in the cases of pregnancies among school girls. For instance between 2004 and 2007, 36,000 school girls were pregnant. In 2009, 17, 339 school girls dropped out of school owing to pregnancy of which 13,634 were from primary schools and 3,702 from secondary schools and 6,000 re-entry cases. According to PRB (2011) 12 per cent of girls and 16 per cent of boys experienced sex

before the age of 15. Statistics point to the fact that there might be need for sex education that would help the young to navigate through with necessary information which might change their attitudes and enable them acquire necessary skills in order to help them make informed decisions about their social and sexual relations.

Another viewpoint on sex education, historically inspired by sexologists like Sahu (2004) and psychologists like Freud (1905) hold that what is at stake in sex education is control over the body and liberation from social control. This view tends to see the political question as whether society or the individual should teach sexual morals. Thus, sex education may be seen as providing individuals with the knowledge necessary to liberate themselves and to make up their own minds.

Although Zambia has received hundreds of millions of dollars from rich countries' governments towards HIV programmes, prevalence rates are not dropping and have remained more or less stable since the nineties, at as high as 25% in urban areas as noted (WHO 2007). Indeed, Zambia has one of the world's most devastating HIV and AIDS pandemic. One in every six adults in Zambia is living with HIV and life expectancy at birth has fallen below 40 years (UNAIDS/WHO 2012).

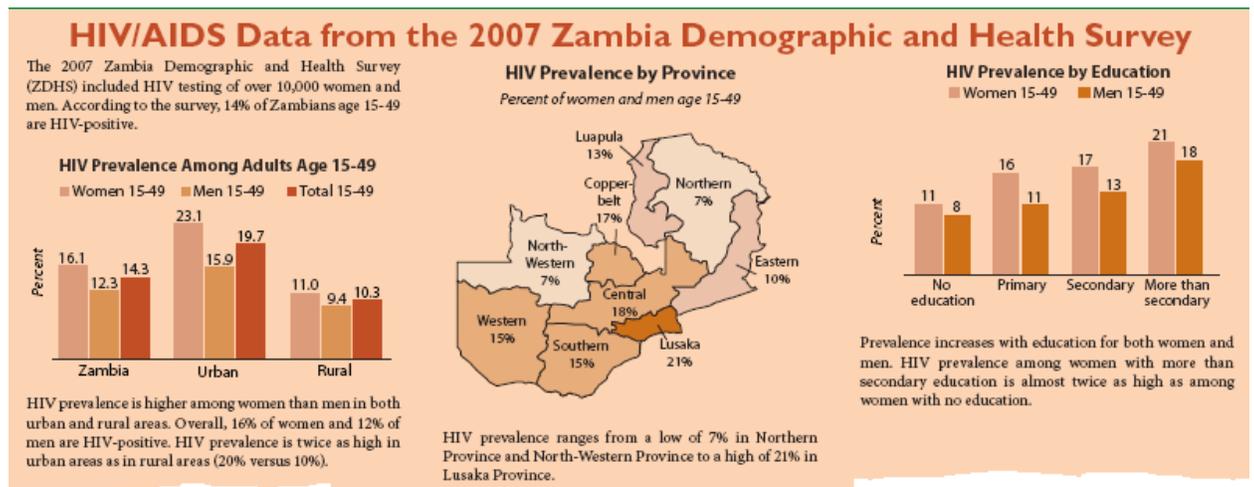
Scientifically, HIV infection is primarily a sexually transmitted disease. It might be necessary to trace and argue from the pupils' perceptions if instructional materials regarding sex education should be introduced in the Zambian curriculum to prevent the rapid infections of HIV. Mark (2004:67) argued that,

HIV prevention programmes in Sub-Saharan Africa are premised on understanding that unlike in developed world, the predominant mode of transmission is heterosexual sexual intercourse. Unprotected sex between men and women accounts for the vast majority HIV infections with

the remaining infection through mother to child during pregnancy, labour or breastfeeding.

Education should attempt to paint an inclusive, non-judgemental and accurate picture of the diverse and varied ways on how to have sex and why it is done (Kibera, 2007). There should be an appreciation of how sexual relations that people have could be protected and made safe. This can take place if it is understood that support for safe, consensual sexual relations outside and inside marriage is a legitimate subject for the education system.

Table 2: HIV/AIDS (2007 ZDHS)



The effects are devastating as shown in table 2 and has led to the increased burden on medical and health expenditures, expenses for holding funerals and decreased income especially when the person afflicted with HIV and AIDS is the breadwinner. As one of the consequences many households have become poorer because of the epidemic and the tragedy and burden of AIDS orphans is constantly growing. Most of these orphans are malnourished and have only limited access to basic schooling. This in turn

results in the lack of parental guidance and oftentimes they make the youth to be more vulnerable to the HIV infections due to lack of parental guidance.

1.5 The Socioeconomic Impact of HIV and AIDS in Zambia

HIV and AIDS have led to the increase in morbidity and mortality across the Zambian populace, especially among children below five years of age and adults between 15 and 55 years of age (CSO 2011). Increased mortality due to AIDS has affected almost all spheres of human existence in Zambia, leading to a higher rate of infant and child mortality and more AIDS orphans withdrawn from school. At household level, the devastating effects of HIV and AIDS are enormous as shown in the burden of increased medical and health expenditures, expenses for holding funerals and decreased income, especially when the person afflicted with HIV and AIDS is the breadwinner.

HIV and AIDS has also impacted on industry, business, agriculture and farming by generating increased absenteeism, decreased productivity and shrinking workforce due to deaths from AIDS. HIV and AIDS has strongly weakened the economy in Zambia (Kelly, 1999). It should also be noted that the emergence of the epidemic has led to an increase in incidence of rape, especially of girls and women because of the erroneous belief by some Zambians that PLWHAs may be healed if they engage in sex with virgins. Fifty-six percent of women and fifty percent of men aged 18-24 reported having sexual intercourse before age 18 (ZDHS, 2013-2014). Currently, there are 6.6% of youths who are HIV-positive

Prevalence by provinces indicates that Central has 12.5%, Copperbelt 18.2%, Eastern 9.3%, Lusaka 16.3%, Luapula 11%, Muchinga 6.4%, Northern 10.5%, North Western 7.2%, Southern 12.8% and Western 15.4% ZDHS (2013-2014)

1.6 Statement of the Problem

In Zambia, the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education, (MoSVTE) has recognised that education can be an effective tool in the fight against HIV and AIDS. As a response to the pandemic, the Ministry of Education has developed a National HIV and AIDS policy for the education sector. It has thus mandated all educational institutions to mainstream HIV and AIDS and life skills in the curriculum. Although education has been identified and recognised as a social vaccine in the fight against HIV and AIDS pandemic, the teaching and delivery of HIV and AIDS education has proved to be a challenge at both institutional and personal level (Bennel et. al, 2002, Kelly, 2006). There is no clear teaching of HIV and AIDS education either in colleges or secondary schools as observed by (Chita;2009, Mulenga;2010, Chikwanda;2010, Mwanza;2012)

Studies have shown that there is resistance from institutions, communities and individuals to the teaching of HIV and AIDS mainly because it is related to intimate and private aspects of our lives (who and what we are) and that of the society, namely, sexuality and sex (Baxen, 2006). Thus the view of sexuality and sex is shaped by the social, cultural and religious attitudes of the society (Kelly, 2000).

There is therefore a lacuna of knowledge about what pupils understand, grasp, interpret and talk about sex, their sexuality and HIV and AIDS. It is not known how the absence of sex education in secondary schools would be a missed opportunity in the prevention of HIV and AIDS among the pupils. This research examines sex education from the pupils' point of view in term of knowledge and what knowledge they have gained as well as missed opportunities. There is a paradox

in terms of behaviour in this era of HIV and AIDS as much as the response that we are having from the schools in terms of educating the children in sex. Analysing the statistics of the youth who have sex before the age of 18, HIV infections will continue if there is no sex education in secondary schools.

1.7 Purpose of the Study

With no promising cure or vaccine for the HIV and AIDS pandemic, education has been identified and recognised as a social vaccine against HIV and AIDS (World Bank, 2002). Education has a key role to play in preventing HIV and AIDS, and in mitigating its effects on society because it has the potential to equip individuals, families and communities with information, knowledge, and the skills to negotiate and cope with the HIV and AIDS pandemic. At the centre of education are the educational institutions through which teenagers are recruited and can be educated to equip them with information and knowledge of the HIV and AIDS pandemic. These institutions have a role to play in the educating of teenagers, and imparting accurate information, knowledge and skills to enable them become effective instruments in the delivery of HIV and AIDS prevention and Life Skills education through sex education.

From the hear says and from Masters research such as Chita (2009), Mulenga, (2010) and Mwanza, (2012) there is insufficient teaching of HIV and AIDS and there is no teaching of sexuality or sex education. In fact MoE (1996) acknowledges that there is no sex education in schools in Zambia.

My musing was, what is the net effect of all this? Is sex education, therefore a missed opportunity? Can one know it is? The study therefore was set out to find out through a systematic scientific inquiry the positions on this matter of those who should have taught sex education and those who should have been the recipients.

It is against this background that this research undertook to investigate how learners understand, interpret, grasp or negotiate their way in life to talk about their sexuality and HIV/AIDS education. The study focused on what influences learners in their understanding, interpretation and thus reducing of HIV/AIDS infections.

1.8 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study were to:

1. ascertain how secondary education in Zambia promotes the ability to protect oneself against HIV infection.
2. explore the consequences of lack of sex education in secondary schools in Zambia.
3. examine how the lack of sex education would be termed as a missed opportunity in the prevention of HIV infection in Zambia.
4. explore the views of secondary school graduates concerning sex education as a tool in HIV prevention.
5. proposing a framework for sex education in secondary schools.

1.9 Research Questions

The following were the research questions of the study:

1. How does secondary education system in Zambia promote the ability to protect oneself against HIV infection?
2. What are the consequences of lack of sex education in secondary schools in Zambia?
3. How is lack of sex education a missed opportunity in the prevention of HIV infections in Zambia?
4. What are the views of secondary school graduates about sex education being a tool in HIV infection prevention?

1.10 Significance of the Study

There is need for pedagogical approaches that emphasise the individual, problem solving, gender sensitive and interactive learning. Perhaps this particular study provides academic competence to initiate curricula reforms insofar as addressing HIV and AIDS is concerned. This study helped to develop some theory of the role of sex education in the preventions HIV and AIDS.

Strong campaign for prevention and awareness in sexual relations might be the means to combat the HIV/AIDS epidemic. It was then necessary to investigate if there was any meaningful delivery of sex education in the Zambian school curriculum without

forgetting the cultural and social norms of the society that may affect the education system. The study problematised the lack of sex education in Zambian Schools. Sex education may enable the education system to slow down the rate of new infections, as a large proportion of those attending secondary education are sexually active. Kelly and Bain (2000) argue that there is very little done to help the learners to develop behaviour patterns for responsible management of the sexuality. Due to this lack of understanding of sexuality, there are high risks that the pupils would engage in sexual activities among themselves or with people surrounding the schools.

The study makes a contribution to the current body of knowledge and practice of HIV and AIDS prevention measures. Most of the literature at hand has focussed much on the rates of prevalence of HIV and AIDS, modes of infections, the socio-economic impact and the scientific trials for developing vaccines and microbicides (UNAIDS 2005). This study aimed at enhancing our knowledge about an important, far reaching topic that has to date been inadequately examined (Fan et al 2005, Simpson 2009).

This research therefore was significant because it contributed to the stock of knowledge in secondary schools in the context of HIV and AIDS by unearthing and highlighting the social and cultural factors that influence the learners' understanding, interpretation and grasping of sexuality in the midst of HIV and AIDS, thus contributing to deepening understanding of the complexity of sex education and HIV prevention.

The study also brings to the fore the possible tensions that may exist between the curriculum and policy expectations on one hand, and the practical or actual

teaching of HIV and AIDS on the other, revealing the complexity of HIV and AIDS knowledge prevention through sex education.

1.11 Limitations of the Study

Being a qualitative study generalization may be limited. Interpretations of sex education and contextualisation were difficult. Some questionnaires used in the study may have included concepts that might not have been familiar to the respondents. Some respondents returned incomplete questionnaires and these were not included in the final analysis. There were some threats to the validity of this study which must be taken into consideration when interpreting findings and making conclusions. Even if the study sampled three provinces and focus group discussions were extensively conducted the views may not be representative. Therefore, generalizations of the findings regarding sex education in secondary requires maximum cautious.

Conducting a study on HIV and AIDS among young people presents a number of overwhelming challenges. One example of a challenge that was faced during the course of the field work concerned relations between the researcher and the pupils. Over-identifying with the respondents and losing the researcher's twin perspectives of his own culture and, more importantly, of his 'research' outlook was a challenge. It was harder work to make sure that the researcher did not over-identify with one faction in the school setting, but established some relationship with several.

As a male researcher probing a sensitive topic in a co-educational school, posed another challenge of sexism. In the single sex FGDs, one sex would try to

demonise the other. This would have forced the researcher to treat boys or girls as stereotypes depending on the data collected. The tendency by the co-educational schools is to treat masculinity among pupils and teachers as problematic while paying careful attention to the lives of female pupils and teachers. The researcher was conscious of gender differences and included an equal number of males and females in all enquiries.

Reflexivity is a social scientific variety of self-consciousness. It means that the researcher recognises the endless cycle of interactions and perceptions which characterise relationships with other human beings. Research is a series of interactions, and good research is highly tuned to the interrelationship of the investigator with the respondents (Sapsford, and Jupp, 2006). Data was collected at different levels of reactivity, and theories were made explicit. The researcher was self-conscious about the construction of texts as one is about the processes of interviewing or doing participant observation. The researcher was constantly self-conscious about his role, his interactions and his theoretical and empirical material as it accumulated. As long as qualitative researchers are reflexive, making all their processes explicit, then issues of reliability and validity are served.

1.12 Structure of the remaining chapters

The thesis is divided into seven (7) chapters. Chapter one was aimed at giving an introduction to the thesis, the statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, objectives of the study, research questions and the significance of the study. Chapter two (2) outlines the theoretical framework that guided the study. Chapter three (3) reviews the related literature of the study and the system of education in Zambia, and

then give an overview HIV and AIDS pandemic in Zambia. The research design and methodologies are described in chapter four (4). The findings are presented in chapter five (5). Chapter 6 presents the discussions of the findings. Chapter 7 closes with the conclusions and recommendations.

1.13 Summary

This chapter presented the introduction of the thesis, the statement of the problem, the research objectives, research questions and the purpose of the study. Sex education would be cultural and religious embracing as the changes in the curriculum would be a consensus of all the stakeholders of the education system, thereby, developing a comprehensive syllabus to attend to social needs as education should attend to the particular social needs. Thus the study aimed at the pupils in secondary schools so as to report from their understanding of sex education as a measure in the prevention of HIV infections as the majority of them are at crossroads in life's journey. The next chapter discusses the theoretical framework that will guide the study.

CHAPTER TWO: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the theories that were used to guide the study and the analysis of data about sex education and HIV and AIDS as a missed opportunity to prevent further infections.

According to Miles and Huberman (1994) a theoretical framework explains either graphically or in narrative form, the main things to be studied are the key factors, constructs or variables and the presumed relationships among them. Frameworks can be rudimentary or elaborate, theory driven or commonsensical, descriptive or causal. According to these authors, a conceptual framework acts more or less as the current version of the map of the territory where the research is being investigated. It can therefore be conceived as the map for the researcher to navigate.

The theories used were social learning theory and socialisation theory. Theories help any study to generate meaning out of the otherwise chaotic and disorganised data that the researchers collect in the field. The two theories resonated well with the data collected for the study as the researcher sought to organise and interpret the data as well as generate meaning from the wealth of information that was gathered through different data collection methods that will be discussed in detail.

2.2 Socialisation Theory (Talcott Parsons; 1937, 1951, 1959, Giddens, 2006)

A socialisation theorist Giddens (2006) puts forward that socialisation is a process through which children develop awareness of the social norms and values, and achieve a distinct sense of self. He adds that though significant in infancy and childhood, socialisation processes continue to some degree throughout life. Gould (2011) states that

socialisation can be defined as the type of social learning which occurs when a person interacts with other individuals. While some of the researchers believe that this process is limited to the childhood years, others argue that socialisation is a continuous process that stretches over a person's lifetime (Gould, 2011). Regardless of the argument, all of the scholars view the individual as their point of reference and focus on how a person's thoughts, feelings, and behaviours are affected by others in ways that shape identity and individuality as members of their societies.

Lock and Strong (2010) stipulates that socialisation refers to the processes of social interaction by which individuals acquire the skills, knowledge, attitudes, values, motives, norms, beliefs, and language of the group which they are or will become members. In the process of acquiring these characteristics, the individual's unique self is shaped and created. For Lock and Strong (2010) socialisation is a process of teaching people how to behave and is highly gendered. She holds that these institutions not only pass on ideas about how girls and boys are expected to act but channel girls and boys into doing different kinds of things. It should be noted that from birth, girls and boys are treated differently, and every day of our lives involves interacting with other people according to their sex.

The fundamental assertion for the socialisation theory is that society produces its members through the process of socialisation. Gould & Howson (2011) declare that part of the socialisation process entails personality development, or the process through which people become who they are and through which relatively stable characteristics develop, that distinguish individuals from each other. The socialisation theory holds that a major part of socialisation is about learning how to be in the society.

The three primary areas where socialisation occurs advanced by Kibera (2009) are family, school and community. Firstly, at family level, socialisation is undertaken by immediate and extended family members and friends as socialising agents, commences at birth and continues to early childhood. During this period children learn the language and basic behaviour pattern that form the foundation for later learning (Giddens, 2001). During this period, socialisation entails enculturation. This is the introduction of a cultureless child into the adult of his or her society. Here, a child acquires the knowledge, orientations, and practices that enable him or her to participate effectively and appropriately in the social life of a particular community (Garrett & Baquedano-Lopez, 2002).

As education is part of the socialisation in society, socialisation theory defines it as an organised set of socialising experiences. The dominant view has it that the schools process individuals. It is believed that they are organised networks of socialising experiences which prepare individuals to act in society. Schools clearly have an impact on society over and above the immediate socialising experiences it offers the young. They provide experiences which instil knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values in their young (Meyer, 1975). Several studies have revealed that children and young people in school learn a good deal more, acquire more expanded social capacities than those out-of-schools. In the case of HIV and AIDS, education is likely to determine a person's vulnerability to HIV infection. The argument about the "education vaccine" remains a burning issue from existing views that it reduces the risk of HIV infection. It is often said that people who wear a tie do not get filth diseases such as cholera.

In order to understand the ends or aims of the socialisation process, it is important to note that the newborn enters a world of social institutions, the conventionally defined and shared values and norms-symbols-toward which members of his society orient their conduct. Rafky (1996) states that social institutions derive their objectivity from the fact that they have real or behavioural consequences. For example, the institution of the family consists of rules of descent, inheritance, and conducts which exist or are real only insofar as they are obeyed. Therefore, social institutions are the second constituent of the world into which the child is born i.e., institutions are socially defined in their totality.

Rafky (1996) further explains that socialisation is continuous. Thus it is not useful to conceive of socialisation as a process that ends at some point in the biography of an individual. This entails that a change in significant others leads to a corresponding change in identity. For example, a pupil in a secondary school interacts with new significant others and therefore, makes habits to the sediment of his identity. As mentioned earlier, the point here is that the child is enculturated (he is introduced into the symbolic universe of his parent society) whereas the adult is acculturated (he moves from one symbolic universe into another. In this study, the above statement implies that when secondary school pupils come from the primary school level, they are already socialised and have a world-view.

Therefore, the goal of socialisation process is an individual who identifies with other people and situations. Socialisation serves two important functions for a society; it teaches new members of the society how to act according to social expectations, and it also transmits the society's culture to a new generation. These pupils' life-worlds vary to

some extent within their particular school environment. It can be inferred that the pupils' world of everyday life is characterised by a specific form of sociality. Since the world is made up of other people, it is shared by them. It is communicated through symbols and meanings and this state of affairs makes possible social action.

It is evident that understanding how young people construct their sex identities is very complex. Also, young people are not fixed, as suggested by sociological and cultural theories. Socialisation theory is the most useful for this study as it recognises the complex nature of gender identity construction and many influences that affect this process. It was therefore used in understanding the relationship between young people and how they go about making decisions in the context of a modern high-risk HIV and AIDS situation. In the next section, the script theory shows how human beings learn the acceptable norms through socialisation.

Berger and Luckmann (1966) argue that human beings together create and then sustain all social phenomena through social practices. They see three fundamental processes as responsible for this: i.e., externalisation, objectivation and internalisation. People 'externalise' when they act on their world, creating some artefact or practice. For example, they may have an idea (such as the idea that the sun revolves around the earth) and 'externalise' it by telling a story or writing a book. But this then enters into the social realm; other people re-tell the story or read the book, and once in this social realm the story or book begins to take on a life of its own. The idea it expresses has become an 'object' of consciousness for people in that society ('objectivation') and has developed a kind of factual existence or truth; it seems to be 'out there', an 'objective' feature of the world which appears as 'natural', issuing from the nature of the world itself rather than

dependent upon the constructive work and interactions of human beings. Finally, because future generations are born into a world where this idea already exists, they 'internalise' it as part of their consciousness, as part of their understanding of the nature of the world (Berger & Luckmann, 1966).

Rafky (1971:9) adds that social institutions derive their objectivity from the fact that they have real or behavioural consequences. For example, the institution of the family consists of rules of descent, inheritance, and conduct which exist or real only insofar as they are obeyed. They are perceived by the infant as having a prior, external, objective – and thus coercive – existence in relation to himself; that is, social institutions are perceived as veridical objects. Social institutions are the second constituent of the world into which the child is born. In contrast to material objects, institutions are socially defined in their totality (Rafky, 1971). Parsons (1959) saw schools as an important agency of socialisation and described school as focal socialising agency as the school bridge between the home and society at large. It is in the school where members learn to treat others according to universalistic values as opposed to particularistic value.

Socialisation theory was important for this study because through socialisation the youth acquires values, skills and perceptions that have an effect in the daily endeavours. The socialisation one has at every stage has got lasting effects in one's life.

According to Kibera (2007), socialisation is the process whereby individuals become responsible members of the society. The general concern for the term is the way one adopts the values, customs and perspectives of the surrounding culture. In the same vein, Giddens (2006) states that through the process of socialisation, children internalise the social norms and values of a particular society thereby helping them achieve a

distinct sense of oneself. During the process of socialisation, one learns to perform his or her social roles. Within the domain of socialisation is the Role Learning theory which states that males and females learn their gender roles and identities from what is communicated to them. These roles and identities are culturally given and individuals act on them in a mechanised way. The learning of roles and the approved values are mostly done through observation and reinforcement by significant others (Andersen: 2003). The individual learns ideologies and believes in ideologies to be true or they may conform to avoid rejection by the society as noted by Andersen (2003).

A successful reproduction of socially acceptable values and behaviour entails that one has been well socialised. As a result, the person fits in and experiences little conflict between his or her desires and the culturally defined as the moral standards. The principal argument about socialisation is that society shapes a person's values and perceptions. Sociologists agree that socialisation is a lifelong process and that the family plays an important role in socialising an individual into society (Giddens; 1991). For sociologists such as Berger and Luckmann (1991), socialisation can be divided into primary and secondary socialisation. Primary socialisation refers to the initial induction into society that the child receives from the family members or significant others. Through watching and imitating the child learns particular linguistic and social competencies as well as manners and tastes. Primary socialisation in this case lays the foundation for all later social learning.

Secondary socialisation entails a situation where a person's social relations move beyond the family to the larger community such as the school, peer groups and religious organisations. This implies that a person who is already socialised learns more norms,

beliefs and values of the group or institution in which he/she find himself/herself. The researcher's argument is that the pupils in secondary schools are at the right level to learn about the prevention measures for HIV and AID through sex education. The school will have a planned curriculum that will consider the age and the cultural boundaries.

The education would require the approach of interactive theory of socialisation such as those of Charles Horton Cooley and George Herbert Mead among them. In this approach of socialisation, education's main focus should be for liberation (Freire, 1993). Freire (1993) argues that "banking" concept should be avoided in teaching of which others call it "filling the bottle" as this entails that teachers are active while the learner is passive to receive the knowledge. It is a teaching that involves narration and the relationship between the teacher and the learner is that of narrative subject (the teacher) and a patient, listening object (the learner). The teacher in this approach talks about reality as it were motionless, static, and predictable and the education is suffering from narration sickness (Freire, 1993).

The teacher's task in this concept is to fill the learners with contents of his/her narration-contents which at times is detached from reality, disconnected from the totality and engendered them and could give them significance (Freire, 1993). The teacher in this approach is just delivering knowledge to the learners that should be depositories, and the learners should receive patiently and memorise the knowledge. The learners are not supposed to do anything else other than receiving, filling and storing the information given by the teacher. Freire (1993) states that the teacher presents oneself to his or her learners as their necessary opposite; by considering their ignorance absolute, he or she

justifies his or her own existence. The banking education can be categorised by the following attitudes and practices:

The teacher teaches and the students are taught, the teacher knows everything and the student knows nothing, the teacher talks and the student listen meekily, the teacher chooses and enforces his choice, and the students comply, the teacher chooses the program content and the students (who were not consulted) adapt it, the teacher is the subject of the learning process while the student is a mere object (Freire, 1993: 54).

As the opposite approach to the “banking” concept Freire introduced the problem solving method. This involves dialogue with the learner and the teacher also learns from the students. Students in problem solving approach are not passive receivers as they are in the banking concept, but critical co-investigators and in dialogue with the teacher. Freire focuses on the teacher’s role and the need to make the learning process relevant to the students by embodying the learner’s culture in the educational process. Freire’s pedagogical method emphasises the need for learning materials to be culturally specific. The students learn by using the immediate environment and learn how to question the world around them (King et al, 1997). Freire also stressed the need for a teacher to integrate the student’s background in the educational process. The teacher should be a mediator that leads the students into reflection and interpretation of their own reality (King et al: 1997)

2.3 Social Learning Theory

The proponent of the theory is Bandura and it is a Social Cognitive Theory, also referred to as the Social Learning Theory. It points out that providing information alone

is not enough to change behaviour. Learning is supposed to be stimulated by teachers and learners working together to solve problems in order to avoid too much memorisation of meaningless facts (Makulu, 1971 and Freire, 1972). Bandura (1977) asserts that learning would be exceedingly laborious, not to mention hazardous, if people had to rely solely on the effects of their own actions to inform them what to do. Fortunately, most human behaviour is learnt observationally through modelling: from observing others, one forms an idea of how new behaviours are performed, and on later occasions, this coded information serves as a guide for action.

Sustained behaviour change requires the skills to engage in behaviour change and the ability to use these skills consistently. The theory suggests that people learn from each other through observation, imitation and modelling; and four components are required for behaviour change. These components are awareness, self-control, self-efficacy and social support.

Awareness

The first component is to raise awareness and the knowledge of health risk. This stage is to convince people that they can change their behaviour. In the case of HIV and AIDS, this component is where you educate people about the virus and show them that they can change their behaviour through an organised programme. The school is one institution that can change the individual view more than the family. In this case, we have through the school the means of training the child in a collective life different from that of a home. The school stimulates habits that, once developed, will survive beyond school years and demand the satisfaction that is their due (Bandura, 1977).

Self-Control

This component is used to develop the self-control and risk-reduction skills needed to prevent the behaviour towards one's sexuality. Within this component, the teacher shows learners what makes their behaviour risky and how they can change it. This requires to be done during school days as the minds of the individuals remain a virgin territory where seeds of self-assertiveness can be sown and once they take root, they grow naturally.

Self-Efficacy

This component is used to increase an individual's self-efficacy in implementing the necessary or safe behaviours or habits. This may include specific efforts to show people how to use the education system to prevent HIV and AIDS infections.

Social Support

A component to build social support for the individual as she/he engages in new behaviours. This could be in the form of support groups or appropriate peer groups (Bandura, 1973). One way of doing this, is by making one's society an integral part of him/her, so that one can no more separate oneself from it.

According to Durkheim (1961), education is the influence exercised by adult generations on those that are not yet ready for social life. Its object is to arouse and to develop in the child a certain number of physical, intellectual and moral state that are demanded of him or her by the society as a whole, for which he or she is specifically destined.

2.4 Concepts Clarification

Youths: Persons between 15- 24 years old

Education: Attitudes perceptions' skills and values acquisition to enable one navigate his or her way in life

Sex education: Teaching of useful knowledge and related skills among sexually active youth.

Missed opportunity: Lacking something good

HIV Infection- Acquiring a virus that lead to immunodeficiency

2.5 Summary

This chapter has outlined two different theories that guided the study. The study argued that the socialisation theory and social learning theories were appropriate as they guided the researcher's formulation of research instruments, research methods, data analysis and discussion of the findings in the study. In the next chapter, related literature about education and sex education from the western world and Africa was discussed in detail.

