

**ASSESSMENT OF SERVICE LEARNING IN THE TEACHING
OF CIVIC EDUCATION IN SELECTED SECONDARY
SCHOOLS IN LUSAKA PROVINCE, ZAMBIA**

by

Daniel Katongo Chola

A dissertation submitted to the University of Zambia in partial
fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the degree of Master
of Education in Civic Education

THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA

LUSAKA

2016

COPY RIGHT DECLARATION

All rights reserved. No part of this dissertation may be reproduced or stored in any form or by any means without prior written permission from the author or the University of Zambia.

© Daniel Katongo Chola, 2016.

AUTHOR'S DECLARATION

I **Daniel Katongo Chola** do hereby solemnly declare that this dissertation represents my own work, except where otherwise acknowledged, and that it has never been previously submitted for a degree at the University of Zambia or any other university.

Signature:

Date:

APPROVAL

This dissertation of **Daniel Katongo Chola** is approved as fulfilling the partial requirements for the award of the degree of Master of Education in Civic Education by the University of Zambia.

Signature..... Date.....

Signature..... Date.....

Signature..... Date.....

ABSTRACT

This study employed a cross sectional survey research design to assess service-learning in the teaching of civic education in selected secondary schools in Lusaka province. The purpose of this study was to assess how teachers and pupils interact in and outside classroom focusing on pedagogical approaches and practices used; teacher competency and pupils' public deliberations for civic learning.

Three public secondary schools were purposively sampled as they pioneered civic education from its inception in 2004. 12 teachers were purposively selected of which 3 were heads of departments (HoDs) and 9 were civic education teachers from the named schools. 28 pupils from each school in Grade 12 classes that were taking civic education were selected to take part in the study. They were selected by systematic random sampling so as to give equal chances of participation to pupils. Focus group discussions and questionnaires were administered to pupils while interviews and questionnaires were administered to teachers. All interviews were transcribed and were coded for themes. Analysis showed that there was weak engagement of active learning methodologies that stimulated classroom and community engagement to help learners create structured reflection and critical analysis of political and social challenges. Outcomes related to service-learning were also weak. It was concluded that teachers rarely used active learning methods. Pupils' deliberation in public discourse was weak making service-learning outcomes minimal in the sampled schools.

The researcher recommended that public schools should reclaim and rebalance collective obligation to help all pupils succeed by making public schools fulfil their purpose as anchors of democracy and propellers of the economy through service-learning. Furthermore, the researcher recommended that an on-going in-service professional development be provided on service-learning for teachers at all levels, from novices to the veterans. There was also need to institutionalise service-learning so that it becomes the basis of teaching methodologies in schools as well as increasing policy and leadership in this field to achieve public goals and solve public problems.

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my children Chapesha, Chimwemwe and Chungu. I know they would be proud, active and committed citizens when they learn and understand that “*service is the rent we pay for living and it is not something to do in your spare time; it is the very purpose of life*” as Marion Wright Edelman had put it. Long live my children!

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank Dr. Innocent M. Mulenga for his support as my supervisor, especially for guiding, correcting and reading countless drafts of this manuscript. Dr. Mulenga has a way of making you feel empowered, smart, good, and he strengthened my desire to learn, know, and do even more. I especially appreciate the contributions of Mr Kwandangala Kaputula who swiftly signed and facilitated for my study leave under difficult conditions. Distinctively, I am grateful to Dr. Gistered Muleya for helping me think through the dimensions of authenticity crucial to relationship building in critical and active Service-Learning pedagogy in the teaching of civic education. I cannot forget to mention family friends who contributed immensely towards this study among them were Dr Chishala Lupambo, Mr Lawrence Nkolonga, Mr and Mrs Mwandu and Fr. Kunda Kaoma.

This study also benefited from the thoughtful, constructive criticism of Dr. Gift Masaiti who happened to set the tone of this study as research methodology lecturer in Civic Education. I am indebted to all members of staff in the Department of Language and Social Sciences Education for unconditional love, help, patience and accommodation rendered to me during the strenuous period of this study. Much love and many thanks to God, my wife, parents, relatives, children (Chapesha, Chimwemwe and Chungu), supportive colleagues and friends too numerous to mention by name. Thank you so much to all for your encouragement, patience, honest and love. We did it!