CHAPTER THREE: LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 Introduction

The chapter discusses the history of education and proceeds to survey the development of educational theory and practice in the Western world to the end of 20th century from which we can draw the understanding of educational developments in Zambia. The chapter discusses different periods of education with a major focus on those that have greatly contributed to the modern education and the rise of modern university institutions and the periods that have contributed to the development of national education systems. Different education backgrounds are discussed which include the Western Education, the Islamic Education and African Indigenous Education for the researcher to analyse different influences. The chapter also discusses the aims and objectives of African Traditional Education. African Tradition Education has been included to analyse what was taught and the contribution to sex education and to conceptualise the missed opportunities by the current education system in Zambia.

3.2 History of Education

According to Ndaloh et al (2009), a survey of the past development of education systems, theories and institutions within the general framework of socio-economic, political, technological and cultural change might help scholars and policy makers to improve the quality of education, strengthening the professional competence of the educators and making comparisons within a historical context and developing powers of thinking and exposing ourselves to other disciplines. In our situation the survey of the

history of education might guide in the current societal needs such as the preventions of HIV infections.

Sifuna et al (2006) define history as the record of all past experiences. It shows how a group of people are and how they came to be in relation with political, social, economic, scientific and technological events that have shaped a particular society. This entails scholarly analysis of what the society is and what propositions lay before them in the future. This is because every human society has the link with their previous experiences whether conscious or unconscious as these build at each stage of development and holds some effects and content from the previous stages for the process of continuation. It is for this reason that it might be of great importance to understand the historical part of education and how it can be instrumental in reducing HIV and AIDS pandemic in the Zambian situation and other Sub- Saharan African countries. The findings might not be restricted to the Zambian situation and might help other scholars to learn something about HIV and AIDS education of which sex education is argued in this particular study.

The term education comes from the Latin word *educatio*, which in turn has been derived from the verb *educare* which refers to the general process of growing up, of rearing, of bringing up. Originally, it was used for the rearing of plants and animals as well as for the bringing up of children; thus we find the ordinary Latin expression *educatio prolis* , meaning the rearing of the young.

Both *educare* and *educatio* were used then in a very general sense, primarily referring to the physical process of rearing and excluding the mental process of rearing in the case of children. At the later time the terms came to be used in a more specific

sense, but often, in this sense, a qualifying or explanatory adjective was added, as in *educatio liberalis*, meaning a liberal education Njoroge and Bennars (1999).

The term education is so familiar that one might begin to wonder why it should be necessary to define. To some people, education is synonymous with attendance of school or some other type of educational institution such as college or university. To these people therefore, a person becomes educated by merely attending school. To them, the mere fact that a pupil has attended school regularly for one year, for example, is enough to earn him or her promotion to the next class. He or she moves automatically from one class to the next at the beginning of a year, and it is an offence in the eyes of educational authorities for the head of a school to allow a child to repeat a class; especially the top classes. This type of education existed but did not give rise to the sex education. It is for this reason that the historical survey gave rise to the understanding of the current education system which has been faced with HIV pandemic. In line with this understanding of the meaning of education, people often say that this boy or girl has had so many years of primary or secondary education ; meaning that he or she has been attending primary or secondary school for so many years. Defining education this way in terms of attendance at school can only be regarded as loose and inaccurate. Although policies, such as that of automatic promotion, seem as if they are based on this kind of understanding of the meaning of education, one suspects that at the back of the minds of those responsible for those policies is the hope or belief of the minds of that pupil is at school he or she is gaining something. Strictly speaking, therefore, this definition of education should not be taken seriously.

The next definition which has also been attached to the term education is more attractive. According to this definition, education means acquisition of knowledge. For attendance at school to be equated with education in this case, a defined amount of knowledge has to be acquired (Njoroge and Bennars 1999). If this knowledge has not been acquired then education has not taken place even though a pupil has been to an educational institution for the required number of years. Education being a 'social vaccine' it is not enough to acquire knowledge without proper life skills for one to navigate throughout life. According to this concept of education, promotion of pupils from one class to the next is based on whether or not the required knowledge has been acquired during the years. If it has not been acquired then the pupil has to repeat the class in order to acquire knowledge before promotion.

To be fair to those who equate education with attendance of school, it should be added that they also understand education to mean acquisition of knowledge. The only difference between the two definitions of education is the acquisition of knowledge that they appear to presume that the acquisition of knowledge takes place automatically so long as a pupil attends school regularly.

The more enlightened proponents of the definition of education in terms of knowledge acquisition also add the acquisition of skills and attitudes to the gaining of knowledge Sifuna (2009). In other words, they maintain that education does not mean only the acquisition of knowledge but that it also means the acquisition of desired skills and attitudes in addition to knowledge.

Often, the knowledge, skills and attitudes referred to are pre-vocational or non-vocational. In other words, the knowledge, skills and attitudes acquired are not enough

to enable somebody who has just completed school to embark on an income generating vocation.

In this definition, acquisition of knowledge, skills and attitudes for a vocation is referred to as training and not education. Thus one often hears of references being made to the phrase education and training, implying that training comes after one has received education. For example, one trains as a teacher or a doctor after one has received education.

The definition of education in terms of the acquisition of knowledge, skills and attitudes has also given rise to the idea of basic education as opposed to higher or further education. Here, knowledge, skills and attitudes are placed in two groups: those that are considered essential if one is to take charge of one's life in a society and be capable of learning further, and those that are meant to bring about improvement in one's competence in looking after oneself in a society (Hugh et al; 2006).

The former is referred to as basic education, and the latter as further or higher education. The time taken to receive either the basic or further education does not come into the definition. A learner would take as long as he or she needs to acquire the knowledge, skills and attitudes in question. The place where the education is received is also immaterial in this concept of basic versus higher education. The education could be received within or outside an educational institution.

The fact that examination is the most common method of determining the extent to which the required knowledge, skills and attitudes have been acquired, gives rise to yet another definition of education. In this definition, education is equated with the passing of examinations. One who has passed appropriate examinations is regarded as

having been educated. And the more examinations one passes the more educated one becomes. Education, viewed this way is also not tied to school attendance, nor to a space of time. It is the passing of the examinations that counts. It could be at school or by private study and it could occur at any time during one's life time.

It should, however, be noted that defining the concept of education in terms of passing examinations would virtually amount to the same as defining it in terms of acquiring knowledge, skills and attitudes. It is essential to distinguish schooling from education in order to arrive at a working definition of the latter. Many people in the Zambian society tend to associate the act of attending an institution of formal learning, such as primary school, secondary school or even university, with the process of education. Would such an education system in Zambia promote the ability to protect oneself against HIV infections of which were the focus of the study?

Used in this loose sense, the term education would cover any physical presence at an educational institution. It would cover the systematic promotion through the grade range governing such an institution to the highest point possible. It would not matter what an individual attending such an institution gained, as long as they went through the institutionalised cycle.

The process of attending an institution of learning in the formal educational system will be referred to as schooling. The application of the term education will be reserved for more comprehensive exposure to opportunities and challenges in life, aimed at achieving an all-round preparation of the individual for the challenges and roles awaiting him or her as a member of his or her immediate society as noted by (Peters; 1960). In defining education, one could adopt a narrow or a broad conception of the

term. Education in its narrow sense could be seen as the modifying of the environment (external input), or the creation of a special environment such as is provided by the formal school system which aims at influencing man's personal development.

In this elementary sense, being 'educated' generally refers to the act of attending school on a regular basis and implies, therefore, going systematically through the various grades and levels that make up the cycle of schooling. A further definition can be inferred from an understanding of the purposes for which children go to school, or parents take their children to school. The reason a school is entrusted with the task of the upbringing of the youth is explained that by learning, somebody would turn out to be a brave, helpful, truth-telling man, gentleman and a christian. Then society expected the virtues of valour, honesty, gentility and religious humility in an educated person (Sifuna, 2006).

On the contrary, the virtues expected of an educated person in Hellenistic Greece were totally different. Education aimed to promote a culture (idealism). Within this context, culture refers to everything that is man-made in a society such as the community's tools and technology, language and literature, music and art, science and mathematics, attitudes and values. This can be summed up as the total way of life of the community in question. The system of education was to promote certain approved ideals and values of the community such as stoicism.

Some educationalists such as Emile Durkheim, Marx Weber and Kant have asserted that the purpose of education is ultimately to prepare one for life and not for a job. This argument may not be fully acceptable in many developing countries. In these countries, education is viewed both as a utilitarian service, having an investment

function with eventual economic returns, and as an end in itself, to be given as a consumer service or commodity.

The question here is but what type of education would promote the ability for one to protect oneself against HIV infections? Education's contribution to HIV prevention is often understood to mean that the education system needs to do something specific such as offering HIV and AIDS education in order to contribute to reducing HIV transmission. However, there is ample evidence that education in itself even in the absence of HIV specific interventions offers an important measure of protection against HIV and AIDS, simply by doing 'more of what it is doing already and doing it better' (Kelly, 2006b:1), in other words by ensuring that all children have access to good quality, equitable sex education. The Global Campaign for Education (GCE) estimated that universal primary education would prevent 700,000 new HIV infections each year (GCE, 2004). Good quality sex education that focuses on empowerment within safe and protective environments and that creates a circle of support within the community can have a sustained impact on reducing vulnerability and behaviours that create, increase or perpetuate risk to the youths.

A central consideration in education is that, whatever education seeks to promote should be desirable and acceptable. As Harris (1970) points out, being educated involves a value judgement. What is learnt should in some sense be worthwhile, and methods used by teachers should be morally acceptable. In the view of Harris (1970), it is not an educational process to brainwash children and indoctrinate them with certain beliefs even if the beliefs are correct.

Education, in the broad sense, involves the understanding of principles, acquisition of skills and information. It involves the whole personality, whereas training and instruction will only touch the surface of the mind. However, brilliant a person may be in his or her profession, the same person cannot, in the broad sense of the term, be said to be educated if they are emotionally unstable.

Education also implies versatility on the part of the individual to the extent that, in addition to excellence in his area of specialization, he should also have adequate functional knowledge and ability in other areas whose knowledge is pertinent to individual and social areas of operation. It should be noted that the acquisition of desirable knowledge, skills and attitudes and hence education, occurs through the student carrying out or engaging in learning activities. The learner has to be active in the learning process if the desirable knowledge, skills and attitudes are to be attained. For a learner to be educated has to be doing something in order to acquire the knowledge, skills and attitudes and become educated.

Peters (1966:79) defines education as,

the process of developing human ability and behaviour. It is thus organised and sustained instruction designed to communicate a combination of knowledge, skills, values and understanding valuable for all the activities of life.

For the purpose of this study education was defined in terms of knowledge, skills and attitudes. In other words, education as the process of acquiring and developing desired knowledge, skills and attitudes. This definition will be considered as our point of argument as we discuss sex education in secondary schools in Zambia.

The word process has been introduced in the definition to underscore the fact that education is a continuous activity that never ends. It is only school education that begins and ends with schooling, but education continues throughout a person's life. The word develop has also been included to underscore the fact that acquiring knowledge, skills and attitudes is not a one shot affair, but that acquisition of more and more knowledge, skills and attitudes is necessary so as to deepen and widen what has already been acquired.

Some people are uncomfortable with this definition as they feel that it only refers to the acquisition of knowledge, skills and attitudes but that it ignores the application of these acquisitions. This objection cannot be wholly valid in the sense that if one actually acquires the desired knowledge, skills and attitudes then one would implicitly apply these acquisitions in various life endeavours.

For example, desired knowledge, skills and attitudes acquired would be applied by a person in how he acts or performs or feels about other people. If, for example, an attitude of self-reliance is one of the desired attitudes and a person has acquired it, then; he/she will automatically apply the knowledge and skills which he has acquired to lead a self-reliant life, he/she will do things in a self-reliant manner since he would have the appropriate attitude and necessary knowledge and skills. Thus it can be seen that the definition of education as a process of acquiring knowledge, skills and attitudes incorporates both the acquisition and application.

Furthermore, this is a social process in which one achieves social competence and individual growth that is carried on in a selected and controlled institutionalised setting. The person's life should be reflected in the conduct, the activities to which one is

committed, the judgements and feelings that are thought to be desirable. The combination of knowledge, skills and attitudes acquired would lead to self-reliance. Therefore, history of education is a study of the past development of educational systems, educational theories and institutions within the general historical framework as noted by Sifuna et al (2006). The theory and practice of education would enable scholars and educators to examine historical educational issues and problems that perplex us today as they have perplexed scholars and educators in many societies in the past centuries. Peters (1966) provides us with an analysis of the concept of education and these are normative (prescriptive) definition that recommends that what should be or ought to be.

There are two broad terms to the understanding of education and these are traditional theories on one hand and progressive theories on the other. This involves what exactly is to be learnt by those the education is proposed for (Sifuna, 2006). Traditional theories stress exactly what is to be learnt while progressive theories are mainly concerned with the process of learning rather than content. Combining these two theories leads to three conditions of education and these are the normative, cognitive and procedural. The first two might point directly to the content and the third is the method. The normative (the desirability condition) is concerned with all that should be learnt, what is considered valuable desirable and worthwhile. The cognitive (the knowledge condition) points to the fact that something must be learnt such as liberal arts and that knowledge and understanding must be acquired through education and the last being the procedural.

3.4 Early man and education

Education has been one of the most important concerns of human societies. Long before the art of writing, there was a need for the proper upbringing of the young ones. These early societies felt that it was their collective responsibility as a society to teach their young ones the skills and knowledge necessary for their communities to survive. The various rituals and ceremonies (*rite de passage*) marked the passing of the youth from a stage of childish fantasy into that of adult life with all the social obligations and responsibilities attendant to adult life of which some elementary form of sex education was given to the learner according to sex.

Education in Greece evolved earlier than in Rome and each city-state had its education system without historical phases. Roman education, however, developed with clear phases. One clear characteristic of the first phase in Roman education was that the home was the agency of education aiming at practical and vocational orientation. The Greek education aimed at character training so as to produce a good person. From the above explanation education can do so by providing information and skills and developing values that allow young people to make healthy decisions about their lives; increasing young people's connectedness and security; and giving them the possibility to make independent choices and to be economically productive. This involved pursuing knowledge and wisdom not very much a preparation of a career. The study will be of help to emulate what early scholars of education viewed education should have been. In the same vein, the researcher tries to link this knowledge to the modern education. The question might be to find out if the current education system might be in line with early

scholars or there has been a greater shift. It is common knowledge that in most developing countries the education has focussed much on the career prospects.

The Greeks and the Romans believed that education should start very early at cradle for good results as noted by Sifuna (2009). This meant a good philosopher for the Greeks and a good orator for the Romans. For whatever education the target was improvement of the soul and the character development. Children were trained to be truthful, obedient and to have self-control. This is what the education in Zambia might be missing to train someone who is not caught up in the web of a career. Mayers (1973) argued that education should aim at preparing the individual to enthusiastically and effectively enter into all human relationships of a society fully adjusted to natural traits and capacities in order to live the life of a natural human being to the full.

There are some traces of some form of systematised and institutionalised education in the ancient cities of Sumaria as is evident from museum records and these records show that priests taught mythology, reading, writing and arithmetic (Sifuna; 2009). The education attended to the needs of that particular time and age. It is for such background that the study argues for an education that attends to the social needs of the society and in this study the argument is for an education apart from others that would prepare the youths to face the reality of HIV and AIDS pandemic.

Ancient Egypt had a form of systematic education in which teachers wrote on papyrus. Egyptian museums contain relics of children's school exercises along with their teacher's corrections. Further north, in the Tigris-Euphrates valley children were taught religion, language and mathematics.

More narrow approaches to education were to be found in the content of Persian schools in which children were carefully instructed from their fifth (5) to their twelfth (12) year in three things namely : to ride, to draw the bow and to speak the truth.

Sifuna (2006) indicates that in classical China (Confucius), the education system was to some extent discriminative and class oriented. Such education was first organised in local village schools and later, in a few central colleges. However, more often, Chinese education was conducted at home by privately hired tutors and was aimed at success in the public examinations leading to employment.

3.5 The contribution of the western world

One of the legacies of the ancient western world to the present world is the system of education as practised today, although on a less elaborate scale. The Greeks (Hellenes) were the leaders in early forms of formal education (PAIDEIA). In ancient Sparta, an education system existed between the 8th and the 6th centuries BC. Its aims were the security as well as the welfare.

Spartan education was basically a practical and theoretical apprenticeship that gave Greek youth training in the art of war so that they could defend their city state against external aggression. Complimentary activities were horse riding, sports and athletics. The young warriors were brought up to be courageous, cunning and deceitful. The Spartan education was simple and neither developed an academic bent nor produced aesthetic qualities or creative thinking in the youth. It however, achieved the goals of producing brave practical soldiers who were suitable for the defence of the state.

More advanced educational ideals and practices were started and promoted by Athens as a city-state after it took over Greek leadership from Sparta. In Athens, as in

Sparta, the education of the youngones started at the age seven (7). Athenian education dates back to as early as the 7th century BC.

In the early Athenian system, the child had to learn to swim and read. Later, music was included as an integral part of the child's education. In the Athenian model, it was the music school that resembled very closely our present primary school. In the music school, the child first learnt to sing and later play the lyre. In addition the child gained knowledge of reading, writing and counting, popularly referred to in our elementary schools as number work.

At an advanced stage, the children in the music school studied the memorisation and recitation of the Homeric poems (Odyssey, Iliad). The children attended school in the company of adult care-takers, commonly referred to as *paidagogos*. The music school education lasted from 7 years to 14 years of age.

It is from the practice of the music school in Athens that two famous Greek schools were founded, Plato's Philosophical School (Academy). In this school, mathematical-scientific subjects, including astronomy and the theory of music were studied. Isocrates's School of Rhetoric: the subjects of study in Isocrates' School of Rhetoric included language and literature, geography and history, law and political science, art and ethics, as well as logic. All these subjects were taught as a background for training in rhetoric, or the art of persuasive or effective speech.

3.6 Roman legacy in education

Roman social and political life was in many ways similar to that of the Greeks. The political unit in Roman society was the city state. The Romans, however, when it

came to aesthetics and morals did not think along the same lines as the Greeks. Instead of intellectualisation for pleasure, the Romans believed in a life governed by the accomplishment of some concrete purpose. They believed in concrete achievements of material value to the society. The Romans were solely concerned with the practical aspects of furnishing the means, institutions and the machinery for realising specific cultural ideals. Romans borrowed ideas from the Greeks and developed these ideals into an operative practical framework of principles that still guides the modern world in such areas as government, law and religion.

Many present institutions that used to regulate the activities of modern man are Roman in origin, including the more salient features in school and educational practice. The Romans, in their desire for the practical and pragmatic approach in all facets of human endeavour, developed a tendency to judge things by their usefulness or effectiveness.

Early Roman education was rooted in the religious ideals of the Roman people. As time went by, religion came to be accepted as a practical means of regulating everyday life. For, to the Romans, the gods (Pantheon) represented stern forces whom man had to constantly appease, if man had to live in harmony with the forces of nature. The education of a Roman first started at home, with the father taking charge of the boy's education while the mother took responsibility for the education of the girl.

However, although the home was practically the only school the Roman youth had in their early life, the boys eventually were given the opportunity to accompany their fathers in business, public and private functions and in the forum where public debates were conducted.

In terms of civic responsibility and awareness, Roman youth were exposed to some element of literacy education through learning the laws of the Twelve Tables which had been adopted around 451 and 450 BC. It is estimated that changes to these laws took place about 500 BC. About the middle of the second century BC, the serene life of the Romans was interrupted by the introduction of Greek customs and ideas.

The conquest of Greece by Rome in 146 BC introduced Greek prisoners of war into Roman society. With these Greeks there came certain Greek institutions, including the concept of education as was practised in the Greek music schools. Soon these ideas had a deep impact on the later development and direction of education in Roman society. Greek literary tradition (pagan PAIDEIA) was then introduced into the Roman elementary schools through the translation of Greek literary works, for example, the Odyssey into Latin. That was the beginning of the Hellenization of Roman education, without significantly changing the original ideals that governed the upbringing of Roman youth. The schools still cherished the practical contribution of education to social and individual welfare.

One distinctive feature between the new Roman schools and their Greek predecessors was that the Roman system recognised distinct maturational stages and the children progressed through specified grades, corresponding to levels of intellectual advancement. For example, from the elementary school, children proceeded to the grammar school and thereafter, to the rhetorical school.

The rhetorical school was a practical school for preparation for the life in public affairs at Rome. Rhetoric schools, therefore, were dominated by the *intelligentsia* that expected to spend most of their lives in a public career. It, therefore, became an elitist

school and only a few notable figures such as Cicero (106 – 43 BC) who acceded to the throne through oratory, Pompey, Caesar, Mark Anthony and Augustus went through the rhetoric school before taking public careers.

Further development beyond the rhetoric school came with the first steps in the development of university education. Higher education in Rome was an imitation of Greek education. It took its nurture from the libraries that had been taken as spoils from the Greeks, the first of the libraries having been transferred from Athens to Rome in 167 BC. Between 117 and 138 AD the budding University at Rome was developed under King Hadrian and later emperors into a definite institution termed as the Athenaeum.

The Romans developed this into a practical university giving courses for careers in law and medicine, thus reinforcing the importance attached to the practical approach to education. As in many countries today, education in the Roman University was elitist and only an insignificant proportion of the population had access to it (feudal aristocracy). Excellence in education declined with the fall of Rome, but Roman influence had spread into other European seats of learning together with the Christian moral tradition (christian PAIDEIA). It is this tradition that was later passed on to the new colonies of western powers in the form of missionary organised education. This legacy gave the foundation of modern education in both Africa and the rest of the developing world.

3.7 The Islamic Tradition in Africa

In comparison with African Indigenous Education, one may in general state that Islamic Education has been denied recognition as an educational tradition in tropical Africa. Although not indigenous to Africa, it is a tradition of long standing, particularly

in West and East Africa, not to mention North Africa. At the centre of Islamic Education is the Quran, and the study thereof, first at an elementary level by means of rote-learning in the Quranic schools, and later at a higher level in institutions for Islamic studies.

3.7.1 Characteristics of Islamic Education

The pursuit of religious knowledge was first and foremost a religious matter, and only secondarily an academic affair. Islamic education has always been greatly concerned with the transmission of Islamic religious values. The Islamic tradition resembled African Indigenous Education, which also emphasised social integration. It placed great emphasis on literary and legal authority. The Islamic tradition of education was highly value-oriented, where the values were mainly religious and moral as derived from the Quran, the Prophetic Tradition and Islamic Law (Sharia).

One possible disadvantage of the well-defined, homogeneous Islamic philosophy of education is its conservative character; based on fixed principles, it allows little or no room for a questioning or critical attitude.

The Islamic education does not tolerate any sexual offences by individual as they are radical of their Islamic Law (Sharia). The attitudes are constructed in such a way that religious beliefs take more precedence than the impulse of sexuality. Would such religious ideals help in the prevention of HIV infections or we need an education that is holistic and does not impart fear of immoral sexual behaviour in individuals?

3.8 The Western Tradition in Africa

The Western tradition goes back to ancient Greek society, which strongly encouraged the idea of 'liberal education'. This kind of education aimed at the pursuit of

true knowledge through the study of the Seven Liberal Arts namely; logic or dialectic, rhetoric, geometry ,arithmetic, music ,poetry and astronomy of which the term *schole* to mean education.

The term (*schole*), in its original meaning meant free time or leisure. Thus, schooling was a privilege of the few, of the aristocracy, of the elite. By contrast, the slaves and the common man had to be satisfied with laborious instruction in useful skills and crafts, for which the ancient Greeks used the term (*techne*), the idea of technical or practical education considered to be entirely different from, and definitely inferior to, 'academic education'.

The idea of academic or liberal education was inherited by the Romans, who coined the term (*educatio liberalis*). Later this idea became an integral part of western civilisation, throughout the European Middle Ages. The modified idea of liberal education, as it had found expression in 19th century in England, was at the basis of the colonial policy on secondary education in British-dominated Africa during the first half of the century.

In East Africa, academic education for the Christian elites was the overall goal, where the pursuit of true knowledge included the study of western civilisation and of Christianity. These schools were to provide the colonial governments with a small, selected group of loyal civil servants, imbued with a western mentality. At the elementary level of education, a different policy was adopted by the colonial government. According to Ndaloh et al (2009) creation of practical education, was designed specifically for the working class, (native) workers with some elementary skills, practical or technical education.

3.9 Pre-independence period

The Phelps Stokes Commission of 1920s, supported by a fund availed by Lady Caroline Phelps-Stokes for the education of Negroes in America, visited East Africa in 1924 and expressed the attitudes, beliefs, concepts and considerations which influenced definitions of aims of education for 20 to 30 years: to provide an education that would enable the African to adapt to a simple life style as second class citizens who it would be easy to govern and who were not very ambitious. The Commission emphasised the contextualisation of education as well as the importance of moral education.

By 1950s, it was obvious in most colonies, that there was a serious shortage of skilled human resource to service even the low and semi-skilled jobs in all sectors of society. There was, thus, rapid expansion of the primary and middle schools system in an attempt to ensure that this level of human resource would be available at the time of independence for the various colonies. The rapid expansion helped to solve some of the problems, but created many more. There was a large number of employable primary school leavers, both in towns and villages.

The problems of the expansion of the 1950s, led to the concern of the 1960s, particularly expansion of secondary schools and of alternative venues of education for youngsters who did not go to secondary schools. Would such a problem pose a missed opportunity for sex education in order to reduce the infection rates of HIV in the current education system?

3.10 The Religious view

It is a historical fact that Western education was introduced into Africa by the Christian missionaries and it is another historical fact that the colonial rulers and the

Christian missionaries at the time saw their task as a civilising mission, a mission to which was to bring civilisation to the so-called uncivilised people in the colonies. The missionaries considered their mission to be highly spiritual. This was the major theme of salvation of souls especially for the Africans who were seen to be unholy and at times barbaric.

3.11 The Nationalist view

In the 1950s several national leaders in Africa such as Jomo Kenyatta and Julius Nyerere, began to advocate the need for authenticity in African educational thought. This resulted in a national philosophy of education: education for Self-Reliance, in Tanzania with great emphasis on the traditional values of cooperation, mutual respect and responsibility. One may also mention President Kaunda's statements on Humanism in Zambia. This implied that whatever one was doing was for the common good of all Zambians. With such ideas the current prevention measures would take a leaf that prevention of HIV infection should be of the common good for all citizens of which a formalised curriculum might be the argument for inclusion of sex education in the Zambian education system.

3.12 Post-Independence period

The 1960s were thus, characterised by expansion of secondary schools. Several considerations contributed to this as there was the need for human resource of the new nations. Just as there was serious shortages of skilled human resource at lower levels, so there was at higher levels. In fact, the shortage was more acute at higher levels.

The 1970s had been years of critical evaluation for most educational system. In many African countries, the concerns were with issues of the basic nature of education.

Since then, revisions have been dominated by a need to devise systems of education which become useful to the pupils whether they go on to secondary school or not.

The slogan: *education for life* brought about the need to provide economically viable alternatives to education at higher levels and need to expand technology at all levels. However, this created a variety of social, economic and political problems. Many times honest attempts to re-orient education have failed because of the complex nature of the alternative programmes being introduced. The discipline to put into concrete practical terms of all educational reforms has been the biggest challenge

3.13 Progressivism in Education today

The term progressivism normally refers to the educational ideas proposed by the Progressive Movement in the United States of America during the first half of the century. The progressivisms advocate a philosophy of education, either directly or indirectly, that stresses educational reform or revolution for purposes of rapid social, economic and political development. The reforms aimed at addressing the societal needs and the current scenario would be sex education in order to promote self protection against HIV infections

3.14 The Liberal view

The liberal view advocated not only for Universalization of Primary Education (UPE) but also the rapid expansion of secondary and higher education. The liberal view became popular after Independence during the 1960s. The Addis-Ababa Conference (1961) for example took one step further by advocating not only the Universalisation of Primary Education (UPE) but also the rapid expansion of secondary and higher

education. This was the education for everyone in order to fit in the society in a responsive citizens of which the current liberalism would entail an education that promotes self-protection against HIV infections of which sex education would be one way.

From this time onwards schooling or formal education became a primary concern of many independent African nations; in short, Africa had embarked on the knowledge industry which was seen as the key to progress. As formal education grew in size, problems began to arise, both in and out of the school: problems of wastage, of school leavers, or relevancy. In this situation educational scientists were called upon to design new paths of learning, new curriculum programmes, new methods of certification, new selection procedures, and new teaching methods. As a result scientists feel free to recommend any reform or innovation in education. This led to a liberal attitude, showing little or no concern for educational ideals. That is why this view is called liberal to handle the pressing societal needs.

3.16 The Radical view

This view proposes revolution by education in a very dogmatic way (ideology), and it is therefore progressive in the political sense (Amilcar Cabral of Guinea-Bissau, Samora Machel of Mozambique, Mengistu Maliamu of Ethiopia). They proposed a radical transformation of society, particularly in its political, social and economic institutions. Education was seen as a tool of liberation, an instrument to socialist progress.

3.17 Indigenous African Education

It is all about the pre-colonial societies. There was a time, not so long ago, during the colonial era, that doubt was cast on the possibility of African traditional societies producing any educational thought at all. It referred to educational practice that was seen to be devoid of meaning and theory or thought to justify it.

Robin Horton, of Ife University, Nigeria, found strong support among many African scholars that traditional ways of thinking were not irrational or emotional expressions of simple minds ; on the contrary, they resemble the modes of thought that are usually associated with scientific theories (Castle,1968).

This being so, the philosophical dimension of traditional educational thought has already been established, at least in principle. Some problems in talking about the Traditional educational thought within Africa;

- Firstly, traditional educational thought has nearly always been expressed orally.
- Secondly, Africa is a vast continent and has in the past been populated by people living in very different societies and cultures.
- Thirdly, most expressions of traditional thought appear to be time-less and date-less; they are also often anonymous.

One of the few studies, and perhaps the most comprehensive one to date, is Pierre Erny's essay on traditional education (Erny, 1972) who argues for what he terms a traditional pedagogy, and calls for an elaborate, explicit, coherent and systematic way of thinking about traditional education.

African Indigenous Education was highly value-oriented (social ethic). Being the outcome of a closed society which emphasised social integration, traditional education was not merely concerned with survival values, it was equally, if not more, concerned with trans-survival values. African Indigenous Education points to a true philosophy of education.

Education in every society, no matter how simple or complex a society might be, is aimed at preparing an individual for future life. HIV and AIDS prevention can no longer be left in the hands of the media, healthy personnel and the family if the societal development is to be maintained. Nyerere (1967) noted before the advent of HIV and AIDS that education has to transmit from one generation to the next the accumulated wisdom and knowledge of the society, and to prepare the young people for their active participation in its maintenance of development and liberate both the mind and the body. Sex education might be one of the ways in which individuals might be prepared to live the full life. It might be important to discuss the African Traditional Education at this point and elaborate if sex education existed and for what purpose.

In African Traditional Education, sex education was one of the ways in which one was prepared for adult life. Sifuna (2006) asserts that education in African Tradition centred on physical exercises, sex education and awareness of responsibility and acceptance of the initiates into the community. Though sex education was done during initiation ceremonies, it shows that sex education was part of their curriculum.

Castle (1968:39) points out that

one had to realise that natural impulses had to be curbed in the interests of the community and that a strict code of morality existed to secure this end, especially regarding

the relations between the sexes which were regulated by strict rules backed by severe sanctions. Thus, for the African boy or girl tribal rules and the moral code were written in the mind and heart, to become part of their thinking and feeling.

In most African communities sexual behaviour is governed by strict moral rules.

Mbiti (1969: 147) argues that;

there was no anarchy in terms of sexual norms. Sexual offences were taken very seriously; where adultery is dealt with it is seriously dealt with..... Fornication, incest, rape, seduction, homosexual relations, sleeping with a forbidden "relative" or domestic animals, intimacy between relatives.... all constitute sexual offences in a given community.

In African set up there were rules that governed morals about sexuality whereby the people lived up to the norms and values of the society. Sexual behaviours were properly guided by what Mbiti states that sexual offences were taken seriously. It is against such background that despite the issues of HIV and AIDS not being there but there were rules that controlled the sexual impulses. Would the education system in Zambia missing an opportunity for the prevention of HIV infection owing to the lack of sex education?

The notion of a formalised, systematised approach to education of the youth in society had its beginnings in the Middle East, the Far East and Greece later spreading its influence into the Roman Empire and other nations of the western world, this education was preceded by modes of upbringing of the youth (inculcating survival skills, preparation for certain responsibilities) which were not strictly run on the formal lines on

which education in Athens, Rome and later civilisations of the western world was organised.

This process was aimed at promoting, maintaining and preserving the cherished mores, values and institutions of a community. It, therefore, promoted a culture and discouraged anti-social behaviours throughout the life of the individual. For example uncontrolled sexual behaviour was abhorred. African societies therefore censured uncontrolled sexual conduct. By and large, sexual relationships were confined to marriage. Kibera (2007) states that sexual abuses such as adultery or fornication, incest and rape were viewed with such awe that people involved in these offences needed to be cleansed in a public ceremony. This might have minimised the occurrences of these offences. According to Occiti (1973) in the context of the Acholi of Uganda girls were trained to be honest and faithful to their husbands and women who could not control their sexuality risked staying unmarried.

Education and teaching in Africa before the coming of Europeans was characterised by four main features: it had a collective and social nature and a lot of importance was attached to it. African education was vocation-specific, to prepare the youth for specific roles in society; education was very closely linked to the community's everyday social life in both the material and spiritual perspectives, it had a multiplicity of aims as well as methods. It was used for moulding character and providing high moral qualities in the youth, it reflected gradual and progressive achievement, in conformity with successive stages of physical, emotional and mental development of the child.

The methodology of Indigenous African Education comprised the provision of opportunities for the youth to listen to and observe the elders at community discussions

or debates. Children also gained knowledge and skills by taking part in the different aspects of social life to which they were admitted.

The shaping of character in the right direction as well as the provision of acceptable moral qualities was enshrined in the Traditional African Education. Most of this interaction with older people who would have had orientation in the various aspects of community laws, skills, values and mores.

At more advanced levels, where quality education was necessary, this function was the sphere of community sages or elders (Farrant; 1980). These sages would have achieved prominence and a high degree of respect within the community by virtue of their age and their proven practical wisdom in dealing with the problems of the society.

The sages provided intellectual training for the youth through a variety of approaches. Devices used in intellectual training included general knowledge quizzes in a number of areas related to the experiences of the community and its life-styles. For instance, the youth were expected to be able to show knowledge of clan history, the geography of their clan in relation to others, the properties of certain plants including their economic and medical worth.

Another further approach to pedagogy in African traditional education involved the imitation of adult activities in the first stages of childhood. This was followed by the emulation of adult activities as the youth gained confidence and increased skills.

The boys imitated the survival skills of the adult males including approaches to hunting and killing wild animals for their meat and skins for shelter. In addition, they

had to learn through both observation and practical involvement, the intricacies of providing housing for themselves and their families in adult life.

The education of girls was similarly vocation-specific. The girls were reared at the apron strings of their mothers for longer periods than the boys were. They were introduced to the family roles of women through engaging in such skills as pottery, basket weaving, firewood gathering and the preparation of food for the family. They learnt the importance attached to humility and their place in society vis-à-vis menfolk.

Varied series of initiation ceremonies or, rituals for transition from childhood to adulthood was characterised by circumcision of the male children, clitoridectomy of the female initiates, decorative incision of the face (tattooing) and testing endurance and resistance to suffering (measure of pain) as noted by Farrant (1980). There has been silence when it comes to sex education in most of these education systems. This cannot be left without proper discourse especially with the pandemic of HIV/AIDS.

Because education is an essential institution in society, the sociology of education must focus on an array of salient social issues, many with vital policy implications. The current situation of HIV and AIDS in Zambia requires practical approaches to reduce on the new infections of the pandemic. Education is capable of changing the behaviour of the learner to a desirable direction and can also liberate the individual.

The education for the current situation in Zambia must impart into the minds of learners the liberating ideas, concepts and skills. The education should help learners to control themselves and the environment in which they live.

HIV and AIDS is one of the educational issues facing the society today. Understanding the roots of education and the contributions education has had might help in coming up with possible educational theories and suggestions to the pandemic. The prospective teacher would be equipped with a tool kit to operate in a society and schools in which HIV and AIDS are part of the social problem. This should be in line with the early scholars of education who held the belief that whatever education can do to an individual should be of value to the society. In this vein understanding, the power of sex education to an individual might be of help to the educators and scholars.

The study of educational history might be relevant to the issues of improving quality of education at present to the teachers as they practice and to find alternative theories according to the present needs of a particular society. This particular study might contribute to the understanding of motivations and behaviours of human beings who are in constant conflict about socioeconomic, religious and educational aspects of the society in the presence of HIV and AIDS pandemic. Thus, fostering the ability to both the educator and the learner to face the current pandemic of HIV and AIDS.

Sifuna et al (2006) argue that, educational theories and practices in a historical context encourage a tendency to observe critically theories and practices leading to a conviction that is creative. This implies that the major issue is not just a matter of amassing more data to answer old questions or bolster old beliefs but coming up with new and better questions in order to generate fruitful research questions or hypothesis and go into unexplored thought of inquiry.

3.18 Sex Education around the World

Human sexuality is multifaceted in nature as it comprises biological, emotional or physical and spiritual aspects. The biological facet involves the reproductive mechanism as well as the basic biological drive (*libido*) that exists in all species and is hormonally controlled. The emotional or physical facet of sexuality refers to the bond that exists between individuals and expressed through feelings or physical manifestations of love care and trust. The third facet of sexuality of individuals is the spiritual aspect which entails connections with others. Sahu (2004) argues that adolescents are curious about some of these aspects of their sexuality as well as the nature of sexuality in general and that many would wish to experience their sexuality. The information from friends and media shows a lot of deficiencies especially during the puberty stage when curiosity about sexual matters is most acute. Media information is inefficient and it became evident in the 1960s as seen in the increasing incidences of teenage pregnancies in Western countries and some initiating programmes of sex education which had strong opposition from parents and religious groups (UNAIDS 2008). Burt (2009) defines sex education as the study of the characteristics of human beings; male and female and such characteristics make the person's sexuality. Sex education includes all measures that in any way may have their cardinal discussion on sex. Leepson (2002) postulates that sex education stands for protection, presentation extension, improvement and development of the family based on accepted ethical ideas. Sex education therefore, should involve the instruction in various physiological, psychological and sociological aspects of sexual response. It should be a comprehensive area of study by the education institutions such as secondary schools in order to bring

out socially acceptable attitudes, practices and personal conduct on the part of the society. The field would help to protect the individual as a human and the family as an institution.

In India there are many programmes about sex education including information on AIDS in schools while Indonesia, Mongolia, South Korea, Malaysia and Thailand call it differently as adolescent health needs; all with a view to developing adolescent specific training messages.

In some European countries such as Finland and France, sex education is incorporated into various obligatory courses. In Germany sex education covers all subjects concerning the growing up process, body changes during puberty, emotions, the biological process of reproduction, sexual activity, partnership, homosexuality, unwanted pregnancies and the complications of abortions, the dangers of sexual violence, child abuse and sexually transmitted diseases, but also things like sex positions (<http://www.zeit.de/2003/03>).

It is interesting to note that not all countries have embraced sex education in Europe, sex education in Poland has never developed and it is called family life education as opposed to sex education and parents must give consent to the headmasters for the children to learn. This is due to strong religious objection against sex education of the Catholic church (<http://www.racjonalista.pl>).

In England and Wales sex education is not compulsory in schools as parents can forbid their children to take part in lessons. The curriculum focuses on the reproductive system, fetal development and the physical and emotional changes of adolescence (Education Act 1996).

Sex education in the United States is taught in all the states but the content of what is taught varies from one state to another because the United States of America has decentralised decision-making system. There are two forms of sex education namely; comprehensive and abstinence. Comprehensive sex education concentrates on abstinence as a positive choice and also teaches the advantages of contraception and avoiding sexually transmitted diseases between sexually active individuals. Abstinence only focuses on abstinence from sex before marriage and does not support contraceptives.

Sonya (2007) argues that sexual risk taking should be considered from a dynamic relationship perspective than from a traditional disease model perspective. This is because prevention or abstinence does not discuss adolescent's social and emotional concerns about sex. Identification of common negative social and emotional consequences of having sex may also be useful in screening for adolescents at risk of experiencing more serious adverse outcome after having sex (Sonya, 2007). Sexual behaviour after puberty is at the peak and it is therefore crucial to provide information about the risks and how they can be minimised unlike moralising that only alienates learners and thus weaken the message (The American Public Health Association, 2007). Research has shown that sex and HIV education programmes do not increase in sexual activity, they do not hasten the onset of sex, increase the frequency of sex and do not increase the number of sexual partners (Burt, 2007).

3.19 The History of the Education System in Zambia and the Absence of Sex Education

Much of the education in Zambia before colonialism was generally informal. It was a lifelong process that aimed at equipping every individual with attitudes, values, skills and knowledge from daily experience. The process was relatively unorganised and individuals were instructed according to what was needed in their immediate environment. It was done by families, neighbours and peers (Henkel, 1989).

At the onset of colonialism, there was very little formal education for Africans in Zambia because as Kelly (1999:97) indicates

the political economy of Zambia was geared towards mining and the interest of the settlers, with consequent neglect of the African population and active discrimination against Africans.

Africans mainly benefitted from the education offered by missionaries whose aim was to teach literacy and numeracy so that Africans could read the Bible and hence evangelise the other African people. Carmody (2004) asserts that there was very little capitalisation on traditional systems of education and the way local people had transmitted wisdom, knowledge and experience from one generation to another. The missionaries were only interested in converting people to Christianity, and the consequence of this was the rejection of some aspects of the traditional ways of life whether good or bad. This then meant that to some extent, schools were alien to the

local culture, they were foreign to the people because they were western inspired and conceived.

Similarly, the few colonial government schools available accommodated the white population, and a limited number of Africans. Their curriculum was inadequate and largely irrelevant to the needs of the local people (Ministry for Native Education, 1964).

The system of education for the natives (the African population) was developed in 1925, but the funding for these schools, by the colonial administration, was really limited. For example, out of the 31 million pounds raised in taxes between 1925 and 1945, less than three percent went into education budget for Africans (Snelson, 1974)

The development of the secondary school system was slow and came to actual realisation much later in Zambia. As Carmody (2004) and Kelly (1999) indicate, at the time of independence in 1964, the country had only 1,200 people with secondary school leaving diplomas as they called them at the time (now they are just school leaving certificates). The reason as already stated above, was due to limited financial and personnel resources allocated to education in Zambia.

3.19.1 The First Republic: 1964-1973

The educational reforms would help us to position the study in order find out if sex education had been one of the priorities of the Zambian Education System or did not matter before the horizons of HIV and AIDS. The period 1964 to 1973 is

what is referred to as the first republic in Zambia because this was the period when Zambia established herself as a republic under President, Kenneth Kaunda.

As already stated, the colonial government paid very little attention to the education of Africans. As a result, when the country gained her independence in 1964, there were a lot of problems regarding how to improve the education system; how to increase access to education for both rural and urban children; the kind of education to provide, whether academic, vocational or practical; where to get teachers; where to get the resources to fund the education sector; and generally how to make education in a newly independent country more beneficial, effective, efficient and relevant to the local people.

Kelly (1999) argues that the government focused on, ensuring equity of educational opportunities, regardless of race; promoting national unity; and fostering national development. This then prompted the government to improve the quality of existing primary education, to expand secondary education and to establish a university now called the University of Zambia.

3.19.2 The Second Republic: 1973-1991

Much of the educational activities in the first republic were meant to address the problems that the country inherited from colonialism. Therefore, it concentrated on expansion of access to education. Very little was done to improve the structure, curriculum and organisation of the education system (Kelly, 1999 and Carmody, 2004).

The result of this was the increase in the number of primary school leavers who had no access to secondary education or any form of employment. They were inadequately prepared for life. This then raised the question of how relevant the education system was to the local people. Therefore, as a response to these challenges, the reforms during the second republic period focused on the education that aimed at developing the whole person; to develop an education that had a curriculum that stressed quality rather than quantity and also on the relevance of the content to the local people. The reforms stressed the need for 7 years of primary education for all school aged children, as well as the improvement of teachers as professionals. It also emphasised the need for equity and better distribution of resources (Kelly, 1999).

3.19.3 The Current Education System in Zambia: 1991-today.

The current education system is guided by the Zambia National Educational Policy called *Educating Our Future* which was developed and implemented in 1996. According to this policy, the overarching aim is to,

guide the provision of education for all Zambians so that they are able to pursue knowledge and skills, manifest excellence in performance and moral uprightness, defend democratic ideals, and accept and value other persons on the basis of their personal worth and dignity, irrespective of gender, religion, ethnic origin, or any other discriminatory characteristic (MoE:1996.1).

The policy document tries to respond to the need to contextualize education and address the growing needs of increased population, growing urbanisation, girl child education, increasing number of school drop-outs and the devastating situation

of HIV/AIDS pandemic. It also stresses the need to develop and increase access to life skills education. It focuses on quality provision of education that is relevant to the social, economic and cultural needs of the Zambian people. It has also emphasised the need for equity of access to education so that every child has access to free primary education (MoE, 1996).

The structure of the current education system is prompted by the quest to achieve the goals of the Education for All (2000), of which the member states committed to achieving universal basic education for all school going children. The education system was organised around the goal of EFA which included the following;

1. expanding and improving comprehensive early childhood care and education, especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children;
2. ensuring that by 2015 all children, particularly girls, children in difficult circumstances and those belonging to ethnic minorities, have access to and complete free and compulsory primary education of good quality;
3. ensuring that the learning needs of all young people and adults are met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life skills programmes;
4. achieving a 50% improvement in levels of adult literacy by 2015, especially for women, and equitable access to basic and continuing education for all adults;
5. eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieving gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls' full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality;

6. Improving all aspects of the quality of education and ensuring excellence of all so that recognised and measurable learning outcomes are achieved by all, especially in literacy, numeracy and essential life skills (UNESCO, 2006).

In line with the goals the education system was tailored towards educational quality, equity and efficiency, which were set for early childhood years, making attention to early childhood care and development essential to the achievement of basic education goals. Basic education must correspond to actual needs, interests, social relevance and problems of the participants in the learning process. The relevance of curricula could be enhanced by linking literacy and numeracy skills and scientific concepts with learners' concerns and earlier experiences, for example, nutrition, health, and work (UNESCO, 2006). While many needs vary considerably within and among countries, and therefore much of a curriculum should be sensitive to local conditions, there are also many universal needs and shared concerns which should be addressed in education curricula and in educational messages. Issues such as protecting the environment, achieving a balance between population and resources, slowing the spread of AIDS, and preventing drug abuse are everyone's issues (UNESCO, 2006). Specific strategies may address the issues of improving the conditions of schooling such as learners and the learning process, personnel (teachers, administrators, others), curriculum and learning assessment, materials and physical facilities. Such strategies should be conducted in an integrated manner; their design, management, and evaluation should take into account the acquisition of knowledge and problem-solving skills as well as the social, cultural, and ethical dimensions of human development. Depending on the outcomes desired, teachers have to be trained accordingly, whilst benefiting from in-service programmes as well as other incentives of opportunity which put a premium on

the achievement of these outcomes; curriculum and assessment must reflect a variety of criteria while materials - and conceivably buildings and facilities as well - must be adapted along the same lines.

Prior to EFA goals, the system of education was structured as 7:5:4, which translated into seven years of primary education (four years of lower and three years of upper primary), five years of secondary (two years of junior and three years of senior secondary), and four years of university to first degree level. The pupils' transition from lower to higher educational levels determined by the competitive nation-wide examinations at the end of Grades 7, 9 and 12.

The current structure is 7:5:4. This means that there are 7 years of Primary Education (from grade 1-7); 5 years of Secondary school (from grade 8-12); and 4 years of university. The aim of this system is to ensure that every child has access to nine years of good quality education, and those that cannot manage to go to secondary school level are able to use the skills gained during the 7 years of primary education, and thus be in a better position to earn a living and hence survive in society (MoE, 1996). This is especially in line with the emerging and challenging issues that the country is facing, among them, the escalating HIV and AIDS situation.

Constraints to the government's response through the late 1990s included lack of high-level political commitment, strategic management of the HIV and AIDS programme, analysis of HIV and AIDS in the context of macroeconomic or gender policy, programmes tailored to different populations, implementation, evaluation, and intra governmental collaboration (Garbus,2003). Rupiya (2006: 98) reports that “as more

evidence became available in 1987 the government prepared a national response to the HIV and AIDS crisis. Short and medium term plans were [underway]”. These plans were intended mainly to protect blood transfusion services and promote public awareness of the HIV and AIDS threat. These responses were also aimed at coordinating HIV and AIDS related activities (Berry, 2009).

In 2000, Zambia established the National HIV/AIDS/STD/TB Council to serve as the single, high-level institution responsible for national and technical leadership, strategic management, and effective coordination of all government and civil interventions. The national council is guided by a strategic framework (2001-03), which states that HIV/ and AIDS must be addressed in the country's overall development - not just health programme (Garbus, 2003). In 2002, the Zambian Parliament legally established the Council and the corresponding secretariat through an enactment of a National AIDS bill. The goal of the Council was to provide national and technical leadership in the fight against HIV/AIDS. It is through this institution that guidelines on HIV/AIDS activities for the nation were drawn (Rupiya, 2006; Berry, 2009 and NAC, 2009). Other responses to the pandemic include the establishment of a Cabinet Committee of Ministers on HIV and AIDS to guide the government on HIV and AIDS issues. As the nation’s single highest institution mandated to coordinate, monitor and evaluate input, output and the impact of HIV and AIDS programmes and interventions, NAC developed a draft National Policy on HIV/AIDS/STI/TB in 2004. In 2005, a final version of the National Policy was implemented and it was expected to provide the requisite framework for informing and guiding various key respondents in the quest to contribute to the fight against HIV, AIDS, STI, TB and other opportunistic infections

(MoH, 2005). Henceforth the National AIDS policy has taken a multi-sectorial response to the pandemic. Zambia has developed a legal and policy framework which is supportive of the country's HIV prevention response. This includes the National HIV/AIDS/STD/TB Council, National Decentralisation Policy (2003-2012), National HIV/AIDS/STI/TB Policy 2005, National HIV and AIDS Strategic Framework (2006-2010), Fifth National Development Plan (2006-2010), National HIV/AIDS Communication Strategy (2005), Population Policy (2007), Reproductive Health Policy (2008), National Strategy for the Prevention of HIV and AIDS (2009), and National HIV and AIDS Commodity Security Strategy (in draft).

Zambia's diverse HIV epidemic makes the decentralisation policy especially important. Structures at decentralised levels have been put in place to coordinate the local HIV response (UNAIDS, 2009). The above outline has provided a summary of the history of HIV and AIDS in Zambia; when the pandemic was first diagnosed and the steps the Zambian government have taken since. It has reflected on earlier government responses to address the pandemic and how some of the measures have remained part of the country's strategic framework in addressing the issue of HIV and AIDS in various sectors of the country. The Ministry of Education in Zambia has been one sector which has taken a keen interest in the fight against the disease and its efforts cannot possibly be ignored. Education can be a powerful force – perhaps the most powerful force of all – in combating the spread of HIV/AIDS (World Education Forum, Dakar, 2000). But just as education can contribute to weakening the grip of HIV/AIDS, so also the epidemic can weaken an education system's ability to function. Education being an important component in the fight against the pandemic, it is inevitable to take a closer look at the

MoE's response to HIV and AIDS. The next section therefore will discuss education and HIV and AIDS in trying to comprehensively understand the response of MoSVTE to the HIV pandemic.

3.19.4 Education and HIV and AIDS in Zambia

The World Education Forum, held in Dakar in April 2000, noted that

“a key objective of an international strategy must be to realise the enormous potential that the education system offers as a vehicle to help reduce the incidence of HIV/AIDS and to alleviate its impacts on society” (UNESCO 2000a: 23).

The ‘social vaccine’ of education should extend beyond the virus to eliminating the stigma and discrimination associated with it. This is one of the most important contributions that education can make in response to the pandemic (Kelly, 2010). Education has been one sector that has greatly been affected by the pandemic since it was diagnosed. AIDS affects the education sector in at least three ways: the supply of experienced teachers will be reduced by AIDS-related illness and death thereby affecting the quality of education which will in turn be offered; children may be kept out of school if they are needed at home to care for sick family members or to work in the fields and children may drop out of school if their families cannot afford school fees owing to reduced household income as a result of an AIDS death (Bain and Kelly, 2005). Another problem is that teenage children are especially susceptible to HIV infection. This in itself is a big challenge in that the teenage children who are sometimes termed as youths are the future country leaders. Therefore, the education system also faces a special

challenge to educate students about AIDS and equip them with necessary information needed to protect themselves (Bollinger and Stover, 1999).

According to Kelly (2008: 143), “the education sector has the [capacity] to equip learners with the knowledge, skills, attitudes and values that [would] reduce the likelihood of acquiring or transmitting HIV infection.” This is an important step in the process of trying to combat the pandemic although it may not be a full solution to the problem. The education sector is still considered to be an appropriate medium for spreading HIV and AIDS prevention messages because of its capacity to attract audience of more than half of the country’s population of which a majority comprises the youth or teenage group. In trying to address this problem, MoE (1996: 38) had to integrate HIV/AIDS, sexuality and interpersonal relation issues in the school curriculum after acknowledging the vulnerable status of youths as follows; Young people frequently experience problems arising from their developing sexuality. Many of those attending school have not been given the help they need in this area. The school has an obligation to compensate for losses they may have experienced elsewhere by helping pupils to form an enlightened outlook on sexuality. This is more urgent today in view of the prevalence of HIV and AIDS. Because of this, the curriculum for each school will include an education programme in the areas of sexuality and interpersonal relationships, appropriate to the age and development of its pupils.

It is as a consequence of the above reason that the school curriculum in Zambia has incorporated some aspects of sex education as well as HIV and AIDS with the view to ensuring that the young people are also equipped with the necessary information in the fight against the pandemic. In so doing, a number of co-curricular activities were

formed in different secondary schools some of which include the Anti-AIDS club to specifically address any AIDS related issues. In addition, counselling and guidance training has been offered to teachers in order that they are in a better position to help the pupils in any way possible and a number of peer training programmes have been offered. Integration therefore was one strategy taken on to promote HIV/AIDS awareness. Others include, Peer education programmes, outreach for out-of-school youths, introduction of School Guidance and Services for Psychosocial Counselling and many more (Carmody, 2004). The integration of HIV and AIDS education has taken place in all the major sub sectors of education which includes basic schools, high schools as well as tertiary education. The question as to whether the right approach is being taken or there is still much more to be done in the teaching of HIV and AIDS in schools still remains.

The government has recognised that the HIV and AIDS epidemic is as much a development concern as it is a health concern, and more importantly a social problem that requires a broad based multi-sectoral approach to address its many facets. As the *Education Sector National Implementation Framework* document (2007) states,

due to the escalating HIV infection rates and its claim on the workforce of the people in all sectors of the country, the nation has continued to witness a breakdown in social service delivery, reduction in household incomes and a less than optimal national economic growth rate necessary for overall national development.

This means that the increase in morbidity and mortality rates due to HIV and AIDS is limiting the overall productivity in both the productive and services sectors as well as altering the Zambian population structure, and as the document explains, the HIV and AIDS pandemic is also decreasing the life expectancy of the Zambians from 50

to an estimated 37 years and heavily impacting the supply of human resources (ESNIF, 2007).

As a response to these challenges, the government has initiated a number of strategies to help mitigate the impact of the pandemic on society. For instance in 2001, the government through the MESVTE launched the HIV/AIDS Strategic Plan (2001-2005) to guide the ministry's response to the HIV/AIDS pandemic. This was in the wake of the realisation that education has a key role to play in preventing HIV/AIDS, and in mitigating its effects on society because it equips individuals, families and communities with information, knowledge, and the skills needed to negotiate and cope with the HIV and AIDS pandemic.

In this regard, the MoE in Zambia has been cited as having one of the most comprehensive programmes for mainstreaming HIV and AIDS. A great deal of effort has been focused to achieve this. For instance, in 2006, the MoE developed an AIDS Workplace Policy for the Education Sector for Management and Mitigation of HIV and AIDS. The Policy guides the education sector's response to the pandemic, focusing on four main areas, namely, prevention; care and support; HIV and AIDS in the workplace; and planning, management and mitigation (ESNIF, 2007). Initially, the response focused on the integration of HIV and AIDS into the curriculum, as an approach that saw the mainstreaming of the pandemic in all primary education subjects. For the pre-service primary teacher training, the MoE, in 2006, revised the curriculum for mainstreaming HIV and AIDS education in all the following six study areas: Mathematics and Science, Language and Literacy, Social Spiritual and Moral Education, Education Studies, Technology Studies, and Expressive Arts Education (ESNIF, 2007). In the same vein,

the MoE has been trying to go beyond academic training in the areas of HIV and AIDS to integrate counselling and care, targeting the already infected members in the ministry such as education officers, lecturers, teachers and other working staff (ESNIF, 2007).

3.20 Teacher education and HIV and AIDS

Zambia currently has 11 Government and 3 grant-aided teacher colleges; out of which 12 cater for teachers for primary schools and the other two train teachers for secondary education (grades 8-12). The University of Zambia provides education for secondary school teachers (grades 8-12). The Natural Resources Development College also provides teachers for Agricultural Science, while the Evelyn College for Applied Arts supplies teachers for Art and Music (ESNIF, 2007). However, realising the shortage of teachers for high schools, the MoE in 2009, undertook the project of upgrading the two colleges (Nkrumah College of Education and Copperbelt Teachers College of Education) that were initially training school teachers for the diploma, into university colleges to train high school teachers for the degree in education (MoE, 2009).

Teacher education for upper basic school diploma runs for three years, within which teacher trainees are required to do teaching practice in schools for a period of three months. Then the training for secondary school degree, now offered by the University of Zambia and the two other colleges that have recently been upgraded into university colleges, takes four years, within which student teachers are out for a period of two to three months to do their teaching practice in any secondary school of their choice.