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
Copy Right Declaration	i
Author's Declaration.....	ii
Approval	iii
Abstract.....	iv
Dedication	v
Acknowledgements.....	vi
Table of Contents.....	vii
List of Tables	xii
List of Figures	xiii
List of Appendices	xiv
Acronyms and Abbreviations	xv
Chapter One: Introduction	1
1.0 Overview.....	1
1.1 Background	1
1.2 Statement of the Problem.....	2
1.3 Aim	3
1.4 Objectives	3
1.5 Research Questions.....	3
1.6 Significance of the Study	4

1.7 Conceptual Framework	5
1.8 Theoretical Framework	6
1.9 Operational Definition of Terms	9
10. Summary	9
 Chapter Two: Literature Review	10
2.0 Overview	10
2.1 Service-Learning as a Civic Methodology	10
2.2 Teacher Competence in Service- Learning Methodology	14
2.3 Service-Learning as the Change that Affect Social Structures	16
2.4 Service-Learning as a Strategy to Counter Disengagement and Build Democracy	19
2.5 Public Deliberations Encourage Good Citizenship	24
2.6 Implementation of Service-Learning in Public Education	27
2.7 Summary of Literature Reviewed and Identified Gap	30
 Chapter Three: Research Methodology	31
3.0 Overview	31
3.1 Research Design	31
3.2 Area of Study	32
3.3 Target Population	32
3.4 Study Sample and Sampling Procedure	32
3.4.1 Sample Size	32

3.4.2 Sampling Techniques.....	32
3.5 Data Collection Methods and Instruments.....	33
3.5.1 Questionnaires.....	34
3.5.2 Interview Schedules.....	34
3.5.3 Focus Group Discussion Schedule.....	35
3.6 Validity and Reliability.....	35
3.7 Data Analysis.....	36
3.7.1 Quantitative Data Analysis.....	36
3.7.2 Qualitative Data Analysis.....	37
3.8 Delimitation.....	37
3.9 Limitations.....	37
3.10 Ethical Considerations.....	37
3.11 Summary.....	38
Chapter Four: Presentation of Research Findings.....	39
4.0 Overview.....	39
4.1 Demographics of the Respondents.....	39
4.2 Pedagogical Approaches and Practices.....	41
4.2.1 Interest in Civic Participation in the Wider Community and at School.....	45
4.2.2 Providing a Secure School Environment.....	46
4.2.3 Skills of Evaluating, Taking, and Defending Positions.....	47
4.3 Teacher Competency in Engaging Service-Learning Methods.....	48

4.3.1 Teacher Competency in Active Civic Learning Methods.....	51
4.3.2 Service-Learning as a Civic Teaching Methodology	52
4.4 Public Deliberations among Pupils	54
4.4.1 Pupils Questioning Elected and Non-Elected Officials	56
4.4.2 Attend Parliament or Court Session.....	57
4.4.3 School Partnership with Government Institutions	58
4.5 Summary	59
 Chapter Five: Discussion of Research Findings.....	61
5.0 Overview.....	61
5.1 Pedagogical Approaches and Practices.....	61
5.2.1 Interest in Civic Participation in the Wider Community and at School	62
5.2.2 Schools not Democratic	62
5.2.3 Skills of Evaluating, Taking, and Defending Positions	63
5.2 Competency of Teachers to Engage Service-Learning Methods.....	64
5.2.1 Service-Learning in Secondary Schools	66
5.3 The Level of Public Deliberations in Service-Learning among the Pupils.....	67
5.3.1 Pupils Interest and Disposition in Public and Political Life	68
5.3.2 School Partnership with Government Institutions and Civil Society.....	69
5.3.3 Pupils Attend Parliament, Court Session or Question Elected Officials.....	70
5.6 Summary	71

Chapter Six: Conclusions and Recommendations	73
6.0 Overview.....	73
6.1 The Main Research Findings and Conclusions.....	73
6.2 Recommendations	74
6.3 Recommendations for Future Research	75
References.....	76
Appendices.....	84

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
Table 4.1: Frequency and percentage distribution of teachers according to gender and age group.....	39
Table 4.2: Frequency and percentage distribution of pupils according to gender and age group.....	40
Table 4.3: Mean and standard deviation of pupils on approaches in the teaching of service-learning.....	42
Table 4.4: Teachers Responses on pedagogical approaches and practices used in the teaching of service-learning	44
Table 4.5: Pupils’ responses on teacher competency in engaging service- learning methods in the teaching of civic education in secondary schools	49
Table 4.6: Teachers’ responses on teacher competency in applying service- learning methodology in the teaching of civic education in secondary schools	50
Table 4.7: Pupils’ responses on public deliberations among pupils	54
Table 4.8: Teacher’s responses on public deliberations among pupils.....	55

LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
Conceptual Framework	5
Theoretical Framework	6
Teachers' length in Service.....	40

LIST OF APPENDICES

	Page
Appendix 1: Questionnaire for teachers.....	84
Appendix 2: Questionnaire for pupils.....	89
Appendix 3: Interview Schedule for (HoDs and Teachers).....	94
Appendix 4: Focus Group Interview Schedule for Pupils.....	96
Appendix 5: Individual Participant's Informed Consent Form.....	97
Appendix 6: Permission to Carry out Research from PEO.....	98
Appendix 7: UNZA Introductory letter.....	99

ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

CDC	Curriculum Development Centre
COS	Community Service
CPD	Continuous Professional Development
CS	Civil Society
CVE	Civic Education/Citizenship Education
HoD	Head of Department
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
OBE	Outcome Based Education
PEO	Provincial Education Officer
SL	Service-Learning

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Overview

This chapter presents the background to the study, statement of the problem, research objectives and questions. It also includes the significance of the study, operational definition of terms, a conceptual framework and a theoretical framework. It then ends with a summary.