The teacher education faces some challenges such as insufficient teaching and learning materials, the mismatch between teacher supply or output and projected needs. For example, at lower basic level, pre-service training courses produce almost 9% of the current teacher numbers each year. At secondary school level, where the greatest expansion is expected, the pre-service training courses produce only 5.4% of the current teacher numbers (ESNIF, 2007). Another serious challenge for teacher education is the high attrition rate of lecturers because of HIV and AIDS. Though the MoE (2007) has recorded that more than 400 000 teachers and educators have been trained in interactive and specialized HIV/AIDS education methodologies, there still remained a challenge of getting them to transmit and effectively deliver the HIV and AIDS messages at all levels- primary, basic, secondary school as well as college and university (ESNIF, 2007).

In the same vein, though the component of HIV and AIDS has been integrated in all the six study areas for the primary teacher education, getting all lecturers in colleges to teach the component still remains a challenge, which is the same for primary as well as basic and high schools. This is because the HIV and AIDS is not a stand-alone subject; it is simply spread thinly through the curriculum (MoE, 2005; Ramos, 2006).

The education system should be the one that prepares one's life to be lived to the full. In the case of the current pandemic of HIV and AIDS, the current study argues for the need for education to be more assertive in order to face the realities of HIV and AIDS now and the other diseases that may be related to sexually transmit in the near future. Kelly (2010:29) argues that:

In the context of preventing HIV transmission, the discourse about sex and sexuality is often reduced to considerations about 'safe' or 'safer' sex- how to proceed with sexual activity and intercourse in a way that will prevent HIV transmission. Important as this maybe, it risks treating the sexual experience very narrowly as just a momentary encounter. In doing so, it overlooks the psychosexual and emotional aspects that characterise all but the most casual of sexual engagement. Regularly, confronting people with messages about avoiding disease can steer them in the direction of a negative attitudes towards life and away from positive choice for life and the balanced fulfilment of their potential.

Education curriculum should be relevant to the changing times because it is the education organisation where social messages can be transmitted. In a school set up pupils are socialised into standard ways of behaving such as time keeping and respect for teachers. Obanya (1999) asserted that education should be everyday experiences and that is where thinking begins, where solutions to all problems must be found. For this, education is one of the means that would make one's mental to connect between what one is doing and what happens as the consequences to the action. Kelly (2010:32) postulates that:

it is important that young people learn about techniques and technologies for avoiding HIV risk, but this is where injustice manifests itself in the area of sex and HIV. The young people have the right to know about sex, sexual practices, HIV related risks, reducing risk taking behaviour and how to protect themselves against infection.

Learning about sexual orientation may help in the prevention of HIV and AIDS infections and life to be lived to a full with all the knowledge to understanding oneself in totality. HIV and AIDS is generally a human sexuality issue, it is urgent to look into our

attitudes towards sex (Musa 2003). If the educationists are serious to fight the epidemic there is need to tackle the silence on sex education firmly and resolutely. The current situation ignores the skills that enable one to talk about sexuality thereby opting to the distribution of condoms to children and adults instead of proper education in matters of sexuality. Baxen (2009:2) argues that;

HIV/AIDS is a new disease that was not there when our old customs were created. The arrival of HIV means we have to make some changes to our culture because if we do not make these changes very large numbers of our young people may die and we may do so as well. Changing the rules about discussing sex does not mean that our culture will be threatened. There is much more to our culture than codes and practices relating to sex. In fact cultures change all the time. That is how it survives....We need to adapt our customary attitudes toward sex and talking about sex, because the lives of our spouses and partners, our children and those in our care depend on us.

Some of the cultural beliefs about sexuality may make it difficult for educators to discuss sex with the pupils. This has led to threatening situations when after all the information is there to save the children from the pandemic. Sex education might be one of the tools to prevent new infections of HIV and AIDS. The methodological approach may mean bridging the gap between knowledge, attitudes and practices for the prevention of HIV and AIDS. There has been a lot of knowledge about the virus that leads to HIV and AIDS status and very little if any is known about how the education system would contribute to the life skills to face our human sexuality. Louw (1991:101) argues that the medical model that favours information on safe sexual practices especially condom use had achieved some results but medical information is not enough in the long run. From the argument above there is ethical model to be followed as a long term strategy that might have the desired effects of reducing infections among the youth.

The education system has some common ground to face the prevention of new infections of HIV/AIDS through sex education as a stand-alone field. Sex education might be neutral in the approach to avoid a particular ethical framework to be applied. Schools are seen as having a key role to play in informing children about the disease (Baxen 2009)

In East Africa, Uganda's first AIDS control programme was set up in 1987 to educate the public about how to avoid becoming infected with HIV. The programme promoted the ABC approach (abstain, be faithful, use condoms), ensuring the safety of the blood supply and HIV surveillance. Strong political leadership and commitment to tackling the rampaging AIDS epidemic was a key feature of the early response to AIDS in Uganda. Prevention work at grass-roots level also began in this era, with a multitude of tiny organisations educating their peers about HIV (Singh et al, 2002).

The second phase of the Ugandan HIV epidemic ran from 1992 to 2000. During that period the HIV prevalence fell drastically, from a peak in 1991 of around 15% among all adults, and over 30% among pregnant women in the cities, to around 5% in 2001. It was thought the government's ABC prevention campaign was partly responsible for the decline in prevalence. Nevertheless, treatment was not widely available in Uganda during that time the high numbers of AIDS-related deaths also contributed to the reduction in the number of people living with HIV. The approach adopted first was to instil fear in the population about the consequences of AIDS (Okware et al., 2001). The Ugandan government's prevention initiatives continued throughout the nineties with high levels of funding from both the government and international donors such as the World Bank.

The third phase of HIV and AIDS in Uganda has seen the stabilisation of prevalence during 2000-2005, and reports of a slight increase in prevalence from 2006. Free antiretroviral drugs have been available in Uganda since 2004. It was thought that the introduction of HIV drugs may have led to complacency about HIV and AIDS was no longer an immediate death sentence.

The number of people living with HIV in Uganda fell drastically during the 1990s. What might be an interesting question would be what caused this decline, whether other countries can adopt similar methods, and whether the lower rates of transmission are sustainable. It is such background that makes it interesting to find lasting measures in the prevention of HIV and AIDS related diseases.

The drop in HIV prevalence in Uganda in the 1990s would not be attributed to a single factor. It is likely to have been a result of both a fall in the number of new infections (incidence), and a rise in the number of AIDS-related deaths.

For instance, it has been suggested that the high number of AIDS-related deaths in the 1990s may have been largely responsible for the decline in the number of people living with AIDS in Uganda during this period. The reason so many people died in this decade is that there was no available treatment to delay the onset of AIDS, and high numbers of people infected with HIV in the 1980s were reaching the end of their survival period (Okware et al 2001). In 2000 the Ugandan health ministry estimated that 800,000 people had died of an AIDS-related illness since the beginning of the epidemic.

However, the high death rate alone could not account for the significant reduction in the number of people living with HIV in Uganda. Many other countries in

sub-Saharan Africa experienced similar patterns of HIV incidence and death but did not experience a similar decline in prevalence. It was likely that the number of new HIV infections in Uganda peaked in the late 1980s, and then fell sharply until the mid-1990s. It was generally thought to have been the result of behaviour changes such as increased abstinence and monogamy, a rise in the average age of first sex, a reduction in the average number of sexual partners and more frequent use of condoms. Okware (2001) observed that Uganda's entire population was mobilised in the fight against HIV and everyone was made aware of the consequences that risky behaviour could have for their country.

There was high encouragement in input from numerous government ministries, NGOs and faith-based organisations. Here relaxed controls on the media and a diversity of prevention messages spread through Uganda's churches, schools and villages.

The frank and honest discussion of the causes of HIV infection seemed to have been a very important factor behind the changes in people's behaviour. Much of the prevention work in Uganda occurred at grass-roots level. Many organisations were often made up of people living with HIV educating their peers. These groups worked to break down the stigma associated with AIDS, and encouraged open discussions of sexual subjects that had previously been taboo.

Uganda faced an important crossroad in the history of its AIDS epidemic. After a dramatic reduction in HIV prevalence following an early comprehensive HIV prevention campaign, there were signs that the number of people living with HIV in the country may be starting to rise again (Njau & Wamahiu; 1995).

In order to avoid the experiences such as Uganda the education system might need to take a serious look at infection trends and behaviour to identify practical skills through sex education as a remedy to prevent further infections of HIV. The knowledge about sex education would help in the prevention of HIV. This was because knowledge is transferable to different situations. It was clear from the Ugandan experience that due to the education campaigns generally fear was instilled in the people and contributed to the decline of HIV infections. Thus, the researcher argue for an education that would not instil fear and that is sex education in secondary schools as the most vulnerable populace is found in secondary schools.

Sexuality and sex education are often controversial because some individuals understand that talking about sexuality in schools may increase sexual activity. However, according to two exhaustive reviews of studies by the World Health Organization (WHO) and the U.S. National Campaign to Prevent Teen Pregnancy, sexuality education program does not lead to an increase in sexual activity among young people. The reviews found that effective HIVAIDS education in schools can result in delaying first intercourse or, if young people are already sexually active, increasing use of contraceptives. Both reviews found that teacher training including the kind of preparation, training, and support a teacher receives is a key component of a successful school-based HIVAIDS programme. The analysis of 250 evaluations of U.S. sexuality education programs identified one of the key elements that led to greater behaviour change to be a teaching approach that actively involves students, is skill-based, and uses real-life situations. An analysis of 11 school-based HIV prevention programmes for African youth also identified teacher education as critical. “If a programme is to be

faithfully implemented, teachers must be properly trained for and committed to it,” the analysis concluded. The HIV/AIDS epidemic in developing countries has resulted in more attention to developing student curricula and training teachers to use the curricula. “All ministries of education are implementing one or more interventions to combat the epidemic in the education system,” reported the Association for the Development of Education in Africa in a 2001 review of regional.

Increasingly, countries are beginning to offer HIV and AIDS education in schools for younger youth from Grades 8 to 12. Some teachers would need to know how to relate to students of different ages and use different materials and strategies. In addition, meeting the needs of students requires an ability to relate to young people, build trust in the classroom, and be a good listener. No subject requires better communication skills with students than teaching about sexuality, sex education, and HIV/AIDS. Teacher education in the context of HIV/AIDS often challenges existing norms for educational institutions and the community. As communities take a greater interest in the topic, some may want to include only limited information, for example, eliminating any discussions of condoms from a curriculum. Sexuality education may not be considered as important as reading or mathematics, and given the usual limitations on resources and time, it may be the first subject to be reduced or eliminated from a school curricula. Sex education material were not usually on examinations because the content was often taught as part of an after-school club or was not part of the national curriculum, leading teachers to spend less time on it compared to those subjects on which their students will be tested. Teachers need preparation, skills, and support in dealing with all of these issues (WHO,2009). There is need for policies and programs to

impart requisite skills so that teachers may feel confident to teach about HIV/AIDS and issues of sexuality. The WHO report emphasised the importance of a supportive environment for teacher education, including the broader community as well as the education ministries. Ideally, teacher education supported by Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) or international organizations would be linked to governments from the national to the local level. Working with the appropriate governmental agencies can help ensure that activities are coordinated across programs and that messages were acceptable and consistent. Government support and commitment could help the sustainability of teacher education so that such training is less dependent on donor funding and guidance.

The ultimate goal of teacher education for HIV/AIDS is to improve students' knowledge, attitudes, and behaviours regarding sex education and HIV. But effective training first has to have an impact on the teachers themselves, helping them examine their own attitudes toward sexuality and behaviours regarding HIV prevention, understand the content they are teaching, learn participatory teaching skills, and gain confidence to discuss sensitive and controversial topics.

Teachers need training to use a variety of materials, including comic books that appeal to youth. Teachers may need to work within the community in order to facilitate their work in the classroom. During the 1980s, for example, people would go to a church service and ask the priest to talk about HIV/AIDS for ten minutes. Once the community is more open, it is easier in the classroom.

Literature shows that sexuality education programmes have emphasised the importance of teacher education in Zambia. Little research has addressed issues such as which type of training works best, how long the training should last, and how to involve the society in training (Akoulouse et al, 2001). The topic of teacher education can include not only the training itself but also what types of people receive the training, the degree of support for teachers by the education system and society, and the issue of teachers covering only certain aspects of a curriculum and as such omitting controversial segments.

As the HIV and AIDS continues to escalate in Zambia, the Ministry of Education through the HIV and AIDS Strategic Plan for the Education Sector, and through the HIV/AIDS Policy for Colleges of Education for Primary Teacher Training Colleges, has recognised that education can be an effective tool in the fight against HIV and AIDS (MoE, 2002). However, the teaching and delivery of HIV and AIDS education seems to be a challenge for many learning institutions in Zambia. There is resistance from communities and from educators themselves (Bennel et al, 2002). Research has shown that the reasons for resistance were because HIV and AIDS was related to the intimate and private aspects of who we are and what we are: our sex and our sexuality (Baxen, 2006). Therefore, the view of sexuality and sex was shaped by the social, cultural and religious context of society. There is very little knowledge prior to and during the first few months of sexual activity among the youths and some not knowing that sexual intercourse can result in pregnancy (Baxen:2007:7) There are very poor facts about the knowledge of sex because of

cultural myth that reinforced beliefs. There are gaps in the Zambian situation about the strength of sex education in the prevention of new infections of HIV and AIDS.

Education has a powerful effect on the degree to which young people engage in risky behaviour. Schools have ample latitude to promote knowledge, understanding and skills to enable young people to make responsible decisions about their sexual behaviour. Kaufman and Stavros (2002) argue that educational effects may persist after school is completed, because there will be interaction among peers. Schools are the most obvious spaces for intervention and prevention programmes, as well as for the delivery of information about HIV/AIDS. The emphasis on intervention programmes on the biomedical in nature require critical considerations of the pandemic as a social disease that forces players within the social context to confront themselves and their sexual identities, behaviours and practices in particular ways (Crewe 2002).

Kelly (2006) suggested that there were social and cultural constraints that influence and shape the teaching of HIV and AIDS. One of the constraints has to do with the societal assumptions towards sex. As indicated, talking about HIV and AIDS involved dealing with issues of sex and sexuality. However, in some cultures, such discussions were considered a taboo because an adult was not expected to talk about sex with young people. Thus, most teacher educators were unwilling to teach the component of HIV and AIDS because they are part of the cultural context in which these assumptions exist.

Related to the above are the family, community and religious silence and attitudes on HIV and AIDS education and its relatedness to sex and sexuality. Research showed that these silences and attitudes gave rise to many fears among educators: fear of causing offence to parents or community and religious leaders; fear that educators might be accused of encouraging promiscuity among learners; fear that their teaching might be interpreted as the sexual solicitation of learners; fear that if learners subsequently engaged in sexual activity, teachers would be held responsible (UNESCO, 2008; ActionAid International, 2003).

Similarly, personal sensitivity of educators contributes to their reluctance to teach HIV and AIDS education. Kelly (2006) is of the view that, as parents and members of the community or religious groups, educators were aware that they themselves did not talk about sex and sexuality in their homes and communities, thus, they felt inhibited to do so to the learners.

Teacher-pupil relationships can also hinder open discussion of sex and sexuality and HIV and AIDS. It has been established that teachers who had sexual relationships with their learners shun the teaching of HIV and AIDS and sexuality. This was because they were conscious of the discrepancy between their personal way of life and what they suggest their student learners live (Kelly, 2006).

Stigma and discrimination associated with HIV and AIDS can be a hindrance to the teaching of HIV and AIDS. Educators who knew or suspected that they were themselves infected with HIV were reluctant to talk about it because it seemed too close to them (Kelly, 2006 and 2008).

Related to the points discussed above was the issue of gender and HIV and AIDS and sex education. Educators may be unwilling to deal with sexuality in a mixed class. Female teacher preferred to talk about issues of sex and sexuality to female students, and male educators to male students (Kelly, 2001). This has its roots in the cultural practices in which male adults instructed boys on matters related to men, and female adults did the same to girls. In the same vein, studies carried out in Kenya and India showed that educators feel uncomfortable teaching students of the opposite sex about HIV and AIDS (UNESCO, 2008).

Backing up the reality of the challenges outlined above, are studies which revealed that parents in some communities would disapprove of the HIV and AIDS education if they heard that the students were being taught about sex, because the discussion on HIV and AIDS implies a discussion on sex (Boler, 2003). Thus parents in most cases would object to the teaching of HIV and AIDS, assuming that it encourages young people to engage in sex.

As already stated above, though these challenges were documented as existing at primary and secondary school levels, they also exist at college or tertiary levels because, lecturers and student teachers lived in similar social, cultural and religious contexts as their primary and secondary counterparts. However, it was assumed that student teachers and their educators were more mature to learn and teach about sexuality and HIV and AIDS and be able to challenge the social, cultural and religious barriers that influence the teaching and learning about HIV and AIDS (Ramos, 2006).

Related to the above challenges was the evidence from research which indicated that educators shy away from teaching sexuality and HIV/AIDS (Bennel et. al, 2002, Kelly, 2006, Ramos, 2006). Most of the teachers/teacher educators avoid discussing the HIV/AIDS topics that touch on sex and sexuality, rather, they do selective teaching, the teaching of only factual issues about what the disease is and not how it is transmitted and the risky sexual behaviours associated with it (Bennel et. al, 2002). This selective teaching was linked to negative attitudes towards condoms and open discussions on topics of sex and sexuality (ActionAid International, 2003).

There was also evidence that most teachers/educators lack the knowledge and skills and training opportunities and teaching and learning materials for the teaching of HIV and AIDS (UNESCO, 2008). This made them less confident to handle the subject of sexuality and HIV/AIDS (ActionAid International, 2003).

Studies in some African countries have shown that if the challenges above have to be overcome, there was need to promote the professionalization of education on HIV and AIDS, sexuality and life-skills education so that educators could engage with this subject area more passionately (Kelly, 2006, 2008; UNESCO, 2008).

Following the same line of thought, was the idea that HIV and AIDS, sexuality and life skills education can be more effective when educators engage themselves in exploring their own values and attitudes and establish an open and positive classroom environment (UNESCO, 2008). This meant that the environment needed to be supportive and accommodating to those learners (even educators themselves) infected and affected by the HIV and AIDS pandemic. This could be

done by establishing workplace policies and programmes covering prevention, care, counselling, treatment, confidentiality, health and safety (YouthNet, 2004). Though workplace is already in place but Nkowe (2012) found out that in one area in Zambia, teachers had just heard about it.

There was need to train educators so as to develop knowledge about HIV and AIDS and on issues such as gender, the social and cultural contexts of the pandemic, and to help them learn participatory and gender sensitive teaching methods and communication skills. The significance of training educators is best expressed by UNESCO (2008) stating that,

educators share the same values, beliefs and taboos as the rest of society, and traditional teaching approaches do not often allow for open discussion of sexual matters, thus, training should enable educators to examine their own attitudes, values and beliefs as well as behaviours(UNESCO, 2008: 13).

This meant that as teacher-educators are being trained to handle the mediation of HIV and AIDS and sex education, the policies and the training programmes needed to focus on helping these teacher-educators to use the knowledge, the attitudes and the skills that they acquire in their training, to revisit their own values, beliefs and attitudes so that they are able to challenge the misconceptions, and taboos in their work places, and thus be able to deal with issues of HIV/AIDS with confidence and conviction. This, in the end would help the mediation process to be effective and motivating to the student-teachers who too were expected to deliver the HIV/AIDS education messages to their learners.

There is also need to mobilise the involvement and support of parents, community and religious leaders as partners in the development of the content and learning/teaching materials for HIV and AIDS, sexuality and life-skills education (UNESCO, 2008, Ramos, 2006). This entails strengthening the link between the education provided by the learning institutions and that given by the community at home. This involvement would help to counter the resistance that comes from the assumptions and misgivings surrounding HIV and AIDS and sexuality education, so that the parties involved understand and accept that teaching about sex, sexuality and HIV and AIDS yields beneficial and not harmful results.

Following through the need to develop the curriculum whose content on HIV and AIDS is culturally appropriate. This means that the way the curriculum is designed and the content in it should reflect the values and positive practices of the people in the context in which this curriculum was to be used. So that what is learnt in the school reflects the culture of the people in the community, thereby enabling the teachers to mediate the messages that are accepted by the community and by implication, enabling students to assimilate these messages and translate them into their own lives because they are easily understood and interpreted as they are close to their daily lives in the communities in which they live.

3.21 Summary

The chapter provided a review of the available literature that was considered to be of direct relevance to the present study in order to place the investigation within the context of similar studies. The presentation was organised under the following subheadings;

history of education, early man and education, the contribution of the western world to education, Roman legacy in education, the African indigenous education, the Islamic tradition in Africa, characteristics of Islamic education, the western tradition in Africa, pre-independence period, the religious view, the nationalist view, post-independence period, progressivism in education today, the liberal view, the radical view, indigenous African education, sex education around the world, a historical note of the education system in Zambia and the absence of sex education, education reforms in Zambia, education and HIV and AIDS in Zambia and teacher education and HIV and AIDS. These were relevant in order to locate this particular study as different generations have had education according to the societal set up. The next chapter discusses the methodology used in the study.

CHAPTER FOUR: METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

The preceding three chapters have devoted to formulation of the statement of the problem and showing the significance of the study, along with providing a theoretical framework to guide the study and comprehensive literature review of the existing theoretical and empirical literature. This chapter takes the research problem further by explaining research design, the methods of data collection, processing and analysis. The first chapters were addressing the question of “what” is in the study. This chapter addresses the question of “how”. It begins by conceptualising the research and then giving the philosophical orientation of the study, which is followed by the rationale for choosing secondary schools and colleges of education. Then it describes the design of the research, methods and instruments used in the collection of data and ends with description of data analysis. The purpose of the study was to explore the absence of sex education in Zambian schools as a missed opportunity for reducing HIV infections. The study adopted the qualitative methodology to explore the issues around sex education in Zambian schools.

4.2 The Philosophical Orientation of the Study

The research was located within the interpretive paradigm which Bryman (2008) describes as an approach that emphasises the researchers’ engagement with the people being studied so as to gain an understanding of their actions. In this interpretive approach as Byman (2008:16) indicates that,

social reality has a meaning for human beings and therefore human action is meaningful, it has meaning for them and they react on the basis of the meaning they attribute to their acts...the job of the social scientist is to

gain access to people's common sense, thinking and hence to interpret their actions and the social world from their point of view.

Typically the interpretive approach employs qualitative research methods. The qualitative research is described as an epistemological position that is connected to interpretivists, where the emphasis is on the understanding of the social world by examining how individuals in that particular world or society interpret their views in that world or society (Bryman, 2008). This, therefore, means that in the gathering of data the methods are designed in such a way that one make sense of their world as well as emphasise the understanding of individual perspectives in their particular environment. This approach provides detailed information on the views, attitudes and experiences of individuals, how they construct and reconstruct their world, and how they interpret the experiences of their world and why they adopt certain attitudes in given circumstances.

By employing the interpretive paradigm, this study aimed to bring out rich meanings of social interactions and sought to show the ways in which individuals actively participate in the construction and reconstruction of knowledge and reality (Bryman, 2008; Berger & Luckmann, 1966). This fitted well in the survey study which strived to show how pupils in secondary schools understood, interpreted, developed attitudes, and how they navigated in the prevention of HIV and AIDS through sex education. This was because the use of an interpretive approach enabled the researcher to engage and understand the details of the context in which these pupils learn and live, as well as how this context influences their understanding and interpretation of the HIV and AIDS messages and eventually how these messages were mediated to the pupils by

teachers. Furthermore, the researcher's close interaction with the participants enriched the data in that he was able to observe and record what was said verbally through interviews and what was said implied non verbally, but 'said' through facial expressions, body movement, gestures and emotions of the participants. This was evident during the interviews especially that the topic of HIV and AIDS and its relatedness to sex and sexuality is considered to be sensitive and involves lots of emotions and feelings during discussion.

The survey design was preferred for this study because it is an efficient method of collecting original data from a wide range of respondents as it also provided an opportunity for the researcher to study and explore the contribution of the secondary schools in Zambia in the prevention of HIV infections. Gay (1981:142) describes survey as an attempt to collect data from members of a population in order to determine the current status of the population with respect to one or more variables. Kerlinger, (1973:421) asserts that,

“survey design is a useful tool for educational fact-finding. An administrator, a board of education, or a staff of teachers can learn a great deal about a school system or a community without contacting every child, every teacher and every citizen”.

Thus, this study employed the survey design since the design uses sampling methods that are sufficient and representative of the whole population. The survey would be appropriate as it was easily applicable to various social problems and is mainly concerned with data collection as well as data interpretation.

The survey approach is generally comprehensive to understand the existing educational conditions and overall effectiveness of the school programme. Mouly (1963:233) points out that the school survey can help clarify educational goals at the local level and reduce the gaps that exists between education theory and education practice.

4.3 A Qualitative Approach: Conceptualising the Research

In this research a qualitative approach was chosen as a methodology strategy for the study. This approach conceptualises the research, and it is important to define what this approach implies. Maree, (2007:78) asserts that “qualitative research is based on a naturalistic approach that seeks to understand phenomena in context or real world setting and in general, the researcher does not attempt to manipulate the phenomena of interest.” This denotes that qualitative research in nature is very natural and that reality is viewed as socially constructed. Andersen and Meyer (2003) also state that qualitative research depends on raw data that emanates from actual stories of respondents and how they interpret their social actions. The social world therefore of the people being studied is very vital in a qualitative research. Creswell (2009: 8) points out that, “the goal of the research is to rely as much as possible, on the participant’s worldviews of the situation being studied.” This qualitative method was therefore preferred in this study because the researcher wanted to have an in-depth understanding of how pupils’ made sense of the HIV and AIDS and sex education as part of the school programme. The way pupils make meaning of sex education in order to prevent HIV infections and how they relate the meaning to the social world is where the main emphasis of this study lies. Bryman, (2004: 266) also described an interpretative feature of qualitative research that stresses

the “understanding of the social world through an examination of the interpretation of that world by its participants.”

Ontological and epistemological considerations further influenced the study. This meant how the researchers’ view of the nature of reality was affecting the choice of the approach and the view of what knowledge was and how this influences the choice of the approach. Ontological assumptions and commitments fed into the ways in which research questions were formulated and research was carried out (Bryman, 2008). What the researcher viewed as the nature of reality affected the frame of the research, whether the research was of objective or constructed realities. These ontological positions are referred to as objectivism and constructionism (Bryman, 2008). The latter determines the research. A constructionist view of reality implies that social entities are not external of social actors, but are social constructions. Instead of viewing the social reality as objective and external, it is viewed here as socially constructed by actors. Social phenomena are not independent of social actors, but actively constructed by individuals (Bryman, 2008).

In researching the social world this implies that the interest is on the constructed reality as something that is agreed upon and can be influenced. The way the pupils and students perceived the sex education in the prevention of the HIV infection determines the meaning and reality they construct from the social world.

“Individuals seek understanding of the world in which they live and make meanings leading the researcher to look for the complexity of views rather than narrowing meaning into a few categories or ideas” (Creswell, 2009: 8).

The ontological position of constructionism implies that reality is constructed, and that the researchers' own views of the social world can also be seen as constructions. This means, "the researcher always presents a specific version of social reality, rather than one that can be regarded as definitive" (Bryman, 2008:19). There is no objective reality waiting to be discovered by the researcher. This implies that everyday life presents itself as a reality interpreted by humans and subjectively meaningful to them as a coherent world (Berger and Luckman.1966). Nieuwenhis, (2007:60) states that "the ultimate aim of interpretivist research is to offer a perspective of a situation and to analyse the situation under study in order to provide insight into the way in which a particular group of people make sense of their situation or the phenomena they encounter." This entails that everyday interactions pupils have with the peers present a reality interpreted by them and subjectively meaningful to them as a coherent world. This brings us further to the epistemological considerations for this study.

Epistemology is "the philosophy of knowledge and involves long standing debates about what knowledge is and how it is obtained" (Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009:49). The choice of a qualitative approach is influenced by interpretivism for what should count as knowledge. This can be seen as contrasting epistemology with positivism. Positivism is a position that basically "advocates the application of the methods of the natural sciences to the study of social reality and beyond" (Bryman, 2008:13). A positivist philosophy emphasises the point that data should be quantitative, it should be measurable, in order to create knowledge. Further, the scientific method should be neutral with regard to the researchers' values, interests and subjectivity. The

methods of the natural sciences are concerned with numbers instead of words in order to create knowledge. Interpretivism is a term that gathers views of authors who have been critical towards the positivist application of the methods from natural science to study the social world. Interpretivism could be viewed as the human science model. The main influence is phenomenology, hermeneutics and pragmatism (Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009). The subject matter of the social sciences is fundamentally different from that of the natural sciences. The emphasis is on the way in which individuals interpret their social world (Bryman, 2008).

What conception of knowledge does a researcher bring in to the research? To illustrate the different epistemological conceptions of research as a process of knowledge collection or a process of knowledge construction, interviews were used as main method for data collection and two contrasting metaphors can be used to justify the employment of interviews in this study: The researcher as a miner or as a traveller/explorer (Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009:48). This would be connected to interviewing, since this was the method used in this study. The interviewer as a miner tried to uncover the knowledge waiting in the subjects' interior. The knowledge was understood as hidden treasures that are discovered by the researcher.

The knowledge is what the researcher finds as objective facts. The travel metaphor is an alternative. The interviewer as a traveller is on a journey to a distant place. On the journey the interviewer is exploring the country and talking to people whom he or she encounters. The conversations may lead to new knowledge, and also change traveller's process of reflection. The two metaphors may represent different epistemological positions on what knowledge is, and how to bring it out. To the miner

the knowledge is given, and is there to be collected by the researcher, that is, the miner follows a positivist approach to knowledge. To the traveller the knowledge is constructed and is there to be explored by the traveller, through an interpretivist approach to knowledge. In simple form, these two metaphors may illustrate “the complex and contested conceptions of interview knowledge” (Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009:49). In this research, the researcher’s intention was to be a traveller in the knowledge creating process, to create knowledge through the conversations in the interviews.

Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) note that different forms of interviews have not been developed from a specific epistemological paradigm, but the different epistemological positions are used to conceptualise the knowledge that is produced. This may clarify different understanding and practices in research, and again how the research is affected by the epistemological assumptions. The philosophical positions are important in relation to qualitative interviewing, because they can help us understand the nature of the knowledge that is produced (Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009). In the following the three positions; phenomenology, hermeneutics and pragmatism will be elaborated in order to clarify why the researcher took a qualitative approach to this study in order to produce knowledge. The positions all have in common is that they are critical towards using the approach when studying humans as when studying nature. They all share a view that there is a fundamental difference between the subject matter of interest in social science and natural science.

Phenomenology, in relation to qualitative research, is a term that “points to an interest in understanding social phenomena from the actors’ own perspectives and

describing the world as experienced by the subjects, with the assumption that the important reality is what people perceive it to be” (Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009: 26). This implies that in the knowledge constructing process of qualitative interviews, the meaning in the descriptions and the life world of the participants is of interest. In this study therefore, the interest is in the understanding of the social phenomenon from the pupils’ own perspectives and describing the world as experienced by them. The difference rests upon the fact that

“social reality has a meaning for human beings and therefore human action is meaningful – that is, it has meaning for them and they act on the basis of the meanings that they attribute to their acts and to the acts of others” (Bryman, 2008:16).

The social scientist needs to gain access to people’s way of watching the world and interpret their way of acting and behaving from their point of view. Openness to the experience of the respondent is important, and one of the main preoccupations for qualitative researchers is to see the world through the eyes of the people being studied (Bryman, 2008). In contrast, a positivist approach does not take the experienced world of the respondents into consideration. A positivist would emphasise the importance of a researcher which is unaffected by the participants in order to create valuable knowledge. In an interpretivist approach on the other hand the researcher should try to think oneself into the situation of the people one is interested in and commit to viewing events and the social world through the eyes of these people in order to acquire social knowledge. Another main preoccupation of qualitative researchers is description and the emphasis on context (Bryman, 2008). In contrast, a positivist would be concerned with generalisation on a large scale, and not understanding in a specific context. In a

qualitative approach thick description, that is, detailed description of the social setting and events are important to understand social behaviour. This means that the values and behaviour of the people being studied must be understood in the context of their own point of view.

The second position that may provide an understanding of the knowledge created in qualitative research is hermeneutics, which is the study of interpretation of text. The interpretation of meaning is central, and the purpose is to obtain a valid and common understanding of this meaning through interpretation. The principles can be extended from the text of the humanities to the interpretation of meaningful action (Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009: 51). Gadamer quoted in (Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009:51) argued that since means of understanding are provided by tradition and historical life, it depends on certain prejudices and context. Knowledge of what others are doing, saying and acting is always depended on the context and background of other meanings.

Meanings of a text always depend on the context (Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009). From hermeneutics, the qualitative researcher can use the way of analysing interviews as a text, and to pay attention to contextual interpretive horizon by looking beyond the here and now in the interview situation (Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009). Again, the importance of context and description is evident from the hermeneutics as well as from phenomenology, mapping the context in terms of which behaviour is understood. The emphasis on the process is also important in qualitative research.

The third position which may be helpful to conceptualise the knowledge produced in qualitative research is pragmatism. As a philosophical position pragmatism has a central view that “language and knowledge do not copy reality but are means of

coping with a changing world” (Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009:51). This position emphasises use value of the ideas and theories produced in research. The emphasis is not on the attempt to mirror nature. Knowledge is rather a matter of social practice and of conversation (Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009). From this position, a researcher with a qualitative approach can learn to focus on the use-value of their research results, and the issues of ethics and values, and also the focus on the practical aspect and the craft of research interviewing (Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009). In a postmodern epistemology the knowledge can be seen as created between people and not as placed in the individual. “Knowledge is neither inside a person nor outside in the world, but exists in the relationship between the persons and the world” (Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009:53). When doing qualitative research the knowledge is created between the researcher and the participant of interest, and in qualitative interviews as used in this study between the interviewer and the interviewee.

But research can provide a better understanding of reality. This research was concerned with how the pupils in secondary schools and students in colleges of education perceive sex education as a tool to prevent HIV infections. By taking on a qualitative approach the researcher is looking for an understanding rather than an explanation of the pupils’ perceptions.

4.4 Research Design

Methodology is fundamental as it provides the philosophical groundwork for methods. The methodological approach applied in this study is to provide insights to the pupils’ perceptions and college students’ perceptions of HIV and AIDS and sex education. The data which was generated through this research was of the qualitative

nature with interpretive and constructed positions. One of the chief reasons for conducting a qualitative study is that the study was exploratory. The researcher sought to listen to participants and build an understanding based on their ideas (Creswell, 2003). This approach best suits the study because the sole purpose of this research was to explore the perceptions of pupils on HIV and AIDS and sex education as a means to prevent further infection of the pandemic. The sample of the research consisted of lecturers and students from the colleges of education, pupils and teachers from secondary schools. This chapter will also look at data collection and data analysis procedures which were employed in the study. The chapter will therefore start by giving the reasons for the choice of this particular methodological approach, it will then proceed to elaborate on the sampling and data analysis procedures employed in the study followed by discussion on the data validation and ethical considerations involved.

The table below shows the number of informants according to their categories and gender.

Table 3: Respondents who participated in the study

RESPONDENTS	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL
Lecturers	10	8	18
Students	51	51	102
Teachers	34	38	7
Pupils	132	132	264
Resource Personnel Interviewed from the schools/colleges	4	6	10
TOTAL	231	235	466

4.4.1 Sample Size

Sampling is a process of drawing a sample from a population. When we sample, we study the characteristics of a subset, called the sample selected from a larger group called the population to understand the characteristics of the larger group (the population). The basic objective of any sampling design is to minimize, within the limitation of cost, the gap between the values obtained from the sample and those prevalent in the population. Sampling is an important aspect in research because it facilitates the representation of the population from a few participants in the study. Robson (1993) defines sampling as the search for typicality. The sample should relate to the real population. In addition, sampling is an important aspect of life in general and enquiry in particular and that judgements are made on the basis of fragmentary evidence. Redestam and Newby (2010) define a sample as a subset of the population that is taken to be a representation of the entire population. They believe that regardless of its size, a sample that is not representing the entire population is inadequate for testing purposes and that the results cannot be generalized. In the same way, Bryman (2208) notes that sampling is vital in research because studying the entire population would be very costly and time consuming. Emphasis is placed on ensuring that the results of the sample ought to be similar to those, which would be obtained if the entire population were involved in the study. In this study, the researcher employed non-probability sampling procedures as the investigation intended to gather in-depth information on issues relating to sex education in secondary education system in Zambia.

4.4.2 Sampling Method

Bloor & Wood (2006) define sampling as the selection of cases from wider populations. A sample is representative of the population from which it is selected if the characteristics of the sample approximate to the characteristics in the population. Samples might only be representative with respect to characteristics that are important to the study question, although at the beginning of a study the researcher might not know which characteristics are relevant (Bloor & Wood, 2006).

The study employed both probability and non probability sampling procedures. Probability sample is a sample that has been selected using random sampling and in which each unit in the population has a known probability of being selected. While non-probability is a sample that has not been selected using a random sampling method. Essentially, this implies that some units in the population are more likely to be selected than others (Bryman, 2008). In order to achieve a systematic approach to data in qualitative studies, two conditions must be fulfilled. First there must be a clear idea of the case to be investigated, and secondly there must be documentation of feasible techniques in the taking of samples of individuals, events or activities (Flick et al, 2004). In this study, probability sampling was used on the boys and girls respondents while non-probability was used on the members of staff who participated in the study.

Purposive sampling was used to select the teachers who were to be interviewed individually. Purposive sampling, involves the selection of cases on the basis of the researcher's own judgement about which will be the most useful. For example, samples might be chosen on the basis of being extreme (maximum variation sampling) or because they are typical of other cases. (Bloor & Wood, 2006). When developing a

purposive sample, the researcher used his special knowledge about key informants that were relevant to the study topic.

Random sampling was used to pick the boys and girls to be included in the collection of data. Kothari (1990) explains that this type of sampling is also known as chance sampling or probability sampling where each item in the population has an equal chance of inclusion in the sample and each one of the possible samples, in case of finite universe, has the same probability of being selected. After selecting the classes, boys and girls to be included in the sample were also randomly selected.

Random sampling was used to avoid bias in the findings and also to ensure that boys and girls had an equal chance of being selected. A pilot study was done to create rapport with the pupils and guidance and counselling coordinators.

The idea behind qualitative research is to purposefully select participants or sites or documents or visual material that will best help the researcher understand the problem and the research question (Cresswell, 2003).

According to Cohen et al. (2007), a sample is a set of respondents or smaller group of the total population selected from a larger population under study for the purpose of the investigation. The three provinces were sampled using the random sampling. This was done by arranging the provinces according to the population by province (CSO2011). The provinces were arranged from the lowest populated to the highest populated province. The provinces range was as follows, North-Western province, Western province, Luapula province, Northern Province, Central province, Southern province, Eastern province, Copperbelt province, and Lusaka province. The provinces were numbered in that order from one to three (1-3). The researcher sampled

the second province from each cluster of provinces. Purposive sampling was used in this study and convenience sample was as well used. Bryman states that purposive sampling aims at selecting “cases/participants in a strategic way, so that those sampled are relevant to the research questions that are being posed” (Bryman, 2008: 415). He also adds “research would want to ensure that there is good deal of variety” Based again on Bryman’s definition which states that a convenience sample “is one that is simply available to the researcher by virtue of its accessibility” (Bryman, 2008, 183). Pupils, students, teachers and lecturers were purposefully sampled for the study because they were relevant to the research questions posed.

4.4.3 Data Collection Procedures

The researcher was helped by one research assistant to visit the targeted colleges and secondary schools. During the visits, questionnaires were distributed, completed then the researcher collected them with the help of the research assistant. Interviews were done with respondents on the agreed days and time.

Purposive sampling is one technique often employed in qualitative investigation. With a purposive non-random sample the number of participants in a study is less important than the criteria used to select them. The characteristics of individuals are used as the basis of the selection of the research participants. Denzin (2000) states that, many qualitative researchers employ purposive sampling and they seek groups, setting and individuals where the processes or phenomenon being studied are most likely to occur. This sampling procedure fitted the needs of this study. The needs of the study

were to investigate the opportunity lost in education to reduce the HIV and AIDS pandemic through sex education.

The study purposively sampled the pupils in secondary schools who were in their time of adolescence and students from the college of which some had gone through their crisis stage of adolescence and had covered different educational courses. The courses covered in education courses would have awakened the constructive stage at which the sex education could be taught to learners. This approach also helped to sample participants who would be able to present honest and critical views of their experiences. According to Bryman (2008) a sample refers to the segment of the population that is selected for the research. Sample sizes were determined by the size of respondent populations in respective provinces and on the basis of whether proportionality needed to be maintained across provinces.

Various measures were taken in order to ensure the respondents' privacy while they were completing the questionnaires. This was to guarantee that respondents answered all questions honestly, so that findings were not jeopardized in any way. Prior to completing the questionnaires, the respondents were briefed on the purpose of the research study and told how they were chosen to be participants. A maximum of two people were present during completion of the questionnaires. They were the researcher and an assistant. Both the researcher and the assistant carried a copy of the questionnaire. This was to ensure the respondents' privacy if they had any queries about the questions they were answering.

The questionnaire used a variety of open ended questions, closed questions, and the Likert response format. The Likert response format requested respondents to indicate

whether they agree to a larger extent, to some extent or not at all to the statement posed in the questionnaire item. This format was selected because of its ease of understanding of the respondents with minimal familiarity with survey research. Neutral choices were eliminated on the basis of the pilot study, as they tended to be over used by respondents. In order to compensate for the removal of the neutral choices on the Likert response format, efforts were made to focus on topics about which the respondent could reasonably be expected to have an opinion.

Therefore, if a respondent was unsure about a particular question she/he was instructed to fold his or her own questionnaire and indicate to the researcher or research assistant by raising his or her hand, that help was needed. Once the questionnaire was folded to conceal the respondents' responses, the researcher or assistant approached and the student identified the number on the questionnaire about which she/he was inquiring. The researcher or assistant then read from her own copy of the questionnaire and assisted the respondent with comprehension of the particular question.

When the respondents completed their questionnaires, they were instructed to fold them again to conceal their responses and indicate to the researcher or assistant that they had finished by raising their hands. The researcher or assistant then approached the student and she/he placed the folded questionnaire in an envelope. After collecting all of the questionnaires in a particular class, the envelope was sealed.

Special attention was also given to the layout of classrooms. Students were asked to ensure a fair amount of distance between themselves and fellow students and no consulting or copying was allowed.

Finally, as mentioned in the introductory stages of the methodology, lecturers, students, teachers and pupils completed questionnaires separately. This allowed respondents the freedom to respond honestly to the questions without feeling intimidated by the presence of the lecturers and teachers.

4.4.4 Target Population

The study's target population from which the sample was drawn comprised all teachers, students from Colleges of Education and pupils from secondary schools. It is from this population, that the sample adequately represented the population.

The table below was the percentages of the sample according to gender and their categories

Table 4: Percentages of sample by gender

RESPONDENTS	MALE	%	FEMALE	%	TOTAL
Lectures interviewed	10	56	8	44	18
Students	51	50	51	50	102
Teachers	34	41.5	38	58.5	72
Pupils	132	50	132	50	264
Resource Personnel from the colleges	4	40	6	60	10
TOTAL	231	49.6	235	50.4	466

There were 231 male respondents which represented (49.6 %) of the total respondents and 235 female respondents that represented (50.4%) of the total sample. This shows that there was almost equal representation of the respondents by gender. The

views from the respondents of the study were represented according to gender from the sampled schools and Colleges of Education.

Table 5: Percentage Distribution of Respondents by Age

AGE RANGE	NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS	PERCENTAGE
Ages between 15-25 years	337	73.32
Above 25 years old	109	26.68

There was 337 (73.32%) of the population ranging from 15 years to 25 years. These generally were the pupils from the secondary schools and some students from the colleges of education sampled for the study. The age range for the respondents was important as the researcher investigated and reported according to the experiences of the respondents' perspectives.

4.4.5 Teachers

Teachers are directly involved in the implementation of activities and the way they implement the programme influences the programme's direction. They are also co-administrators in the school. They were then stratified into two stratum of male and female to have a fair representation of both sexes. Using simple random sampling two (2) teachers were drawn from each stratum from each school.

4.4.6 Colleges of Education students

Considering the programmes covered in Colleges of Education, the students would have had courses that might have helped them to know what they would have missed at

secondary school. It was from this that we could assess if the current programme prepared them to face the realities of HIV and sexuality. In addition, their experiences at secondary school revealed what they missed in order to face the realities of sexuality.

4.4.7 Pupils

Pupils are among the beneficiaries of the proposed research. For this reason, the researcher targeted pupils from the senior classes on the basis that these could identify what they would have missed or are missing owing to lack of sex education since they would be in their puberty stage.

Using the pupils' register of Grade Eleven and Twelve pupils in each school, stratified sampling was employed to group pupils into strata of boys and girls. Stratified sampling was preferred here to ensure that both boys and girls were represented in the sample. Hence, ensure gender balance. Simple random sampling was then used to sample ten pupils from each stratum giving the sample twenty (20) pupils from each school and twelve (12) students from each college in the three provinces.

4.5 Description of Instruments

The researcher used four instruments namely; questionnaires, interview guides essay writing and focus group discussion. The three instruments were used to collect both qualitative and quantitative data to answer questions that were raised by this study. Questionnaires and interview guides were used to collect data that gave answers to each of the research questions.

4.5.1 Questionnaires

Questionnaires had both open-ended, close-ended questions and the attitude rating scale. These were used to collect information from pupils, teachers, students and lecturers. Questionnaires were preferred for this group of respondents because they formed a large group of the sampled population. Above all as Sarantakos (1996: 159) argues, “questionnaires are advantageous because they can collect objective, consistent data and can give respondents time to consult files and are a uniform measure”. Thus they can collect data in a systematic and ordered fashion (White, 2000). Each questionnaire had introductory remarks to introduce the study and to give an assurance to the respondents that the information that was collected would be held with utmost confidentiality.

4.5.2 Questionnaires for Pupils

The questionnaire had three parts. Part one was used to collect information about the background of the pupils. The second section obtained information about the respondent’s understanding of the present measures of the prevention of HIV and AIDS. The last part collected data on the respondent’s views for the statements which were put forward.

4.5.3 Questionnaires for students

The questionnaire had three parts. Part one was used to collect information about the background of the students. The second section obtained information about the respondent’s understanding of the present measures of the prevention of HIV and AIDS.

The last part collected data on the respondent's views about the statements which were put forward.

4.5.4 Questionnaires for Teachers

The questionnaire had three parts. Part one was used to collect information about the background of the pupils. The second section obtained information about the respondent's understanding of the present measures of the prevention of HIV and AIDS. The last part collected data on the respondent's views on the statements which were put forward.

4.5.5 Semi-structured interview guides

The semi-structured interview guides were designed which were used to conduct interviews by the researcher to give answers to the research questions of this study. Although this technique of data collection was time consuming, it was effective in that it helped the researcher to probe the respondents for supplementary valuable information for the study which was sensitive.

4.5.6 Essay Writing

The researcher also incorporated essay writing as a method of data collection. The language of essay writing was borrowed from the concept of composition writing in schools, which the students or pupils were very familiar with. Composition writing is very important as it forms part of the English syllabus of the School Curriculum where sometimes the pupils were given either guided or unguided compositions to write. The researcher was trying, like in the focus group, to use the language that was familiar to them as students.

With this in mind, one situational question was formulated that the respondents wrote their essays on. The question for the essay catered for all research questions as did the focus group discussion and the semi-structured interviews. The main reason for using essay writing in addition to the ones stated above was to allow individual or independent thinking. The researcher also needed to give them something that had no influence either from the researcher or friends as in the focus group discussion or the interviews. As Walker (2001) suggests, when young people are asked to propose a solution whether by writing down their stories or versions of what they feel and know, it enables them to deal with the problem. This makes them particularly enthusiastic and confident about the direction they offer.

4.6.1 Semi-Structured Interviews

“The qualitative research interview attempts to understand the world from the interviewee’s points of view to unfold the meaning of their experiences, to uncover their lived world prior to scientific explanations” (Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009:1). An interview must bring out the experiences of the interviewee through the conversation. The researcher therefore decided to use the interview as a qualitative approach for data collection. Semi structured interview guides were prepared specifically in order that the interviewees are provided with more room to express themselves. The research interview “is based on the conversation of everyday life and that it is a professional conversation where knowledge is constructed in the interaction between the interviewer and interviewee” (Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009:2). It is literally an inter-change of views between two people conversing about a theme of mutual interest. It was for this reason that the interview was carried out so that the researcher could have a conversation with

the interviewee as a means of getting information and constructing knowledge. The structure of an interview varies: unstructured, semi-structured and structured. For this research, the researcher decided to employ the semi-structured interview. “A semi-structured interview has a list of questions or fairly specific topics to be covered, often referred to as an interview guide, but an interviewee has a great deal of leeway in how to reply” (Bryman, 2008:438).

The researcher formulated a semi-structured interview guide but applied the concept of flexibility and could ask questions where there was need. Emphasis must be on how the interviewee frames and understands issues and events (Bryman, 2008). An almost totally unstructured interview is one where the researcher uses what Bryman calls “aide-me”, which is more as a brief prompt for him or her to deal with a certain range of topics giving the interviewee more freedom to discuss. These types are usually similar to conversations (Bryman, 2008). The interviewer seeks to understand the themes of the everyday life from the perspective of the interviewee. Therefore the semi-structured interview used sought to bring out certain themes from the questions that were outlined in the guideline. In this case the researcher registered and interpreted the meaning of what was said as well as how it was said. In this regard, as the researcher focused on the qualitative and not quantitative aspects looked at how words were used and said, and not numbers. When looking at the concept of description discussed by Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) it is vital to bring into understanding that the researcher here encourages the interviewee to describe fully what they experience, feel and how they act. It is vital to note though that the analysis of how the interviewee acts is primarily up to the researcher to analyse using his or her analytical skills well.

The concept of specificity is also important. Descriptions of specific actions and situations are elicited, not general opinions. The interviewer should also be curious, sensitive to what is said –as well as to what is not said-and critical of his or her own presupposition and hypothesis during the interview. This is an important point under the concept of deliberate Naiveté. The researcher played the part of not having much information on aspects of HIV and AIDS in relation to sex education and gave the interviewee that they possessed all the knowledge. This was in order to allow the interviewee to be as free as possible and be able to discuss and talk about anything they knew on the topic under discussion. The interview must also be focused on certain themes. It is the job of the interviewer to lead the subject to certain themes but not to specific opinions about these themes (Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009:31).

Ambiguity is also an important concept in qualitative interviews. The interviewees' responses could be ambiguous in that they could have different interpretations and could also be contradictory. The job of the researcher would be in this case to clarify certain issues that are not very clear. There is also the concept of change under aspects of qualitative research (Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009:31). Sometimes the interviewee may change their descriptions of, and attitudes toward a theme. An interview may be a learning process for the interviewer and the interviewee. An interview may bring out the hidden truths to both the researcher and the subjects. This is a vital point to note when carrying out a qualitative interview such as this one. Sensitivity is another concept to bear in mind when carrying out a qualitative research.

Different interviewers, using the same interview guide, may produce different statements on the same themes, owing to varying levels of sensitivity toward, and

knowledge about, the topic of the interview (Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009). This has to be noted because people are different and therefore different reactions are expected when dealing with issues of sensitivity. When dealing with this particular research, the researcher was very sensitive to different reactions from participants.

The interview sometimes can bring new knowledge to the respondents depending on how well it has been done. He or she may obtain new insights into his or her life situation. Positive experience will truly be positive if the respondent can get new insights. It is important to note that it would be hard to stop the interview, as the interviewee would want to continue the conversation and explore further the insights into his life or her life world brought about by the interview (Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009:32). Because of this, the researcher took control of the interview but was careful not to take too much control as to make the interviewee feel useless and unimportant.

The qualitative interview must take into consideration the use of the nine types of questions formulated by Kvale (cited in Bryman, 2008:445-447). Some of these approaches included: introducing, follow-up, probing, specifying, direct, structuring and indirect questions. These questions are very important because they will help the interviewer to achieve the intended goals and aims of the interview. The questions also help the interviewee to bring out the hidden truths. The use of all these questions in a research interview will help in positive analysis of the data that will be collected and analysed. It is important to note that the kinds of questions asked in qualitative interviews are highly variable (Bryman, 2008). These questions were of great aid during the interviews of this study, since the guiding questions were too broad and in some cases needed to be narrowed.

The other important factor to bring out is that an interviewer cannot effectively ask these questions well without developing interviewing skills. Kvale in (Bryman, 2008:445) proposes a list of a successful interviewer. Firstly, an interviewer must be knowledgeable. Meaning that he must know what he or she is researching about. Secondly he or she must have a good structure for his interview. He or she must give the purpose of the interview, rounds it off, and asks whether interviewee has a question. The interviewer must be clear. This means that the interviews must be simple, easy and short questions and there should not be jargon in his questions. Sensitivity is also another criterion for a good interviewer. He or she must be able to listen to what is said and how it is said fully and attentively. The interviewer must also be open. He or she has to respond to what is important and must be flexible. Steering is another important criterion. The interviewer must know what he or she wants to find out. Sometimes he may ask things that are irrelevant to his point and end up wasting his time as well as the interviewee's time. The other critical criterion is the aspect of being critical. The interviewee must be ready to challenge what is said. This depends widely on the person that is interviewed. For example an adult cannot challenge a young child. A child may feel victimised, so it is important that an interviewee acquires and uses this skill well.

The interviewer must also remember what is said as well as what was said. This is vital for him or her to ask other relating questions especially follow up questions as well as analyse his data later. Lastly the interviewer must also have the skill of interpreting. He or she clarifies and extends meanings of interviews statements but without imposing meaning on them. Bryman (2008:445) includes the aspects of balance and ethical sensitivity to Kvale's list. He says that a researcher should not talk too much

and does not talk too little. Kvale says the researcher must be sensitive to ethical dimension of interviewing; ensuring the interviewee appreciates what the research is about, its purposes, and that his or her answers will be treated confidentially. These are very vital aspects to any form of interview conducted in any research. Because of this fact, the researcher took time to understand them before deciding on using interviews as a way of data collection employed in this study. All the outlined interview skills were applied whenever possible to ensure that high quality data was obtained by the end of each interview and also to make sure that the participants or interviewees were not made uncomfortable in any way during the interview process.

The researcher tried to adopt some of Kvale's skills and Bryman's considerations to improve the research practice and to make the interview as fruitful as possible. The interviews were done in quiet places so as not to distort the sound on the voice recorder especially during transcription. The environment was generally good and every interviewee was comfortable and was able to respond well to every question that was asked. The use of sound recorders as instruments for recording the interviews was successful for the semi- structured interviews. This is important for the detailed analysis required in qualitative research and to ensure that the interviewees' answers are captured in their own terms (Bryman, 2008:443). Notes were also taken alongside the recordings. A recorder was used because it was easy to use and had good quality sound. Besides, recordings can be transferred to a computer for later use and analysis.

There are advantages of using qualitative interviewing. Bryman (2008:447) has outlined a good number. Firstly, he says, "some issues are too erratic to be observed". They need someone to say something. There are some activities that need

reconstruction, especially past events. Telling in this case would be appropriate. Interviewing can be less intrusive on participant's lives so it would be preferred in this case.

4.6.2 Focus Group Discussions

The focus group method is a form of group interview in which there are several participants inclusive of the moderator (Bryman, 2008: 474). A topic is tabled before the focus group for discussion. The idea is to get what meaning the participants would give together as a group. In the same vein, (Bryman, 2008: 476) argues that a major reason for conducting focus group research is that it is possible to study the process, whereby meaning is collectively constructed within the session. In contrast to the interviews, the participants in the focus groups discuss each other's views and deliberate on them. As a result, one is able to examine one's views in comparison to the other, to qualify or to modify and these add to the advantages of the focus groups.

To make the focus group discussions more meaningful to the participants, the researcher employed the debate approach as debates are very common in schools. We looked at the discussion questions as motions which they needed to debate upon. Rules were laid down that each one was free to be either for or against the motion or discuss generally according to the way they understood the topic. Morgan (1998) in Bryman (2008) suggests to this effect, that smaller groups are essential when topics are controversial and complex. Not only did the researcher find the topic controversial and complex but also sensitive, which was good for discussing in smaller focus groups.

There are fewer disadvantages to the use of focus groups as there are advantages. Bryman (2009) lists a few of these. One disadvantage is the aspect of control, because

there could be instances where one participant could be domineering or taking over the whole discussion. On the part of the moderator, the question is, how much control he/she should have even when he/she has a leeway to control the pace of the discussion and making sure the participants do not divert. Secondly, focus group discussions become a disadvantage when it comes to transcribing the recorded data. This is because of the bulkiness of the data, therefore, increasing the challenge of transcribing. It is also difficult to make connections between the voices in the recorder and matching them with sayings. This may be difficult because sometimes the participants tend to speak at the same time.

The course of the discussion is usually planned in advance and most researchers rely on an outline, or moderator's guide, to ensure that all topics of interest are covered.

It is not uncommon for two discussion groups, groups that are identical in demographic and life stage characteristics, to have different thoughts on the same subject. What is said in one group or qualitative interview might never be repeated in a second group. This reflects the exploratory nature of qualitative investigations and the diverse nature of populations.

In a focus group discussion, participants interact with each other rather than with the interviewer, such that the views of the participants can emerge – the participants rather than the researchers' agenda can predominate (Cohen et al, 2007:376). This, in other words implies that in a focus group discussion, what is more dominant and of great importance are the views of the participants and not that of the researcher. This method was therefore another appropriate one for this study because the main aim of the study

was to explore pupils' perceptions in schools and students in colleges about sex education in secondary schools.

The views, feelings, attitudes and understanding of the pupils and students with regards to the HIV/AIDS and sex education were of great importance rather than the researchers' views. Focus group discussions were also seen appropriate because as Nieuwenhuis in (Maree 2007:90) states

“in focus group interviews, participants are able to build on each other's ideas and comments to provide an in-depth view not attainable from individual interviews. Unexpected comments and new perspectives can be explored easily with a focus group and can easily add value to the study.”

This was particularly appropriate for this study because it is exploratory in nature and so the comments and ideas brought together by the participants provided an in-depth view of the information necessary for this study.