1.1 Background

The concept of service-learning is not a recent phenomenon and ideas regarding the importance of connecting education to community needs have been present since the beginning of the 20th century. Dewey, an early advocate of educational reform and experiential learning, argued that democratic participation was crucial to solving community problems (Dewey, 1916). Although service-learning is not a relatively new pedagogy, it has gained prominence in education since the early 1990s (Hatcher, and Erasmus, 2008). Service-learning (SL) is a teaching methodology which provides an avenue to develop students as both citizens and scholars who have the knowledge, skills, and commitment to serve in an increasingly complex society (Prentice and Robinson, 2007). Speck and Hoppe, (2004) pointed out that Service-Learning is centred on the Philanthropic model based on altruism and compensatory justice through charity and philanthropy; a Civic engagement model which is based on the premise that democracy demands equal participation and voice of all citizens, and a Communitarian model which assumes that a good society is one that nourishes both social virtues and individual rights based on the notion that Civic action is public action and public action is collective action.

With the adoption of Outcome-Based Education (OBE) approach moving away from Behavioural Approach (CDC, 2013) authenticates service-learning as the central pedagogical approach in achieving this educational goal. Muleya (2015) noted that this approach seeks to link education to real life experiences as it gives learners skills to assess, criticise, analyse and practically apply knowledge to address societal challenges. The

identification of OBE by the Ministry of Education in Zambia clearly shows that there is a gap between theory and practice. This study of assessing service-learning in the teaching of civic education in secondary schools remains, therefore, relevant to the current education mission.

This study fits well with the seven principles of Zambia Vision 2030 namely; (i) sustainable development; (ii) upholding democratic principles; (iii) respect for human rights; (iv) fostering family values; (v) a positive attitude to work; (vi) peaceful coexistence; and (vii) upholding good traditional values. Throughout this study I remain indebted to the fact that indeed, Pupils' Service-Learning, the participatory part of civic education, bridge classroom activities with the community. Hence, both pupils and communities benefit from pupils' involvement in community based learning activities. The most effective civic education design includes the direct teaching of the scholarly content knowledge and the balance of participatory skills with the modelling and teaching of civic values and dispositions.

Muleya (2015) consistently argued that using active civic learning pedagogical practices in the teaching of Civic Education can lead to social change and transformation of society. Service-learning values application of knowledge in the community, for the common good and benefit of all by providing a real-life context for learning and show pupils the practical importance of what they are learning. Muleya (2015) noted that this approach seeks to link education to real life experiences as it gives learners skills to assess, criticise, analyse and practically apply knowledge to address societal challenges. This study of assessing service-learning in the teaching of civic education in secondary schools remains, therefore, relevant to the current education mission in Zambia and pragmatic teaching of civic education for social, economic and political transformation.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

There has been a renewed sense of interest in civic education across a number of nations since the 1990s as witnessed by commission reports, books, and articles by educators, scholars, and journalists, but Service-Learning has been weak as civic knowledge has not been matching with meaningful participation in public life (Peterson, 2011). Therefore, a more active and participatory model of citizenship that recognised the existence of citizen

responsibilities should be at the centre stage of civic education programmes. Goodrow, et al (2001) lamented that the challenge was bringing service-learning to scale, embedding it in every school, and making it a common expectation and experience of every pupil in the world. This would involve a bringing together of civic knowledge with service learning to offer holistic civic education to attempt to engage young people in the lives of their political communities and to support them in handling the challenges raised by the complexities of contemporary life (Boyte, 2003). Based on literature reviewed by the researcher, most of the researches done in service-learning so far are concentrated in tertiary institutions thus creating a gap in secondary and elementary schools.

Despite the growing popularity of service-learning as a civic pedagogy in the teaching of civic education, little has been documented about its application and implementation in Zambian secondary schools. Therefore, from the background given in the preceding sections, the problem that was identified for investigation in this study was that of not knowing how service- learning was being applied and implemented in the teaching of Civic Education in selected Zambian secondary schools of Lusaka province.

1.3 Aim

The aim of this study was to assess the service-learning in the teaching of civic education in three selected secondary schools in Lusaka province of Zambia.