In addition, through focus group interviews, “people are able to bring to the fore issues in relation to a topic that they deem relevant and significant” (Bryman, 2004: 348). This implies that, participants are able to analyse and bring out opinions taken for granted leading to an exposition of real life issues that may be of great interest to the researcher. This method is also preferred because it gives the researcher a chance to study “the ways in which individuals collectively make sense of a phenomenon and construct meanings around it” (Bryman, 2004: 348). The method was appropriate because it accorded the researcher a chance to interact with six (6) pupils from each stratum. These were identified as people who were experiencing the HIV and AIDS education in a real classroom situation, and were able to attest to what really was taking

place in their lessons which came out as a cross cutting issue as postulated by MoE (2005).

The explanation was detailed to the participants the reasons for the study. This was in order to make the participants understand the aim and objectives of the study. This was important because the relevance of the data discussed was dependent on how well the participants understood the aim of the study and topic under discussion. A digital voice recorder was used to record the discussion and the researcher sought verbal consent from the participants before using the voice recorder in all the cases of the discussions.

The recorder was placed in a central and strategic position in order that all the information during the discussion was captured clearly for the purpose of transcription and record. The contact teacher prepared venues which were quiet and with less disturbance for a smooth flow of the interviews. In cases of any interruption, the recorder was put on pause and restarted when convenient. The time for the focus group discussions varied between 45 and 60 minutes. This accorded the participants a chance to take part in the discussions.

Focus Group discussions were used to gather the qualitative data required for this study. While the questionnaires were designed to find out if HIV and AIDS messages brought about prevention, the purpose of the Focus Groups Discussions was to examine how young people responded to the messages and to explore from their perspectives what needs to be done, to achieve the desired response to the messages and suggest the other efficient means to the prevention of HIV infections.

Four schools were randomly sampled in each province for participation in the focus group sessions and in keeping with social research practice, which suggests that focus group size should be kept to no more than seven participants (Berg, 1998), the group size of focus groups used for this research study was six (6).

As a result, 12 pupils, and in the case of the colleges, 12 students were sampled from each school or college based on their willingness to participate. Each group of 12 pupils or students was divided into 2 focus groups, which consisted of six males in one group and six females in the other.

The focus group sessions were single sex because of the sensitive nature of the topic being discussed and it was believed that having same sex focus groups would allow the students and pupils to participate more freely. This was especially important because students were chosen from across various academic years in secondary schools and colleges of education. As a result, the researcher believed it was unlikely these pupils or students interacted regularly on a day-to-day basis because of their age difference and would find it easier to interact in the focus group sessions if same sex groups were used.

While these sessions were carried out on the school or college compound, teachers and lecturers were not allowed to be present as a means of encouraging pupils and students to speak and participate without restraint. The respondents were briefed prior to the start of the session. In addition to being informed of the purpose of the session and the research study, pupils and students were informed that it was not a question and answer session, but rather, a discussion. As a result, they were encouraged not to simply wait for questions from the researcher, but to respond uninhibitedly to

comments made by their peers during the sessions. This ensured group dynamics and allowed interactions among and between group members to stimulate discussions in which one group member reacts to comments made by another.

This group dynamism is described as a “synergistic group effect” (Stewart & Shamdasani, 1990; Sussman et al., 1991). The resulting synergy allows one participant to draw from another or to brainstorm collectively with other members of the group. A far larger number of ideas, issues, topics and even solutions to a problem can be generated through group discussion than through individual conversations. This was particularly important in the context of this study where peer interaction and engagement play such a critical role in the formation of youth attitudes and values in relation to sexual behaviours and practices. It is this group synergy that distinguishes focus groups from conventional styles of one-on-one or face to face interviewing approaches.

With this in mind, the role of the researcher was simply to draw out information from the participants regarding topics of importance to a given research investigation. It was also vital that an informal setting was used for the focus group sessions. This informal group discussion atmosphere of the focus group was intended to encourage respondents to speak freely and completely about the behaviours, attitudes and opinions they possess.

While participants were encouraged to interact with and respond to each other’s comments, the researcher also remained mindful of the fact that the focus group sessions were to gather specific information for the research study. The researcher also focused on ensuring that participants were comfortable and at ease. As a result, of being cognizant of the fact that people were generally withdrawn when meeting someone for

the first time, the researcher commenced the sessions with basic, simple questions, saving more in depth, sensitive and personal discussions for later in the session as the participants became more comfortable and relaxed with the discussion and the researcher.

As part of the effort to ensure comfort and ease of discussion, the researcher did not carry a pen, pencil, or paper into the session. This ensured that the flow of conversation was not broken at any point for note taking and the researcher writing while they were speaking and sharing information did not distract participants.

To ensure that all of the information shared during the sessions was retained, audio from the sessions was recorded. Participants were informed prior to each session that it would be recorded. However, the device chosen for the recordings was inconspicuous and presumably not distracting. The recording device was no larger than a clenched.

Another aspect that ensured easy flow of discussion was the positioning of the participants. No desks were used and chairs were placed in a small circle. Where possible, lounge type chairs were used to encourage the students to relax. This setting allowed for ease of interaction and allowed participants to easily respond to each other while making eye contact.

To ensure discussion, closed-ended questions were avoided in favour of open-ended questions that stimulated discussion and debate. Due to the sensitive nature of the discussion, the researcher also avoided posing questions to participants about their specific experiences, such as: “have you ever had sex?” and chose instead to have

participants respond to hypothetical situations or to share their opinion on what was prevailing on HIV and AIDS prevention.

No two sessions were or could be identical, as they were discussion-led rather than being question and answer based. However, they were geared towards gathering specific data and questions posed by the researcher sought to obtain this information. This included, but was not limited to: the perceived sexual habits of the participants, the impact of recent HIV/AIDS prevention campaigns on their behaviour and that of their peers, knowledge of HIV / AIDS and how it is transmitted, sexual habits and attitudes towards sex education.

The information collected from these focus group sessions was used to complement the information generated from the structured questionnaire, particularly on qualitative issues, which do not easily lend themselves to exploration through a questionnaire. In addition, the focus group method allowed for the exploration of the relational context of youth attitude and value formation and expression, which is a critical aspect of sex education. This was also critical to understanding how to structure messages geared toward bringing about behaviour change amongst college students and secondary schools pupils so as to prevent further infections of HIV/AIDS.

4.7 Data Analysis

According to Tesch (1990), analysis is the process of making sense of the narrative data. After collecting data in the field on the pupils' perceptions of sex education in the selected schools in three provinces, there was need to organise the collected data in accordance with emerging themes and patterns. Patton (2002) adds

when he describes the process of data analysis as the organisation of what is collected into patterns and categories while looking for relationships and linkages among descriptive dimensions. Furthermore, collected data was analysed using a coding system. Data was analysed thematically into topics and major subjects that came up in discussions. From time to time new concepts and themes were identified making further adjustments and filtrations in order to accurately capture the socialisation processes as guided by the theory and linked to the research questions.

Data analysis was based on the objectives of the study. All interview responses were transcribed and categorized according to topics. The data transcription process started as soon as the data collection begun in order for the researcher to be familiar with the data being collected and be in a position to notice any gaps which would need further clarifications. Responses from different interviewees were compared. Qualitative data analysis is usually based on interpretative philosophy that is aimed at examining meaningful and symbolic content of qualitative data. In other words, it tries to establish how participants make meaning of a specific phenomenon by analysing their perceptions, attitudes, understanding, knowledge, values, and feelings in an attempt to approximate their construction of the phenomenon and at times reading between the lines (Nieuwenhuis, 2007). The major focus in the data analysis therefore was the perceptions, feelings, attitudes and understanding of the participants of the prevention of HIV infections.

Quantitative data for this research was obtained by the use of a self-administered questionnaire. The questionnaire comprised a mixture of structured and unstructured items geared toward generating basic knowledge, attitudes and practice data linked to

HIV prevention messages. The questionnaires were also designed to determine individual perceptions on how the structuring and delivery of HIV messages could be carried out so as to bring about the required change of behaviour among the target audience, which in this instance was the pupils from secondary schools, students from Colleges of Education and teachers.

Qualitative approach in data collection places emphasis on exploring the richness, depth and complexity of phenomena. Bryan (2008: 366) argues that, it is a research strategy that usually emphasises words rather than quantification in the collection of data. The qualitative approach helped to bring out the meaning of informants' experiences without subjecting them to rigid pre-set categories of questions. In this study, qualitative methodology was deemed appropriate for collecting the desired data on the grounds that it seeks to understand human and social behaviour from the perspective of those living in a particular environment and faced with a particular situation. Qualitative approach gives the researcher a valuable opportunity to access important information regarding the general conditions of his or her informants. The researcher saw it as the most appropriate way to seek information in the field and to interact with the participant to get rich and broad information about the issue of sex education and HIV/AIDS. According to Cresswell (2009), the researcher in a qualitative research seeks to find the participants meaning of the issue studied and not the researchers meaning or what other writers have expressed in the literature on the topic.

In qualitative research, the researcher tended to gather multiple forms of data, including interviews, questionnaire and essay writing. By using different type of data collection instruments the qualitative researchers do not rely on a single source of data.

The data was derived by a series of sex-specific focus group discussions. These discussions were geared toward generating information on the values, attitudes, and perceptions of respondents in relation to HIV and AIDS prevention messages available to them. These focus group sessions were further used for brainstorming around what would improve the effectiveness of prevention messages.

The focus group was an important element of the research because the formation of attitudes and values impacting on sexuality and behaviours in schools generally takes place in the context of peer interaction. The sex-specific nature of the focus groups was required given the sensitive nature of the discussion conducted and to minimize braggadocio and/or reticence as a consequence of the presence of the other sex and the group dynamics involved.

Collected data was analysed using a coding system. Data was analysed thematically into topics and major subjects that came up in discussions. From time to time new concepts and themes were identified making further adjustments and filtrations in order to accurately capture the socialisation processes most linked to the research questions.

Analyses were conducted separately for each of the groups. In the first stage, the researcher transcribed recorded interviews and discussions to find common themes and patterns of responses that repeated themselves among the participants. A theme or a pattern of response was selected only if it was repeated by at least three participants in the group. In the second stage, data were again compared to one another. Differences and similarities between the responses were described and clarified, until the differences and similarities could be organised into categories. The researcher analysed data in a

group setting. To ensure validity and reliability of the findings, data from the boys' group and the girls' group was first analysed separately and then compared with data from the teachers. Therefore, the validity and the reliability of these results are adequate.

4.8 Validity and Reliability

For any form of research to be authenticated, the issues of validity and reliability cannot go unmentioned. In this section an explanation is given of how the issues of validity and reliability were dealt with in the study of the absence of sex education in Zambian schools.

4.8.1 Validity

Judd et al (1991) define validity as the degree to which the chosen methods measure and describe the phenomenon being examined. Validity therefore, has to do with how truthful or credible the research results are. Cohen et al (2000) state that, validity is an important key to effective qualitative research. If a piece of research is invalid, then it is worthless.

To ensure validity for this study, a thorough preparation of the interview guide was done and all questions that were unclear or ambiguous were removed. Experts in the field of research reviewed the questionnaires which were pilot tested to a number of respondents in the provinces where the research was conducted to obtain validation data. The pilot study conducted with two focus groups also added to the validity of the study as it further helped the researcher in the selection of informants. Furthermore, the researcher endeavoured to be truthful by avoiding intentional distorted accounts. This was done through respondent validation wherever possible in order to give participants

the opportunity to confirm that what the researcher captured was what had actually been said. Kvale (1996) argues that the researcher can clarify questions or repeat a respondent's answer by saying; "Do you really mean that.....? or Is it that what you are saying?" The discussions by the respondents also provided many insights and helped the researcher to focus on the subject of study.

4.8.2 Reliability

Reliability is mainly concerned with issues of consistency of a measure or concept (Bryan 2008). In other words, reliability can be explained as the extent to which others can arrive at similar results if they were to investigate the same case using the same methods used by the initial researcher (Gall et al, 2003).

It must be mentioned that qualitative research is difficult to replicate since situations are continually changing and can be affected by a number of factors (Bryan 2008). Having discussed that, however, the reliability of the research results was heightened by the researcher's use of different data collection techniques. As mentioned earlier these were interviews, document analysis and questionnaires. All the data collection techniques that were used proved useful as they each contributed to the gathering of a rich source of information, thereby added to the reliability of the findings.

4.9 Ethical Considerations

As stated by Kvale and Brinkmann (2009:16),

“ethical issues permeate interview research. The knowledge produced by such research depends on the

social relationship of the interviewer and interviewee, which rests on the interviewer's ability to create a stage where the subject is free and safe to talk of events recorded for later public use."

This simply shows how important it is to take into consideration ethical issues in conducting an interview research because the quality of the research and data to be collected depends on how well the ethical issues are taken care of.

A number of ethical issues were taken into consideration during the research for the good of the researcher and the participants. This is from the understanding as put by Kvale and Brinkmann (2009:74) that "the role of the researcher as a person, of the researcher's integrity, is critical to the quality of the scientific knowledge and the soundness of ethical decisions in qualitative inquiry." The participants were therefore told briefly what the research was all about that it was just an academic research meant for the fulfilment of one of the requirements for the Doctoral programme. The main aim of the research was to explore pupils' perceptions about sex education in the prevention HIV infections. Kvale and Brinkmann (2009:70) support this by stating that "informed consent entails informing the research participants about the overall purpose of the investigation and the main features of the design as well as of any possible risks and benefits from participating in the research project." A written consent was in turn made with the participants that all the confidentiality was going to be observed and that no name was going to be mentioned in the research. Confidentiality in research implies that private data identifying the participants will not be disclosed (Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009). This was done in order that the participants were as free as possible during the

interview and to allow them to give as much data as possible freely. Finally the written consent forms were distributed all the respondents.

The right to privacy is a tenet that many of us hold dear, and transgressions of that in the name of research are not regarded as acceptable (Bryman, 2008:123). This brings out the fact that invasion of privacy during any kind of research is something that the researcher cannot afford to peacefully ignore. It is in this line of thinking that this research ensured that not at any point did it invade in the informants' privacy. In trying to address this, the researcher safeguarded that the participants were informed verbally that the interview would be recorded and that the recorded data will be kept in privacy and no one apart from my lecturer or supervisor would be allowed to listen to it.

Respondents were also assured that all papers on which the data would be transcribed would be kept confidential and would only be used for the purpose of the research. During the research, the researcher made sure that the respondent understood that their involvement in the research was strictly voluntary and that they were free to withdraw if they felt need be and that they were free to refuse to answer any question which they felt uncomfortable to do so. Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) state that, "informed consent further involves obtaining the voluntary participation of the people involved, and informing them of the right to withdraw from the study at any time." Since this was quite a small study, not many ethical considerations were taken into details but all the ethical issues, which were felt very important and necessary for the research, were definitely considered to make the participants feel free and comfortable.

4.10 Summary

This chapter has provided a detailed outline of the methodological approaches used in this study. The researcher brought out the importance of the methodological approach in any research and has further stated the specific approach that was opted for under this study. The researcher has stated that the study was conducted under a qualitative methodological approach and has further given an explanation of what is involved in the qualitative approach as a way through which people create their reality. The study used a mixture of qualitative and quantitative approach, though largely qualitative. Data analysis procedures have also been explained as well as trustworthiness and ethical considerations employed for the good of both the researcher and the participants. The chapter that follows brings out the findings of the study.

CHAPTER FIVE: PRESENTATION OF THE FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

Having described the methodology employed in this study, this chapter will present the findings, which have been divided according to the themes that were described in the methodology chapter. The principle research statement that guided the study was to investigate the absence of sex education in Zambian Education System as a missed opportunity for reducing HIV infection among the youths.

The study was further guided by the following objectives; ascertain how secondary education in Zambia promotes the ability to protect oneself against HIV infection, explore the consequences of lack of sex education in secondary schools in Zambia, examine how the lack of sex education would be termed as a missed opportunity in the prevention of HIV infection in Zambia, explore the views of secondary school graduates concerning sex education, proposing a framework for sex education in secondary schools. Qualitative data is summarised using narrative reports while quantitative data is reported using graphs and percentages as collected from the field. The findings will be presented through four themes guided by the objectives with reference to the theories as presented in chapter two of the study namely socialisation theory and social learning theory.

The need for sex education was determined on the basis of information gleaned from a survey of 466 male and female secondary school pupils, teachers, lecturers and students from colleges of education aged between 15 years and above in both urban and rural provinces of the sample that included Central, Copperbelt and Western provinces. The study included male and female students from the Colleges of Education, secondary

school head-teachers, teachers, male and female pupils from secondary schools and resource centres personnel (District Resource Coordinators) in the sampled provinces. The aim of the study was to find out whether lack of sex education in secondary school was a missed opportunity in the prevention of HIV and AIDS infection.

The questionnaire mainly used a Likert response format. The Likert format requested respondents to indicate whether they agreed to a large extent, agreed to some extent or did not agree at all.

In line with the first objective and first research question table 6 was aimed at ascertaining the measures that exist in secondary schools to promote the ability to protect oneself against HIV infection.

Table 6: How schools help pupils protect themselves from HIV and AIDS infections

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Display of posters	10	5.74
Through Drama	25	14.36
During Assemblies	58	33.33
At the beginning of lessons	17	9.77
Through clubs	33	18.96
Peer educators	30	17.24
Students Partnership Worldwide volunteers	4	2.29
Total	174	100

Out of the 174 respondents who filled the questionnaires, 10 respondents representing (5.74%) presented that the posters were being used as a way to help pupils to protect themselves from the HIV/AIDS pandemic, 25 representing (14.36%) cited drama as one of the means for sensitisation about the pandemic, 58 representing (33.33%) of those who filled questionnaire cited school assemblies as one of the ways for communicating about HIV/AIDS pandemic. During an interview, one head teacher reported that;

“I talk to the pupils about HIV and AIDS at every opportunity in the assemblies warning them that the next person you look at could be HIV positive, therefore, they should take care as they interact”.

A member of staff explained that

“whenever there are assemblies the administration makes it a point to speak to the pupils about HIV and AIDS. Assemblies are held fortnightly and pupils are told about the dangers of AIDS and that they should look after themselves”.

During a focus group discussion, the pupils denied such information on every assembly and said

“no body sensitised us about HIV and AIDS not even people from the clinic. The only meeting I remember was organised by those who had come for blood donation”.

In addition, 17 representing (9.77%) reported that it was done at the beginning of the lessons, 33 representing (18.96%) indicated that the sensitisation was through clubs. During the interviews one teacher said that “we encourage pupils to join some clubs for co-curricular activities where HIV and AIDS issues are discussed such as catch them young, safe space, drama, boys networking, anti-corruption and debate among them. They organise themselves to have concerts that advocate for safe behaviours”. 30

representing (17.24%) pointed to the use of peer educators and 4 representing (2.29%) reported that SPW volunteers were the ones sensitising the pupils in schools. During interview one teacher said that “there was no continuity in the programmes for the SPW volunteers and was much dependant on the commitment of the volunteers”.

During the interview with a lecturer, a female lecture from the department of education acknowledged that there was inadequacy in the information given to the pupils “HIV and AIDS related issues have not been systematically integrated in the school curriculum. During face to face with a female lecturer it was reported that

“even colleges had made efforts to incorporate HIV and AIDS prevention but that this had not been organised in any serious manner.

The Head of Section in the Education Department said that

“HIV and AIDS were taught in some pedagogical courses and was only done towards the end of the academic year. For example in Sociology of Education it was under the last topic as Current Issues in Education”.

During focus group discussion students felt the coverage of HIV and AIDS in terms of content was very limited as some of them remarked;

“I remember a lecturer talking about AIDS together with other STDs that was all. I do not remember if the lecturer went into details”.

“I only remember the part of prevention because I was wondering if the use of condoms is one way of preventing the spread of HIV and AIDS if so why the college was not distributing condoms”.

Table 7 below aimed at summing up the views of the respondents about co-curricular activities attendance by the pupils in secondary schools.

Table 7: Attendance of the pupils to co-curricular activities of HIV

RATING	NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS	PERCENTAGES
Very Good	33	19
Good	28	16
Poor	58	33.5
Very Poor	55	31.5
Total	174	100

The study revealed that of the measures which were already in place especially the co-curricular activities were not very much welcomed by the pupils as shown in the figure above. Out of the 174 respondents who filled the questionnaires 33 (19%) responded that the attendance was very good, 28 representing (16%) responded that it was good, 58 (33.5%) responded that it was poor and 55 (31.5%) indicated the attendance was very poor.

During focus group discussion the teachers, pupils and students held the same opinion as the pupils were much interested in clubs that provided them entertainment as opposed to those clubs that were educative. The remarks were extracted from the discussion;

“pupils prefer entertaining clubs, whenever the matron or the patron is very strict we abscond during clubs day, you cannot rely on the organisation of the pupil leadership generally the pupils require the presence of the teacher, the discussions or meetings are never regular, it is a matter of having friends and fun”.

Table 8 aimed at summing up the challenges faced by the respondents in the prevention of HIV/AIDS pandemic.

Table 8: Challenges faced by the pupils

Response	Frequency	Percentage
No continuity of Volunteers	25	14.36
Administrators do not like the link between HIV and sex education	24	13.79
Little attention towards sensitisation by teachers	44	25.28
Pupils have taken the talks as a rhythm (song)	14	8.04
Others want to have sex while they are at school	17	9.77
Those infected feel out of the place	18	10.34
Some pupils do not want to hear about abstinence	32	18.39
Total	174	100

The study revealed a number of challenges of the current approaches of prevention of HIV infection. The notable and outstanding ones were that there was no continuity of the School Partnership Worldwide volunteers as indicated by 25 (14.36%)

who reported that there was no continuity in the present approaches citing the volunteers of which during some years the volunteers never went to the same schools. The study showed that some schools have no opportunity of the volunteers, 24 (13.79%) responded that some administrators did not show interest when discussing issues of HIV and AIDS.

During face to face interview one teacher said that;

Our head teacher does not like to talk about issues to do with HIV and AIDS especially when it comes to the use of condom and generally those in the AIDS awareness club talk about it with very little time during assemblies because everyone would be rushing for the first lesson. The pupils pay very little attention as they rush for lessons for fear of being booked by the prefects.

The respondents indicated that some teachers did not do much with regard to sensitisation of which 44 (25.28%) of the respondents involved indicated that not all.

During face to face interview one female teacher said that;

the issue of sensitisation is very sensitive because some teachers are not even comfortable to talk about HIV and AIDS maybe because of feeling shy as they are not prepared to talk about it.

Furthermore, the study revealed that some pupils took the sensitisation as a rhythm (song). This was represented by 14 (8.04%) of the respondents who filled the questionnaires. 17 (9.77%) reported that a number of pupils saw it an opportunity to learn and experiment their sexuality while at school. One pupil said that, “here at school, we are much freer to do whatever we want. In our homes there are a lot of restrictions” of which 18 (10.34%) indicated that some pupils felt out of the place at times as they were affected because of the loss of the loved ones who had died because of HIV/AIDS.

32 (18.39%) reported that some pupils did not want to hear about abstinence. One teacher said that;

generally pupils do not want to hear about abstinence but the issue of condom seem to be preferred which can be seen through the number of condoms found around the school premises especially when there are games or any other activities that brought a number of schools in one place.

Table 9 displays views from respondents about the desirable ways and reliable approach in helping the pupils to protect themselves against HIV/AIDS infections.

Table 9: Ways of helping pupils avoid HIV infections

Response	Male	Percentage
Sensitisation about the pandemic	40	22.98
To break the taboo about discussing about sex	32	18.39
Abstinence	24	13.79
There should be a planned education	36	20.68
Condom usage	42	24.13
Total	174	100

A total of 40 (22.98%) reported that there was need for sensitisation about HIV infections and 32 (18.39%) indicated the need to break the taboo about sexuality as a way to prevent further infections. Abstinence was yet another approach and desirable

way to avoid further infections of the pandemic that recorded 24 (13.79%) of the respondents that filled the questionnaires. 36 (20.68%) of the total respondents who filled the questionnaires indicated that the planned education would help to reduce further infections and 42 (24.13%) reported the issue of condom use for reducing further infection.

Table 10 aimed at summing up views of the respondents about the assertion that the media was misleading the society on the prevention of HIV infection.

Table 10: Media is misleading the society on the prevention of HIV infection.

To a large extent	To some extent	Not at all	Total
60 (34.48%)	70 (40.23%)	44 (25.29%)	174 (100)

A total of 60 (34.48%) of the respondents generally agreed that the media was misleading the society in the prevention of HIV infections and further 70 (40.23%) reported that to some extent the media was misleading the society in the prevention of HIV infections. On the other hand 44 (25.29%) of the respondents disagreed that the media was misleading the society in the prevention of HIV infections.

During focus group discussions, many participants strongly felt that the media was misleading especially the young in society. Summing up the discussion it was said that;

many young people have not reached the maturity of assessing what the media tries to communicate. Advertisements are taken as the truth in its totality.

Imagine when it comes to promotion of the use of condom the teenagers will it take that it is alright to have sex as long as you use a condom.

The study revealed that the media is misleading the society in the prevention of HIV infection preventions as it is difficult for some target groups to understand the media.

Table 11 was in line with the objectives and research question to collect views of the respondents about education as one of the tools in the prevention of HIV/AIDS.

Table 11: Education is the best tool in the prevention of HIV infection.

To a large extent	To some extent	Not at all	Total
68 (39%)	52 (30%)	54(31%)	174 (100)

Out of a total of 174 respondents who filled the questionnaires, 68 (39%) indicated that to a large extent education could be the best tool in the prevention of HIV infection and 52(30%) reported that to some extent education would be used in the prevention of HIV and AIDS pandemic with 54 (31%) which indicated that education would not help in the prevention of HIV and AIDS pandemic.

During the interviews and focus group discussion the respondents felt that the education system could have done better in the prevention of HIV infection. One teacher during face to face interview said that;

if it is done by the education system and organised systematically, it will be much better because the group that has been affected so much is that which is sexually active during the teens or early adulthood. So the approach would cater for the vulnerable group so that

once they are in the society they would have attitudes responsibly formed.

In line with objective and research question 3, table 12 aimed at summing up views of the respondents about the assertion that sex education in secondary schools as a tool in the prevention of HIV/AIDS infection.

Table 12: Sex education should be part of the secondary school syllabus for prevention of HIV further infection.

To a large extent	To some extent	Not at all	Total
49 (28.16)	72 (41.38%)	53 (30.6%)	174(100%)

Out of the 174 (100%) respondents, 49 (28.16) reported that sex education should be part of the secondary school syllabus, 72 (41.38%) indicated that to some extent there was need for sex education in the syllabus, and 53 (28.6%) noted that it should not be the case at all.

During the interviews and focus group discussions the study revealed that sex education was needed during school days as it was the time that the youths had a lot of in common in terms of development. One teachers said that “if sex education was introduced at tertiary level it might be difficult because of different disciplines as it is the case at University of Zambia where there are a number of schools with different fields of study”. One teacher summed up the discussion saying;

at the University of Zambia, when students start their first year there is orientation about different courses and students’ facilities and in the School of Education there are two compulsory courses EAP 111: The Origins and Development of Education in Zambia, in which there is a

component that includes HIV and AIDS under the topic: Current Issues and Problems. The topic has been scheduled for two (2) weeks, two (2) periods per week of which it is one (1) hour per session. This implies that the students have four (4) hours in the first semester. In the second semester there is another course, EAP 112: The Role of education in Development in which there is a component called Education and HIV and AIDS. The course last for one week and one hour per session. This implies that the student has six (6) hours the whole academic year for learning about the pandemic. Though there are other courses which are taught. But the best time would be during secondary education.

Table 13 below sums up the views from the respondents about the importance of sex education in secondary schools to prevent further infections of HIV/AIDS to the pupils.

Table 13: The importance of sex education to the pupils in secondary schools for prevention of HIV

To a large extent	To some extent	Not at all	Total
64 (36.78%)	59 (33.91%)	51 (29.31%)	174 (100)

64 (36.78%) of the respondents reported that sex education is very important to the pupils in secondary schools to a large extent, 59 (33.91%) of the respondents indicated the importance of sex education in secondary schools as a measure to prevent infections of HIV to some extent and 51 (29.31), reported that sex education in secondary schools was not important.

Table 14 aimed at collecting views from the respondents about the assertion that HIV infections can further be reduced through sex education.

Table 14: The HIV infections can further be reduced through sex education.

To a large extent	To some extent	Not at all	Total
74 (42.53%)	56 (32.18%)	44 (25.29%)	174 (100)

Out of 174 respondents, 74 (42.53%) of the respondents who filled the questionnaires indicated that to a large extent sex education would help to reduce HIV infections, 56 (32.18%) reported that to some extent sex education would help to reduce HIV infections and 44 (25.29%) indicated that not at all, sex education would not reduce HIV infections.

During the focus group discussion with female students about sex education that it would reduce the HIV infections, the student summed up the discussion as follows;

education should be of social relevance and the current pandemic would be reduced through sex education. HIV/AIDS has been left to the health personnel but the educators should be given a chance to train and educate the youths. The curriculum is of social relevance when it answers the needs of the society in a particular time and age. This time we should not be hiding that sex education would lead the young ones to indulge in sexual activities, as long as it is done with a lot of research when it comes to content to be added in the curriculum.

When asked further which approach would be ideal for sex education whether it should be a stand-alone subject in secondary school or an integration of the current curriculum. The participants indicated that it should be integrated and it should have detailed content in one of the subjects which should be core subject or compulsory for all the learners.

On the other hand during focus group discussion some participants further perceived sex as a way of expressing love to someone. Some hinted that they had sex with their girlfriends as a way of expressing love to them. To them, a love relationship that did not result in sexual intercourse between a girl and a boy was not a relationship at all. One male student said that; *“I had sexual intercourse with my girlfriend to show her love, she loved me and I loved her”*.

When further asked, if there were other ways of expressing love to someone, *“one can show love in different ways, but sex was the ultimate means and the climax of a relationship”* said a female student.

Although both female and male participants explained sex as one of the emotional feelings that was very hard to resist, some female participants felt that they were lured into sex by the sweet-talking of some young men. One of the female participants in a focus group discussion said that

“sometimes it was difficult to refuse sexual intercourse because boys had sweet talk that lures girls to fall for them”. During group discussion one female pupil summed up by saying that; Ok, what I can say is that boys have sweet talk, he is going to propose you with love words and you even drop your neck”.

Table 15 aimed at summarizing the views from the respondents about the education of teachers in the wake of HIV and AIDS pandemic, the necessity to be equipped with the skills required to handle sex education.

Table 15: Sex education should be covered in higher learning institutions for teaching profession.

To a large extent	To some extent	Not at all	Total
80 (45.53%)	50 (28.73)	44 (25.29%)	174 (100)

Out of 174 (100%) participants of those who filled the questionnaires 80 (45.53%) responded that sex education should be included in higher learning institutions for the teaching profession, 50 (28.73%) responded that to some extent there was need for higher learning institutions to learn about sex, and 44 (25.29%) reported there was no need at all for sex education in higher learning institutions for teaching profession.

During focus group discussions with students from the colleges they revealed that there was a culture that had evolved within the colleges owing to lack of sex education where male and female were paired up so that students from female hostels had friends from particular male hostels. Another system that had evolved was the second year male students got girlfriends who were in first year. This enhanced the risk of HIV infection across different cohorts. Sex education is very good for students as one male student said “we have trial marriages in our college and there is failure to enforce ‘10 to 10’ rule this is where students are forbidden to visit students of the opposite sex in their hostel between 22:00 hours and 10:00 hours”. The following were extracts from pupils in secondary schools and students from colleges which appeared to reaffirm that the colleges and secondary schools hardly provided adequate HIV and AIDS prevention education; “the administrators assume we know and yet we do not know, they hardly talk about HIV and AIDS in this school, there is no sex education, no guidance and

counselling, our school says no to condoms as it leads us to reckless behaviour as a result engage in unprotected sex”.

Table 16 below aimed at summing up the views of the respondents of how effective the current measures were in the prevention of sexual relationships, HIV and AIDS infections.

Table 16: The current methods are enough for the prevention of HIV/AIDS

To a large extent	To some extent	Not at all	Total
49 (28.16%)	26 (14.94%)	99(56.90%)	174 (100)

49 (28.16%) reported that the current methods were not enough for the prevention of HIV and AIDS, 26 (14.84%) reported that to some extent the current methods were enough and 99 (56.90%) indicated that the current methods were not enough at all. During focus group discussion the participants narrated that the current methods had a number of difficulties to communicate effectively. The participants indicated knowledge of the current preventive measures which were not very effective and at times misleading.

About the knowledge of the current measures the participants were aware of condoms, some participants in focus group discussion expressed strong reservations on the use of condoms in the fight against HIV infection. They indicated that condoms were only effective in pregnancy prevention and that using them to protect oneself from HIV was a risk as one was bound to get infected. Some of the participants even felt that condoms were not effective in prevention of STIs as they had heard of friends who were

using condoms but later got infected with syphilis. Different approaches were cited such as the use of posters and drama. For some teachers took time at least some few minutes at the beginning of the lesson or at the end for lessons such as for Physical Education. Other approaches included issues to do with circumcision, abstinence, one love adverts on Zambia National Broadcasting Corporation (ZNBC). During focus group discussion one male pupil stated that; “these adverts are misleading when one hears that you can protect yourself through circumcision for some it implies that once circumcised then no infection of HIV/AIDS”.

Generally, the pupils interviewed explained that the secondary schools did not provide adequate HIV and AIDS prevention education. This opinion was shared by some teachers. During interview one head teacher did indicate that discussions on HIV and AIDS did sometimes occur during Monday assemblies before classes, but most pupils and students interviewed felt that the amount of information thus imparted was not enough.

Table 17 aimed at summing up views of the respondents about their knowledge of sexuality.

Table 17: Knowledge of sexuality

To a large extent	To some extent	Not at all	Total
38 (26.1)	46 (22.18%)	90 (51.72%)	174 (100)

Out of the 174 respondents 38 (26.1) indicated that to a large extent there is very little known about sexuality, 46 (22.18%) reported that to some extent not much is

known about sexuality and 90 (51.72%) reported that the statement was not true. During focus group discussions one female participant summed up the group discussion in these words;

“I cannot remember how I found myself having sexual intercourse with my boyfriend. I had a bad experience and because of the pain I went through I hated him for sometime but later I forgave him. I love him so much because he supports me when I have problems at home with my parents or my siblings”.

The study revealed that the young ones found themselves having sex without much knowledge about it but at times because of peer pressure. One female student narrated that;

“my friends kept on laughing at me that I was not normal whenever I distanced myself from boys who wanted to have sex with me. But now I regret I would have waited for the right time. For example I have two children from different men and still being supported by my parents for school. This has not been easy for me to attend to academic work and think of my children especially when one is feeling unwell”.

The study also revealed that there was very little known about sexuality due to traditions that at times do not allow sexual discourse especially in homes.

In a focus group discussion with female second year students the following observations were made;

“most of the first year students are very young. When they come to the college they have all the freedom to do whatever they want. Many of them act irresponsibly due to peer pressure and end up indulging in sexual intercourse”. “One may have a roommate who has a boyfriend and so this might put pressure on the first year student to have a boyfriend and generally students get one

in the process. They end up engaging in sex, in most cases, it is a risk because it might be unprotected sex". "I think there is a lot of liberty here; some students start taking alcohol and as you know when they get drunk, they lose control and can have sexual intercourse with anyone".

Discussion with mainly second and third year male students revealed that they too had experienced incredible pressure to engage in sexual activity when they were in their first year at the college. In focus group discussion with second and third year students, the following remarks were made:

"even if you are not interested, you will find someone try to challenge you to come out and prove your manhood and when one is young, you will always easily take up the challenge, the majority of students here are 18-25 years and that is the age where people are most sexually active and here, they are independent of their parents".

Closely related to peer pressure was what the students referred to a growing culture of materialism and consumerism among students populace. The students in the colleges talked about the "five Cs" that included *chips, chickens, cell phones, clothes and cars*. There were examples of female students who engaged in risky inter-generational sex in order to remain financially comfortable and maintain the perceived fashionable modern lifestyle;

In one focus group discussion students argued that;

"girls go out with older men to lead a lavish lifestyle and others have multiple partners. For example they have a male student in college whom they hope will marry them when they complete and they also have another man outside the college who provides them with money to buy what they want, some girls feel that they must go to films and discos every weekend. This requires money so they find all kinds of ways of making this money. Girls go out

on the streets at night and join other prostitutes and make money that way”.

Table 18 below was aimed at summing up views of the respondents about teacher education so as to equip them with necessary skills in order to implement sex education in secondary schools.

Table 18: Teachers should be equipped to handle sex education for prevention of HIV

To a large extent	To some extent	Not at all	Total
81 (46.6%)	62 (35.63)	31 (17.77%)	174 (100)

Out of 174 respondents, 81 (46.6%) reported that teachers needed to be equipped to handle sex education for prevention of HIV/AIDS, 62 (35.63%) indicated the need for teachers to equip them so that subject matters relating to sex education should be handled for HIV/AIDS prevention and 31 (17.77%) reported that it should not be the case for teachers being equipped to handle sex education for prevention of HIV/AIDS. During the interviews and focus group discussion the participants indicated the need for teachers to handle matters relating to sex education. One lecturer summed up the discussion by saying;

“teachers are ill prepared to handle sex related issues and when they talk about it they end up falling in love with the learners. Generally, it is because they are not equipped to do that and at times in the classes where such discussion should be discussed, some teachers have got their children and this causes a lot of discomfort. Even those teachers who have trained already they need refresher courses so that they can face the realities of the society. If not teachers, then, who would handle sexuality as they teach

many youths at ago. It requires a lot of skills to discuss sexuality and the major problem is that all people think about sex and HIV in relation to immorality of an individual. This has been a big obstacle which we can overcome once teachers are trained to handle sex related topics. Some teachers do not have enough knowledge about sex always referring pupils to guidance and counselling department”.

The study revealed the need for teachers to be equipped. This equipment should be done through their training or refresher courses for their professional relevance.

Providing information might be easy but the skills are more complex which should be built on knowledge over time. It is for such approaches that Sahu (2004) noted that sex education that works starts early and it should be before, during and after puberty as they establish the pattern of behaviour. It is clear that the skill should be on going and should be during the secondary school period.

Table 19 below aimed at summarising the views from the respondents about the age of which sex education should start.

Table 19: When sex education should start

Age	Frequency	Percentage
15-20 year	307	65.88
20 and above	159	34.12
Total	466	100

Out of the total population sample 307 (65.88%) reported that the best age was between 15 and 25 years and the 159 (31.12%) indicated that it should be 20 years and older.

During interviews and focus group discussions the respondents indicated that the years during the time of secondary school would be the best. One student summed up the discussing by saying that;

“it is easy to teach a young horse the new tricks than an old one, the young ones are very receptive to ideas than older people”.

The question about the age had a follow up to state two major reasons for their answer and table 20 aimed at summing up the views from the respondents about the age.

Table 20: Reasons for the age

Reasons	Frequency	Percentage
To help young people to accept sex education- accepting it without a sense of shyness in later life.	101	22.65
To help the curriculum developers to arrange its content according to the levels of difficult as it will be progressive content between succeeding ages	91	20.40
Sex education at an early stage will help to reduce the pandemic of HIV/AIDS	72	16.14
Children spend most of their time in schools and this will help them to have positive living and knowledge	66	14.80
At this age the pupils understand the important values of the society	65	14.58
There is some maturity to choose and plan for their life in future	51	11.43
Total	446	100

This should start as early as 13 years and sustained so that it can start from the basic information to the complex built over time. One lecturer said that the

information should start when children are young, just to inform children how people grow and physical changes that take place over time, as children grow into adult the basis would have already been laid on which detailed information could be communicated.

The question below aimed at collecting views from the respondents about the advantages of sex education to the youths.

Advantages of sex education according to the respondents

- People will appreciate their sexuality without necessarily engaging in sexual behaviour that would put them at risk of contracting HIV/AIDS.
- It would raise awareness to alternative sources of income other than commercial sex.
- People would be availed with the scientific information on the nature of HIV/AIDS its spread and prevention and how to care for oneself once infected.
- It equips pupils enough knowledge to face the reality about their sexuality
- Prevent early marriages and pregnancies.
- Sex education will satisfy and divert the minds of the young to some more productive activities with their time and will be very curious as before.

- No shopping stories will be transferred to children as many parents hide where the children come from.
- Right attitudes will be developed and create a healthy defence against HIV/AIDS and STIs infections. Pupils have become teachers prey at times due to ignorance about sexuality.

5.2 Summary

This chapter was a presentation of the findings from lecturers, students from colleges of education, teachers and pupils from the sampled secondary schools. The chapter also presented data by the use of tables for quantitative data and description for qualitative data. The findings were aimed at answering the questions outlined in the introduction to this chapter. In the case of interviews, data analysed was done to issues that emerged in the discussions. The issues were about measures to reduce further infections of HIV through the introduction of sex education in secondary schools. With regard to questionnaires responses, analysis was organised in the themes that relate to approaches of sex education. Therefore, the information gathered from interviews and focus group discussions were integrated. What follows in the next chapter is the discussions of the finding.

CHAPTER SIX: DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the findings of the study. The study investigated the absence of sex education in the Zambian Education System as a missed opportunity for reducing HIV infection among the youths. Data were collected on the relevant variables through self-administered questionnaires, in-depth interviews, semi-structured interviews, focus group discussions and essay writing.

6.2 Objective 1:

Secondary education in Zambia, the promotion in the fight against HIV infections

The study revealed that there were a number of ways the schools were trying to use in order to mitigate the pandemic. The data showed that school assemblies had a bigger number as it was the time the learners met in a bigger group. The study indicated that the approach of the issues of HIV infections prevention sensitised during lessons had a very little percentage pointing to the fact that it might be unpreparedness of some teachers to talk about the pandemic as it touched sensitive areas of sexuality. During focus group discussions pupils echoed that information about HIV prevention was not consistent and very inadequate. The study revealed that the different clubs in the schools did not provide the pupils enough information about the prevention measures as the attendance was generally poor and was dependent upon the commitment of the pupils' leadership.

The study revealed that there were other approaches such as drama that appeared to be entertainment to the pupils and helped very little to reduce further infections of HIV and AIDS. The peer educators also had very little information and thereby

promoting the use of condoms. This finding is similar to what Kelly (2010) noted that the public targeted by certain billboards and media programmes may perceive information campaigns as conveying messages that it is all right to have sex as long as you have it safely. Some of these campaigns push the message of “condomize”, be tested and abstain. However, while education is vital, no education campaign is useful unless it obtains the desired effect of altering the behaviour of the target audience so that the knowledge gained in schools should be applied to the real world.

The study revealed that the respondents had enough knowledge about HIV and AIDS in general and about prevention measures that were put in place. This information was important as it provided the basis for the argument of sex education implementation to prevent further infections. It also helped to learn of how this knowledge was acquired and whether it was sufficient or not. Such basic knowledge could not be ignored prior to any effective implementation of HIV/AIDS prevention measures and strategies. The study revealed that there was enough information about the pandemic. The knowledge about the pandemic did not deter the youths from having relationships which generally led to having sex without proper information for the sake of pleasure as a way of manifesting their maturity and ability to handle their sexuality.

This finding is in line with Simpson (2005) who contends that though some cultures in Zambia do not have ritual initiation to adulthood, morals were learnt literally at the hands of the parents and their peers both before and during school days. This implies that traditionally, adolescents were not given any information on sexual matters as the discussions were considered a taboo. The respondent informed the researcher that the problem that a number of pupils have is that they were very good children whilst at

home but when they went to schools things changed due to exposure. The same opinion was highlighted by students in the colleges who informed the researcher that there was so much sexual relations amongst the students and that even with those the students interacted with outside the college owing to lack of sex education.

For most of the respondents if a relationship was to be sustained then there was need for sexual intercourse. The socialisation theory shades more light on this finding especially secondary socialisation which entails a situation where a person's social relations move beyond the family to the larger community such as the school, peer groups and religious organisations. This implies that a person who is already socialised learns more norms, beliefs and values of the group or institution in which they find themselves.

The posters that were displayed in different places such as the notice boards, at times at the entrance of some institutions such as *"have you thought of HIV/AIDS today, remember to use a condom, AIDS kills"*. The study revealed that this was misleading as it seemed to suggest that once you think of HIV/AIDS, you could use a condom. This encouraged sex among the youths who were at risk of HIV infection and would take that as advice. The knowledge about HIV/AIDS pandemic did not help the youth to face the reality of their sexuality and prevention of HIV infections. The study also revealed that wrong messages such as it would be all right to have sex so long one used a condom were equally misleading. There was no moral obligation on any of the approaches that were revealed from the study.

The study revealed that there was very little attention towards sensitisation as the exercise had no support from the education system. In some cases where some

volunteers visited some schools but there was no continuity in their works of spreading awareness of HIV and AIDS in schools. The volunteers did not cater for all the schools and had no permanent schools to which they were sent. The data also revealed that some teachers only paid attention to the sensitisation if they learnt that the programme had benefits such as incentives as lunch allowance but not like way to have the knowledge and practice to benefit the learners.

During focus group discussion the study revealed that for the pupils abstinence became a song to talk about HIV/AIDS and they do not want to hear about abstinence this revelation is in line with what Cohen (2005) postulates that abstinence is a message for the elite, it has no place in the slums. The orphans live five in a room and there is no food. The man outside says he will provide food and shelter. What is she going to abstain? These orphans are eager for their needs to be met. They need protection and non-judgemental messages. Abstinence messages around here are a waste of time and money.

6.3 Objective 2

The consequences of lack of sex education in secondary schools in Zambia.

The study revealed that the media was misleading the society in the prevention of HIV infection preventions as it is difficult for some target groups to understand the media. Many young people have not reached the maturity of assessing what the media tries to communicate. Advertisements are taken as the truth in totality. For example: when it comes to promotion of the use of condom the teenagers take that it is alright to have sexual intercourse as long as you use a condom. Similar to what Kelly (2010) noted

that the public targeted by certain media programmes may perceive information campaigns as conveying messages that it is alright to have sex as long as you have it safe

The study reported that most of the pupils in secondary schools are adolescents whose emotions had reached the peak. The study also revealed a formalised education of sex education was important in secondary schools to combat the spread of HIV and AIDS. The finding is in line with Harris (1970) that being educated involves value judgement. What is learnt should make sense worthwhile and methods used should be morally acceptable

The study revealed that formal education is considered to have strong and significant influence on how people make informed decisions about themselves especially important areas of sexuality. One respondent said: *“I am not much in touch with the pupils in schools because of the nature of my job, but education is one area that helps for behavioural change”*. This response can be explained using the social learning theory that argues that human behaviour is not simply determined by motivational forces in form of needs, drives and impulses that are within the individual. It means these inner forces can be induced, eliminated and reinstated by varying influences. Thus, the determinants of behaviour reside not within the individual or organism but in the environmental forces. The idea above sums up the two theories that guided the research that the behaviour of the youths entirely depends on the environment and the type of education that exists in a particular of which the research revealed that the absence of education in the Zambian secondary schools is a missed opportunity in the prevention of HIV infections. The four components as postulated by Bandura clearly guided the study

Awareness

The first component is to raise awareness and the knowledge of health risk. This stage is to convince people that they can change their behaviour. In the case of HIV and AIDS, this component is where you educate people about the virus and shows them that they can change their behaviour through an organised programme. The school is one institution that can change the individual view more than the family. In this case, we have through the school the means of training the child in a collective life different from that of a home. The school stimulates habits that, once developed, will survive beyond school years and demand the satisfaction that is their due (Bandura, 1977).

Self-Control

This component is used to develop the self-control and risk-reduction skills needed to prevent the behaviour towards ones sexuality. Within this component, you show people what makes their behaviour risky and how they can change it. This requires to be done during school days as the mind of the individuals remains a virgin territory where we can sow seeds and once they take root, they will grow naturally.

Self-Efficacy

This component is used to increase an individual's self-efficacy in implementing the necessary or safe behaviours or habits. This may include specific efforts to show people how to use the education system to prevent HIV/AIDS infections.

Social Support

A component to build social support for the individual as s/he engages in new behaviours. This could be in the form of support groups or appropriate peer groups

(Bandura, 1973). One way of doing this is by making one's society an integral part of him/her, so that one can no more separate oneself from it. The study revealed that lack of sex education was one of the problems that had affected negatively on the society as the young found themselves at risk due to lack of change of attitude though they had adequate information about HIV/AIDS. The study revealed that there was no link between the knowledge and the change of attitudes.

The study revealed that sex education is very important in secondary schools to combat the spread of HIV/AIDS in the society because most of the pupils at secondary school are adolescents whose emotions are at their peak and so most of them are subjected to peer pressure which leads them to indulge in unacceptable behaviour such as unprotected sex and drug abuse. The importance of sex education is that the pupils will be taught the dangers of having unprotected sex which can lead to dropping out of school. The other is that sex education in schools will help the pupils focus on their studies and brighten their future and reduce the peer pressure on engaging in sexual activities at school and in the community".

6.4 Objective 3

Sex education a missed opportunity in the prevention of HIV infections in Zambia.

From the data collected the use of condoms represented the highest of all the approaches pointing to the fact that sexuality is difficult to handle and those who might not control the urge would resort to the use of condom. From the other responses in the same vein, it showed the need for some planned education to attend to the current social reality and be futuristic in the case of human sexuality. Putting it differently

(sensitisation, breaking the taboo, abstinence, planned education and condom use) there is need to have some form of planned activities to prevent further infections of HIV infections. The approach should be the formation of skills and attitudes that are health behaviours. Sustained behaviour change requires the skills to engage in behaviour change and the ability to use these skills consistently. The patterns of findings are consistent with Kelly (2005) that education is the only vaccine against HIV as at now.

The study revealed that sex education among secondary school boys and girls was needed as a step in the education system in Zambia to face the reality of HIV and AIDS pandemic. A large proportion of teenagers enter into close relationships with the opposite sex at young ages and a high proportion of these teenagers have engaged in sexual intercourse. Most of these sexually active teenagers do not have safe sex methods even though a large proportion of them have heard of modern methods through media and peer discussions. The finding is in line that the education would require the approach of interactive theory of socialisation such as those of Charles Horton Cooley and George Herbert Mead among them. In this approach of socialisation, education's main focus should be for liberation (Freire, 1993). The study showed the need for sex education on the basis that the secondary school children receive very little sex education from their parents and teachers therefore, institutionalised curriculum on sex education is needed.

Teachers do not only lack training but also the corresponding materials to be used in teaching about AIDS and no wonder they were ranked fifth by male students and second by female students as sources of information regarding HIV/AIDS. The pattern of the finding is similar with Benell, et al (2002) arguing that the view that teachers are

not necessarily the principal source of information about HIV and AIDS yet they are presumed to be the key “administrators” of the vaccine against the pandemic. During face to face interview the respondents indicated that teachers are ill prepared to handle sex related issues and when they talk about it they end up falling in love with the learners. Generally, it is because they are not equipped to do that and at times in the classes where such discussion should be discussed, some teachers have got their children and this causes a lot of discomfort.

The study revealed that even those teachers who had been trained already needed refresher courses so that they can face the realities of the society. Teachers are best suited as they handle many youths at once to the spread of HIV and AIDS prevention measures. It requires a lot of skills to discuss sexuality and the major problem is that most people think about sex and HIV in relation to immorality of an individual. This has been a big obstacle which we can overcome once teachers are trained to handle sex related topics. Some teachers do not have enough knowledge about sex hence, they always refer pupils to guidance and counselling department avoiding discussing the reality of sex.

During focus group discussions the pattern of answers showed that many felt that sex education might not increase the promiscuous behaviour among the adolescent. Kelly and Bain (2000) argue that there is very little done to help the learners to develop behaviour patterns for responsible management of the sexuality. Due to this lack of understanding of sexuality, there are high risks that the pupils would engage in sexual activities among themselves or with people surrounding the schools. An inverse association between the disease burden and the level of education exists for most

infectious diseases (Vandermoortele, 2000) based on the assumption that with increased information, knowledge and awareness, the behaviour of the educated people changes faster than that of illiterate and poor people. The finding is totally different from the ZDHS (2013-2014) survey which indicated that the HIV prevalence was higher among the educated. This hypothesis implies that in the absence of an immediate cure of HIV and AIDS, sex education is the best available protection against the pandemic because it would provide information and knowledge necessary for change of behaviour. Education has been considered a “social vaccine” against HIV and AIDS because through provision of information about the pandemic, it empowers individuals with appropriate skills to receive and act on the knowledge of protection against infection (Kelly, 2000; Balikana, et al 2005; Rispel, et al 2006 and World Bank 2002)

The influence of culture was cited as inhibiting the teaching of HIV and AIDS. The researcher observed that this would be the same with the teaching of sex education for instance responses like parents and some policy makers feel that withholding information about sex will help the young not to be active in sexuality circles but (WHO: 2009) says these beliefs require scientific approach as good quality sex education does not lead to earlier or increased sexual activity among adolescents.

6.5 Objective 4

Views of secondary school graduates concerning sex education.

On the assertion that sex education is the best tool in the prevention of HIV infections the largest proportion of the respondents 120 (69%) generally agreed with this statement. During the interviews and focus group discussion the respondents felt that the education system could do better in the prevention of HIV infection. The respondents

informed the researcher that if it was done by the education system and organised systematically, it would be much better because the group that has been affected so much is that which is sexually active during the teens or early adulthood. This is in line with what Kelly (2008) noted that education must play a crucial role in preventing HIV transmission because the principal beneficiaries are young people, ranging in age from infancy to young adulthood. It is mostly the young who are in schools developing the values, attitudes, knowledge and skills that will serve them in adult life. The pattern is in line with ZDHS (2013-2014) that the young adults are more likely than their older counterparts to be in the process of establishing patterns of sexual behaviours and hence should be the primary target of many HIV infections prevention strategies. So the approach would cater for the vulnerable group so that once they are in the society they would have attitudes responsibly formed. This is in agreement with what Durkheim (1961) says that the formula is education being the influence exercised by adult generations on those that are not yet ready for social life. Its object is to arouse and to develop in the child a certain number of physical, intellectual and moral states that are demanded of him by the society as a whole, for which he is specifically destined.

On the assertion that sex education should be part of the secondary school syllabus for the prevention of HIV further infection, the largest proportion 121 (69.4%) of the respondents (agreed) with this statement. During focus group discussion some respondents observed that the secondary school level would be the best as the youths had a lot in common in terms of physical development. Kelly (2008) notes that the education sector has the [capacity] to equip learners with the knowledge, skills, and

attitudes and values that [would] reduce the likelihood of acquiring or transmitting HIV infection.

The study reported that there was need to involve other stake holders in the introduction of sex education so that it does not conflict with the cultural and religious beliefs. From the pattern of the understanding the findings can be highlighted by what Taba (1962) describes as a situational analysis as ‘diagnosis of needs’ that involves the process of examining the context for which curriculum is to be developed and application of that analysis after considering several factors to relate to the context. A recommended approach involves four steps and these include; identification of a problem, selecting appropriate factors, data collection and data analysis and making appropriate recommendations.

The issue HIV and AIDS has devastating impact on all sectors such as the economy, community households and education among them. It was obvious that almost all secondary school learners have reached the puberty and they may be sexually active, if not properly informed about their hormonal development they may want to experiment or may ease themselves from such pressure or desire to have sex. In this case there is need to have sex education in schools so that the children are able to handle issues of sex. The impact of proper information about sex would be of great help to the youth who at times involve themselves in sex because of peer pressure.

The above observation revealed that sex education might be one of the tools to prevent further infections of HIV and AIDS. The target should be the youth as they are vulnerable to information if not properly transmitted. Statistics reveal that 28% of annual pregnancies in Zambia are among the youths and Zambia is ranked the fifth on the

African continent in teenage pregnancies (CSO: 2012). HIV/ and AIDS pandemic is clearly a problem that requires concerted efforts by educators so that properly guided and analysis systems can be put in place to prevent further infections. The adult generation should pass the traditions to the young and when there is an identified need to adapt the approach to the changing needs of the society.

During focus group discussions the study further revealed the need for sex education with reservations; there is need for the curriculum to include sex education as the learners will know the prevention of HIV/AIDS infection. This will not only be for HIV but all sexual related diseases. But the society might not want it because of different views patterning to sex in the Zambian societies. Even some religious organisation might be against it. The cultural values need to be considered before including it in the curriculum. Nonetheless, introducing sex education in the curriculum would be right as was revealed in the study. In any case an organised programme which is well tailored for the learners would make much sense as pupils are misled by certain information from the media.

The majority of young people, who are the highest risk, are found in schools. Moreover, the school brings a large number of people such as the pupils, teachers and the larger community. Thus, if HIV and AIDS and sex education is provided at school, it captures the large audience. This finding is in agreement with Vandemoortele et al (2000) that education equips and empowers people especially the young to understand and internalise relevant information and to translate knowledge into behavioural change. The education also helps to change the family and community environment and attitudes whereby it enables open and frank discussions about HIV and sex education especially

in areas that are still surrounded by the walls of silence. World Bank (2002) notes that education equips optimistic and hopeful young people with affection, morale and intellect to make sound and healthy decisions concerning their own lives deal with pressure and keep themselves free of HIV infection.

The respondent saw the need for sex education only that there are fears of cultural inclinations against the introduction of sex education in secondary schools. In any case the aim of education in any particular society is to solve the problem and look into the future related problems. To augment the above there is HIV/AIDS pandemic and the research revealed sex education in secondary schools being one of the most effective measures to prevent further infections of HIV. The young find themselves having sex intercourse without understanding the beauty of sexuality owing to impulse and circumstances such as experimenting or mere fun of it, at times the love of money from those who can provide.

Some respondents reported that in colleges of education a number of cases that were found with students were related to sexual relationships. There were times in colleges of education when male students went in the college at night with a prostitute and failed to let her go back because they had no money. At times female students bringing men from outside the college vicinity then friends come to know about it and the friends reported to the administration. Whatever the case maybe these students put themselves at risk of contracting HIV and AIDS. The fundamental assertion for the theory that guided the study that society produces its members through the process of socialisation. Gould & Howson (2011) argues that part of the socialisation process entails personality development, or the process through which people become who they

are and through which relatively stable characteristics develop, that distinguish individuals from each other. The socialisation theory holds that a major part of socialisation is about learning how to be in the society.

The study also revealed some respondents literary waffling to explain their understanding of sexuality as they indicated that there was no love or any relationship without sexual intercourse. The other problem was the issue of a condom. The advertisements communicated that there was nothing wrong to have sex as long as one used a condom. This is in line with what Rafky (1971) argument that social institutions derive their objectivity from the fact that they have real or behavioural consequences. For example, the institution of the family consists of rules of descent, inheritance, and conduct which exist or real only insofar as they are obeyed. They are perceived by the infant as having a prior, external, objective – and thus coercive – existence in relation to himself; that is, social institutions are perceived as veridical objects. Social institutions are the second constituent of the world into which the child is born. In contrast to material objects, institutions are socially defined in their totality (Rafky, 1971). Parsons (1959) saw the schools as an important agent of socialisation and described a school as focal socialising agent as the school bridged between the home and society at large. It is in the school where members learn to treat others according to universalistic values as opposed to particularistic value.

Sex education requires some assessment from the stakeholders as there are different factors that require understanding before the implementation. If it involves only those people who are academicians parents would be ignored. Fafunwa (1984) argues that the aggregate of all the processes by means of which a person develops abilities,

skills and other forms of behaviours of positive and sometimes of negatives value to the society in which he lives.

The study revealed that the Zambian education system clearly needs to revive and adapt its HIV prevention programme in order to equip individuals to face the real life situation in future. Bennell (2002) argues sexual and reproduction health must be fully integrated across the curriculum and into the education system. This is not optional, an extra or an add on, not something that can be picked up in spare moments of a biology or social studies lesson but crucial, standalone area that requires separate timetabling, the support of appropriate materials, and provision backup, training, teacher support and monitoring and evaluation that other subjects receive. This entails moving away from abstinence-only initiatives to a comprehensive programme that incorporates not only abstinence, fidelity, condom use and the prevention of mother-to-child transmission of HIV. This is what the researcher finds interesting to come up with lasting solutions through sex education. The other element is the type of training that teachers go through in the colleges of education does not prepare them to face the dynamic school-going children.

On the assertion that sex education should be covered in higher learning institutions for teaching profession the study revealed that teacher education in any subject is important. For teaching information and skills related to sex education and HIV and AIDS, teacher education is even more essential and complex. In many countries of Sub-Saharan Africa, the AIDS epidemic has spread to the general population, with up to half of all new HIV infections occurring among youths under the age of 25. Since most youth attend secondary education before age 25 school-based

messages to be embedded in the curriculum would be more logical to reach young people who are generally at risk. Understanding the importance and techniques of teacher education to the implementation of sex education in Zambia is particularly urgent. Karin et al (2004) observed that there are a number of missed opportunities; for example the curriculum discusses hygiene in the context of caring for the sick and elderly and other weak community members but there is no direct reference to HIV and AIDS.

The study revealed that there are so many cases of early pregnancies and drop out in secondary schools. Sexually transmitted diseases are also noticed in the schools. As a consequence sex education would be of help for the learners would be made aware not involve themselves in sexual activities.

The 2001 United Nations General Assembly Special Session on AIDS sought to ensure that by 2005; at least 90 per cent of the world's youth have access to information and education necessary to reduce their vulnerability to AIDS. Teachers are a crucial link in providing valuable information about sex education and HIV/AIDS to youth. But to do so effectively, they need to understand the subject, acquire good teaching techniques, and understand what is developmentally and culturally appropriate. Teacher attitudes and experiences affect their comfort with, and capacity to teach about sex education and HIV/AIDS. The pre-service setting offers an opportunity for future teachers to explore their own beliefs and concerns about these topics, while in-service training allows those already teaching to assess their views and increase their competence and confidence.

Information is also important as the basis on which young people can develop well-informed attitudes and views about sex and sexuality. During focus group discussion the respondents indicated that young people need to have information such as sexual development and reproduction (the physical and emotional changes associated with puberty and sexual reproduction, including fertilisation and conception, as well as sexually transmitted diseases and HIV), relationships, what kinds of relationships are there, love and commitment, marriage and partnership and the law relating to sexual behaviour and relationships as well as the range of religious and cultural views on sex and sexuality and sexual diversity. In secondary schools there are restricted overly scientific discussions without direct reference to sex or sexual relationships whilst cognisance must be taken that pupils are probably wrestling with the personal decision making about sexual activity and may need more detailed information and opportunities for discussion about their bodies, their hormonal levels than selective teaching (Boler,2003; Karin et al, 2004)

Providing basic information provides the foundation on which more complex knowledge is built over time. It is for such that Sahu (2004) noted that sex education that works starts early, before young people reach puberty, and before they have developed established patterns of behaviour. The precise age at which information should be provided depends on the physical, emotional and intellectual development of the young people as well as their level of understanding. What is covered and also how, depends on who is providing the sex education, when they are providing it, and in what context, as well as what the individual young person wants to know about.

It is important for sex education to begin at a young age and also that it is sustained. Giving young people basic information from an early age provides the foundation on which more complex knowledge is built over time. For example, when they are very young, children can be informed about how people grow and change over time, and how babies become children and then adults, and this provides the basis on which they understand more detailed information about puberty provided in the pre-teenage years. They can also when they are young, be provided with information about viruses and germs that attack the body. This provides the basis for talking to them later about infections that can be contracted through sexual contact.

From the study there was a revelation of the theory that guided the study that the first component is to raise awareness and the knowledge of health risk. This stage is to convince youths that they can change their behaviour. In the case of HIV/AIDS, this component is where you educate youths about the virus and show them that they can change their behaviour through an organised programme. The school is more likely to change the individual views other than the family. In this case, we have, through the school the means of training the child in a collective life different from that of a home. The school stimulates habits that, once developed, will survive beyond school years and demand the satisfaction that is due.

The study revealed that the appropriate stage of someone's education in the Zambian system for introducing sex education is the secondary school years. It can be concluded that the respondents have realised the need for an education that embraces many at the same level. Some respondents indicated the education that matches with the values of the society with the appropriate age. The study revealed that the age when sex

education should be during teen years of an individual as the individuals are at times at risks to face the reality of sexuality during the adolescent years. The education would help the young to correct the social ills. This is done at secondary school education as one of the theories that guided the study augments that secondary socialisation entails a situation where a person's social relations move beyond the family to the larger community such as the school, peer groups and religious organisations (Bandura,1977). This implies that a person who is already socialised learns more norms, beliefs and values of the group or institution in which they find themselves.

During interviews and focus group discussions the study revealed the importance of sex education to the learners in secondary schools as the world appeared to be much of sex. As observed from focus group discussion; concerning sex, there was a feeling among the respondents that, everything in the society was about sex. Sex was said to be expressed in the way people dressed, walked, spoke and just everything about people. Some of the respondents asserted that the world had reached a crucial period in history where everyone whether man or woman, young or old, was actively indulging in sexual activities.

During focus group discussions, summing up the discussion with students they had this to say, *“I am saying that this world has changed, everything is like sex, sex; dressing, walking, speaking, drinking and everything. It is what we have in our thoughts; that is what I can say”*.

To some of the respondents, sex was an irresistible force which permeated through their day to day activities, and that self-control did not exist as far as sex was concerned. The study revealed that so much had changed in the society. During one to

one interview one respondent said; “I can say is that things have changed and times are different because we men are not controlling ourselves, even women are not controlling themselves. So you find that you are thinking about sleeping with a certain woman, she is also thinking about sleeping with you. So, when you start its difficult to stop these things”.

It was clear from the revelations of the study that the respondents saw the need for sex education in secondary schools. This would be what would be learnt as the study showed that there has been no formal learning of ones sexuality that would help individuals utilise the skills learnt during formal education.

The study showed that with sex education in secondary schools it would make pupils understand themselves and have a positive approach toward the sexuality. The study revealed the need for colleges of education and higher learning institutions which directly deal with teacher education to have sex education in the curriculum so that each one is equipped to handle content of sex education. This will have a trickledown effect as the pupils will be helped not only to face the current situation but even their future endeavours.

During teacher education, a student teacher should be given time and opportunity to reflect on the task ahead with the challenging world with many emerging issues such as sex education not only passing examinations. Teaching is a profession that has to do with equipping young people for life and influencing change in the society. For example, not all students have an opportunity to learn about HIV and AIDS but the fact is that the education system is affected by the pandemic. Now if teachers are equipped with the necessary skills and knowledge of sex education it will have long lasting impact on the

society. A teacher will need this knowledge and once it has been grasped it will have lasting effects on the society. Teachers need uniform skills no matter where they are educated from.

The study reported that although both female and male participants explained sex as one of the emotional feelings that was very hard to resist, some female participants felt that they were lured into sex by the sweet-talking of some young men. The study indicated that the curriculum is of social relevance when it answers the of the society in a particular time and age. The findings are similar to what Baxen (2009:2) argues that;

“HIV/AIDS is a new disease that was not there when our old customs were created. The arrival of HIV means we have to make some changes to our culture because if we do not make these changes very large numbers of our young people may die and we may do so as well. Changing the rules about discussing sex does not mean that our culture will be threatened. There is much more to our culture than codes and practices relating to sex. In fact cultures change all the time. That is how it survives....We need to adapt our customary attitudes toward sex and talking about sex, because the lives of our spouses and partners, our children and those in our care depend on us”.

6.6 Summary

This Chapter has discussed some key themes learned on prevention of HIV infections. The chapter started with ascertaining how the secondary education in promoted the ability for to fight against HIV infections, explored the consequences of lack of sex education in secondary school, examined how lack of sex education would be termed as a missed opportunity in the prevention of HIV infections in Zambia and

explored the views of secondary school graduates concerning sex education in secondary school.

The respondents revealed that the measures that existed in the education were very misleading as the pupils had not reached the maturity stage to understand the media and most of them indulge in sexual activities because of lack of understanding of the media.

Most of the respondents interviewed strongly felt that sex education in secondary schools would be one of the major prevention in HIV infections as the majority of those who are infected are within the age of secondary school going children as it was a missed opportunity in the prevention of HIV infections. It was widely held that something had been missed during secondary school education in the Zambian education system in order to prevent HIV infections to the youths.

Some respondents informed the researcher that even some students in the colleges of education had a lot of problems that so much hinged on sexual relationships as they had a missed opportunity during their secondary school education.

It was argued that the current approaches to the prevention of HIV infections were being inadequate and at time misleading to the pupils who had not yet reached the maturity of analysing and assessing the media. The data revealed the reality that lack of sex education was one of the problems that had affected negatively on the society as the young found themselves at risk due to lack of change of attitude though they had adequate information about HIV/AIDS. The data revealed that there was no link between the knowledge and the change of attitudes.

Sex education is very important in high schools to combat the spread of HIV/AIDS in the society because most of the pupils at high school are adolescents whose emotions are at their peak and so most of them are subjected to peer pressure which leads them to indulge in unacceptable behaviour such as unprotected sex and drug abuse. The importance of sex education is that the pupils will be taught the dangers of having unprotected sex which can lead to dropping out of school. The other is that sex education in schools will help the pupils focus on their studies and brighten their future and reduce the peer pressure on engaging in sexual activities at school and in the community.

CHAPTER SEVEN: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Conclusions

The study investigated the absence of sex education in secondary schools as a missed opportunity for reducing HIV infection. The researcher collected responses from pupils, teachers, and students from colleges of education, lecturers, and resource personnel directly involved in HIV/AIDS campaigns from the sampled institutions. The study also sought to explore the feelings of pupils from high schools and college students about sex education if introduced in secondary schools in Zambia and determine whether secondary education in Zambia promotes the ability to protect oneself against HIV infection.

The purpose of the study was to provide empirical research findings on the lack of sex education in secondary schools. It is hoped that policy makers, curriculum developers and other stake holders interested in the prevention of HIV infection would use the findings to prevent further infections of the pandemic. The study also has contributed to the existing body of knowledge of HIV/AIDS prevention in the Zambian society.

A descriptive survey design was used to carry out the study. The study employed both qualitative and quantitative approaches to collect information about the HIV/AIDS preventions in secondary schools. The design involved the use of questionnaires, in depth interviews, focus group discussions and essay writing. The questionnaire mainly used open ended questions, Likert response format which respondents indicated whether they agreed to a large extent, to some extent and not at all with the statements which were posed. The other instrument involved free writing as a response to some statement.

The participants wrote according to what they perceived to be the approach to the prevention of HIV/AIDS infections (See Appendices).

The study employed random sampling of the provinces by arranging them according to the population and were numbered one to three (1-3) and the second province from each cluster. Pupils and students were purposefully sampled for the study because they were relevant to the research questions posed. The study composed of 466 informants drawn from secondary schools and colleges of education in the sampled provinces.

The Likert format response was used to generate the themes as emanated from the research questions and objectives. Descriptive statistics were used in the analysis of quantitative data. Numerical data was further summarised using frequency distributions, percentages in form of tables. Qualitative data was analysed through coding and categorisation of themes that emerged from the data.

The study reported that the respondents were aware of the prevention measures that were already in place. Furthermore, the study revealed that of the measures which were already in place were not effective for instance the study revealed that the use of condoms though the youths were aware about the condoms but were not widely used. The study reported another method to prevent the HIV infection was through abstinence which was not widely practiced as well.

It was reported that there was need for an approach that need to develop psychological bases of sex, normal sexual behaviour and abnormal sexual behaviours and different forms of sexual perversions of which this meant sex education. The study revealed that sex education would lead one to develop an appreciation of the fact that

informed decision leads to a happy life. There is need for an approach to sex education that is age appropriate so that there is building of knowledge from the simple to the complex of which it should be in three levels of sex education that would involve; primary level that would be elementary involving family size education, a mere knowledge about the structure and functions of body organs, secondary level, structure and functions of different parts of glands, fertilisation and conception, structures and functions of reproductive organs, higher secondary level, types of sex desires, sexual perversions and their effects on human life.

The study reported that there was need to equip teachers of secondary school level with the current HIV and AIDS trends so that they could use the knowledge acquired from learning institutions for the pupils in secondary schools. Education is the influence exercised by adult generation on those that are not yet ready for social life. The study reported that the objectives of education were to arouse and to develop in the child a certain number of physical, intellectual and moral states which are demanded of any social being by both the political society as a whole and the social milieu for which one is specifically destined.

A large proportion of the respondents acknowledged that there was need for adult generation to exert values, skills and attitudes to the young generation of which in the case of this study it involves the teacher and that teacher should entice the mind of the child in a holistic manner in order to prepare one for a social life and milieu for which in the case of the current milieu would be the society that is HIV/AIDS infected. The education system should prepare the child to fit in this particular society. The study revealed the need for an education that would attend to the needs of the society at each

particular time. Education process should make the young to be made into social beings under varying particular circumstances. There should be a link between social knowledge and social practice.

There was a revelation from the study that HIV/AIDS led to the highest rates of school drop out because a number of pupils have to take care of their sick relatives and parents. Besides that those who sponsor such pupils stop sponsoring them hence they fail to continue with education. The study reported that sex education in schools would be important as it would be an agent of social change which implies that teaching pupils' sex education would help to sensitise the community they lived in about the dangers of sexual intercourse. The study reported that sex education might even lead to higher levels of abstinence as the young found themselves into relationships and some even regretted in life.

The study reported that through sex education the pupils will also be taught the impact of HIV and AIDS; on the economy as the governments spends huge amounts of monies buying ARVs and workshops on sensitising the society. Such expenditures can be used towards school materials once sex education was introduced in the secondary school curriculum.

Most of the respondents agreed that sex education in secondary schools could be one of the best interventions of HIV and AID and required personnel who were properly trained so that they could handle the subject matter. The study also revealed the vulnerability of pupils as they join secondary school education in their adolescent age and that it was at this age when they are exposed to many sex related activities. Once

they are well informed of the impact of AIDS on their health and education the topic would be more helpful than the media which at times was not understood.

It was also reported that many teenagers in secondary schools today were sexually active and usually do not care about having sex with anyone as a way of strengthening the relationship with the opposite sex. Sex education in secondary schools as an intervention would help curb the spread of HIV/AIDS amongst these teenagers. The study revealed that it was rare that parents and guardians talked about sex with their children thus, children tended to take it for granted and engaged in unprotected sexual activities. The study also reported that if these teenagers were well informed and educated on the issues of their sexuality and HIV/AIDS, they would be more careful. Sex education would help combat the pandemic if properly handled.

Furthermore, the study revealed that sex education in secondary schools could help to curtail the pandemic of HIV/AIDS because the schools were the agents that direct one in taking social roles. Not only that, those who are already infected, sex education will help them to live positively. They would avoid deliberate further infections on others. Sex education would help one to have knowledge about good sexual relations. Most of the respondents agreed that through introduction of sex education in secondary schools may have its disadvantages of exposing the learners; the advantages were greater as these learners were mostly exposed to sex through media. However, for it to be implemented properly, it will need to be incorporated in one of the core subjects. The study revealed that HIV/AIDS, as at now was taken in a simplistic approach as a cross cutting issue as teachers did not address it well especially with the examination system. For proper implementation, teachers' attitudes will need to be

changed so that they do not just prepare pupils for examinations but also for adaptable life in society where HIV/AIDS was on the rise.

7.2 Contributions and Innovations

There is a missed opportunity in the secondary education system in Zambia. And the researcher made two suggestions:

1. For the education system to be a social vaccine there is need to maximize the impact of education on the epidemic through the use of education to prevent HIV infection and this is through sex education.
2. There is need to minimise the impact of the epidemic on the education system by making sure that the systems keeps functioning in harmony.

7.3 The Curriculum and the Real Needs of youths

The concern of the curriculum is with the youths in secondary schools to win the fight against HIV infections. The youths have never known a world without AIDS and this requires the education to be maximized in order to protect oneself against HIV infections as education is for all. The secondary school's role is to prepare them to live responsibly, safely and productively in a world with HIV and AIDS and this is what socialisations theory entails. To bring this about, there is need for innovative adjustments in the curriculum and delivery of educational services. The youths require equity and equality in order for the pandemic to be halted as the media did not embrace certain parts of the country and generally misleading as observed in the study. The real

needs are investing in education through a standardised curriculum in order to face the realities of HIV and AIDS pandemic.

7.4 Recommendations

The following recommendations were made based on the findings of this particular study.

1. Young people should be provided with information about their sexuality as well as about the range of sources of advice and support that is available in the community and nation. The first component of the social learning theory is to raise awareness and the knowledge of health risk. It is at this level the young secondary school pupils are to be convinced that they can change their behaviour. In the case of HIV and AIDS, this component is where you educate people about the virus and show them that they can change their behaviour through an organised programme. The school is one institution that can change the individuals view more than the family. In this case, we have through the school the means of training the child in a collective life different from that of a home. It is generally the school that would stimulates pattern of behaviour.
2. The curriculum developers should adopt a comprehensive curriculum that would provide skills and change of attitudes and perceptions when it comes to sexual relationship. This would be used to increase an individual's self-efficiency in accumulating useful skills which are necessary or safe behaviours or habits. This may include specific efforts to show people how to use the education system to prevent HIV and AIDS infections. It requires an innovation that would involve

the teacher and the learner from the start. The involvement of the learners must be genuine not only to be told what to do but proper participation in planning.

3. There is need for an education that leads to positive behaviour and social change in order for the young generation to protect themselves from the pandemic of HIV and AIDS.
4. The curriculum developers should revise the curriculum for teacher education so that all the teachers are properly educated in handling matters that deal with sex education for a trickledown effect so that teachers may convey clearly to the learners by being ready and well informed.
5. The education system should establish a comprehensive sex education that provides current, accurate, complete, appropriate and scientifically factual information on sex education to all the learners in secondary schools.

7.3 Recommendations for Further Research

1. Further research should be undertaken to establish the role of different cultural inclinations deterring the prevention of HIV infections. Change is a phenomenon that is experienced continuously as the features of our society are changing daily. Some of these changes are so rapid that it becomes difficult to keep abreast with these changes such as HIV and AIDS pandemic.
2. There is need for further research in order to understand the current curriculum and how it can harmonise the change needs of the society as the current curriculum seems to be overburdened of traditional education without attending to the current social needs.

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APENDICES

APPENDIX 1: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR COLLEGE STUDENTS

The purpose of this study is to gather information about the role the education sector can play in the prevention of further HIV infections in Zambia. The information you will provide is only for academic purposes, and will not in any way prejudice the image of your organisation. Please do not indicate your name and feel free to express yourself. Tick or write in the appropriate space provided for your answer.

SEX: Male..... Female.....

Grade 12.....

- 1 Highest professional qualification
 - a) Secondary School Diploma
 - b) Advanced Diploma
 - c) Bachelors Degree
 - d) Other specify.....

- 2 How does your college help you face the future in the light of HIV infection in the country
 - a)
 - b)
 - c)

- 3 Indicate two the major challenges in the prevention of HIV?
 - a)
.....
 - b)
.....

- 4 Indicate two major campaign strategies against HIV/AIDS you would propose in Colleges of Education.

a)
.....

b)
.....

5 What do you suggest should be in the secondary school curriculum to help you in the prevention of HIV and AIDS?

a)
.....

b)
.....

6 a) At what age should sex education be introduced in schools?

.....

Reasons for your answer.

a).....
.....

b).....
.....
.....
.....

7 Write four advantages of sex education in the prevention of HIV and AIDS campaign?

a)
.....

- b)
-
- c)
- d)
-

✓ 8. Indicate with a tick in the appropriate box the extent to which you agree with the following statements for the prevention of HIV/AIDS.

		To a large extent	To some extent	Not at all
1	Media is misleading the society in the prevention of the pandemic			
2	Education is the best tool in the prevention of the pandemic			
3	Sex education should be part of the secondary school syllabus			
4	Sex education is very important to the students			
5	Sex education will be misleading to pupils			
6	The pandemic further infections can be reduced through sex education			
7	Sex education should be covered in institution of Teacher Education			
8	There is very little known about sexuality			
9	Teachers should be equipped to handle sex education for prevention of HIV/AIDS			

APPENDIX 2: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PUPILS

The purpose of this study is to gather information about the role the education sector can play in the prevention of further infections of HIV/AIDS in Zambia. The information you will provide is only for academic purposes, and will not in any way prejudice the image of your organisation. Please do not indicate your name and feel free to express yourself. Tick or write in the appropriate space provided for your answer.

SEX: Male..... Female.....

Highest academic qualification obtained: Grade 9..... Grade 12.....

1. How does your school help you in the prevention of HIV infections?

a)

b)

c)

2. How is the response from the pupils?

.....

3. Are there any challenges in the prevention of HIV and AIDS in this school?.....

Reasons for your answer.

a.
.....

b.
.....

4. Indicate two major campaign strategies against HIV and AIDS you would propose for your school.

c)
.....

d)
.....

5. What do you suggest should be in the schools education syllabus to help in the prevention of HIV and AIDS?

c)
.....

d)
.....

6. a) At what age should sex education be introduced in schools for the campaign of HIV prevention?

.....

Reasons for your answer.

b).....
.....

c).....
.....

7. Indicate four major advantages of sex education in the prevention of HIV/AIDS campaign?

a)
.....

b)
.....

c)

d)

.....

- ✓ 8. Indicate with a tick in the appropriate box the extent to which you agree with the following statements for the prevention of HIV/AIDS.

		To a large extent	To some extent	Not at all
1	Media is misleading the society in the prevention of the pandemic			
2	Education is the best tool in the prevention of the pandemic			
3	Sex education should be part of the secondary school syllabus			
4	Sex education is very important to the students			
5	Sex education should be like any other subject e.g Biology			
6	Sex education will be more misleading to pupils			
7	Pupils should suggest the ways of prevention of HIV/AIDS infections			

APPENDIX 3: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS

The purpose of this study is to gather information about the role the education sector can play in the prevention of further infections of HIV in Zambia. The information you will provide is only for academic purposes, and will not in any way prejudice the image of your organisation. Please do not indicate your name and feel free to express yourself. Tick or write in the appropriate space provided for your answer.

SEX: Male..... Female.....

Highest academic qualification obtained:

- 1 Highest professional qualification
 - a. Secondary School Diploma
 - b. Advanced Diploma
 - c. Bachelors Degree
 - d. Masters Degree
 - a. Others- specify_____

2 How does your school help pupils protect themselves from HIV infections?

- a.
- b.
- c.

3. How is the response from the pupils?

.....

4. Have you experienced any challenges? List two major ones

- a)
-

b)
.....

5. From your experience, what do you think would be most desirable ways of helping pupils avoid HIV infections? Indicate two major ones.

c)
.....

d)
.....

6. Would you have any suggestions of what could be included in the education curriculum to help prevent HIV and AIDS?

a).....
.....

b).....

7.a) Do you think sex education should be introduced in school?.....

At what age?.....

Two major reasons for your answer.

a).....
.....

b).....
.....

9. Can you think of any advantages of sex education in the prevention of HIV infections?

- a)
- b)
- c)
- d)

10. Indicate with a tick in the appropriate box the extent to which you agree with the following statements for the prevention of HIV/AIDS.

		To a large extent	To some extent	Not at all
1	Media is misleading the society in the prevention of the pandemic			
2	Education is the best tool in the prevention of the pandemic			
3	Sex education should be part of the secondary school syllabus			
4	Sex education is very important to the students			
5	Sex education should be like any other subjects like Biology.			
6	Sex education will be misleading to pupils			
7	The HIV infections can further be reduced through sex education			
8	There is very little known about sexuality			
9	The current methods are enough for the prevention of HIV/AIDS			

APPENDIX 4: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR HEAD TEACHERS/ HEADS OF DEPARTMENTS

The purpose of this study is to gather information about the role the education sector can play in the prevention of further infections of HIV in Zambia. The information you will provide is only for academic purposes, and will not in any way prejudice the image of your organisation. Please do not indicate your name and feel free to express yourself. Tick or write in the appropriate space provided for your answer.

SEX: Male..... Female.....

1.Highest professional qualification

- a. Secondary School Diploma
- b. Advanced Diploma
- c. Bachelors Degree
- d. Masters Degree
- e. Others- specify_____

2.How does your school help pupils protect themselves from HIV and AIDS infections?

- i.
- ii.
- iii.

3. How is the response from the pupils?

.....
.....
.....

4.Have you experienced any challenges? List two major ones

.....
.....

.....
.....

5. From your experience, what do you think would be most desirable ways of helping pupils avoid HIV infections? Indicate two majors ones.

i.

ii.

6. What are the two major suggestions to be included in the education curriculum to help the prevention of HIV/AIDS?

a.....

.....

b.....

.....

7. a) Do you think sex education should be introduced in school?.....

At what age?.....

Two major reasons for your answer.

b).....

.....

c).....

.....

.....

10 What are the four advantages of sex education in the prevention of HIV infections?

a)

.....

- b)
-
- c)
- d)

✓ 11. Indicate with a tick in the appropriate box the extent to which you agree with the following statements for the prevention of HIV/AIDS.

		To a large extent	To some extent	Not at all
1	Media is misleading the society in the prevention of the pandemic			
2	Education is the best tool in the prevention of the pandemic			
3	Sex education should be part of the secondary school syllabus			
4	Sex education is very important to the students			
5	Sex education should be like any other subjects like Biology.			
6	Sex education will be misleading to pupils			
7	The HIV infections can further be reduced through sex education			
8	There is very little known about sexuality			
9	The current methods are enough for the prevention of HIV/AIDS			

APPENDIX 5: Interview Guide/ Focus Group Discussions Guide

How does this school help you as students/pupils help you to protect yourselves from HIV infections?

What are some of the challenges you have with the current approaches to the prevention of HIV infections?

Are the approaches you have in the prevention of HIV infections enough?

How?

Have you ever been involved in the prevention measures of HIV infections?

Suppose sex education was introduced in your programme/curriculum do you see that it can help in the prevention of HIV infections

How would it help you to protect yourself? Why are you saying it will not help you?

What are some of the major advantages sex education in high?

APPENDIX 7

Title: Sex Education: A missed Opportunity in the prevention of HIV/AIDS infections in Zambian Schools

Name of Researcher: Martin Banda
Programme: Doctor of Philosophy in Sociology of Education

Dear participant,

If you are happy to participate in this study, please complete and sign this form: You may use X

1. I confirm that I have read the attached information sheet on the above mentioned research and have had the opportunity to consider the information and ask question and had these answered satisfactorily,

2. I understand that my participation in the research is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving reasons,

3. I agree to the use of anonymous quotes from the research,

4. I agree that any data collected may be passed to other researchers,

5. I agree that any data collected may be published in anonymous form in academic books or journals.

6. I agree to take part in this research,

Name of Participant _____

Signature of Participant _____

Date _____

APPENDIX 8

Title: Sex Education: A missed Opportunity in the prevention of HIV/AIDS infections in Zambian Schools

Name of Researcher: Martin Banda

Programme: Doctor of Philosophy in Sociology of Education

Dear participant,

If you are happy to participate in this study, please complete and sign this form:

- 1 I confirm that I have read the attached information sheet on the above mentioned research and have had the opportunity to consider the information and ask question and had these answered satisfactorily,
- 2 I understand that my participation in the research is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving reasons,
- 3 I agree to the use of anonymous quotes from the research,
- 4 I agree that any data collected may be passed to other researchers,
- 5 I agree that any data collected may be published in anonymous form in academic books or journals.
- 6 I agree to take part in this research

Name of Participant _____

Signature of Participant _____

Date _____