1.4 Objectives

The objectives of this study were to:

1. investigate pedagogical approaches and practices that were used in enhancing service-learning in the teaching of civic education in secondary schools.
2. establish whether teachers were competent enough to apply service-learning methodology in the teaching of civic education in secondary schools.
3. investigate the application of essential competencies for public deliberations in service-learning among the pupils.

1.5 Research Questions

This study sought to answer the following research questions:

1. Which pedagogical approaches and practices were used in enhancing service-learning in the teaching of civic education in secondary schools?
2. How competent were the teachers in applying service-learning methodology in the teaching of civic education in secondary schools?
3. To what extent did pupils apply essential competencies needed for public deliberations in service-learning?

1.6 Significance of the Study

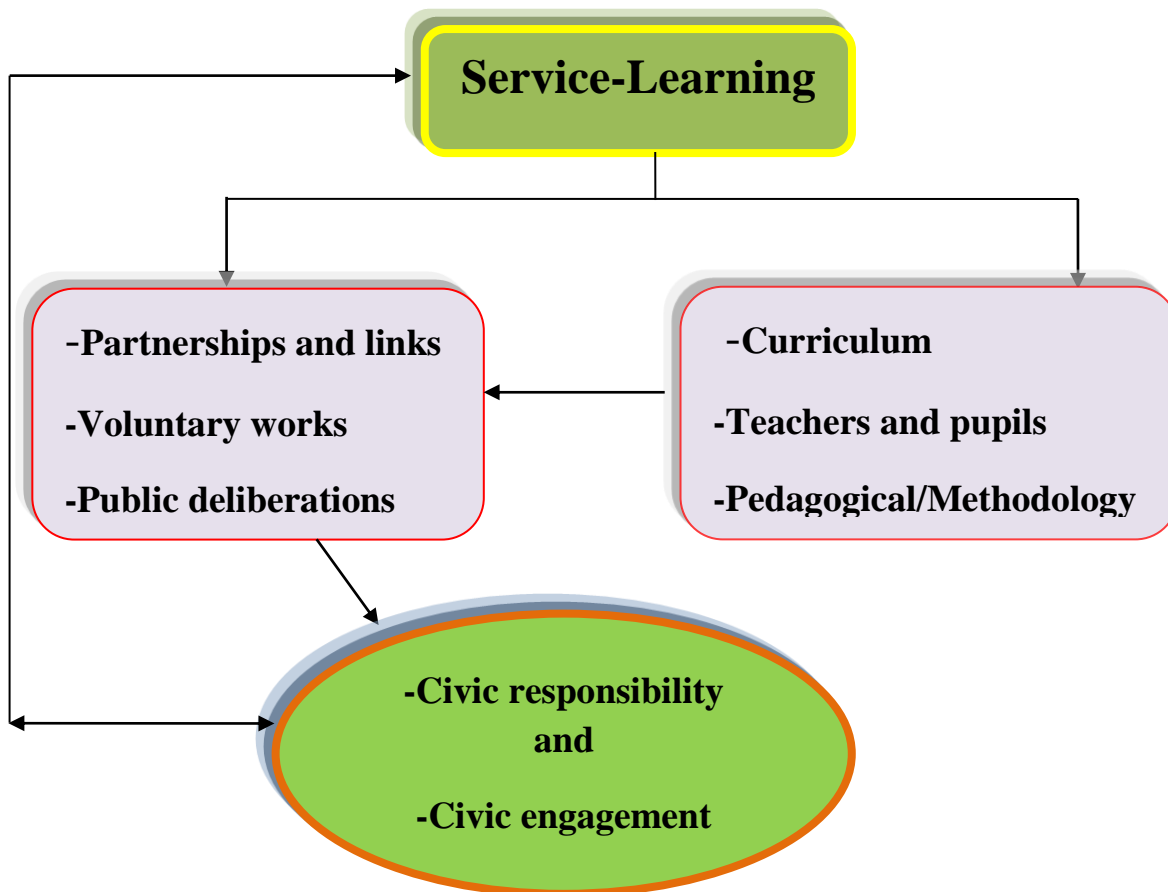
This study would contribute to existing literature on the service-learning in active teaching of civic education in secondary schools in Lusaka, Zambia. The research was likely to revitalize civic life among the pupils by fostering recognition of public and private responsibilities. This study would awaken and engage teachers in the use of active learning methods to enhance experiential learning the essence of service-learning. The research is likely to stimulate initiative for policy and leadership direction in service-learning field among educators and policy makers in Lusaka province.

Figure1.1 on the next page shows the conceptual framework to help conceptualised the aspects of Service-Learning

1.7 Conceptual Framework

The researcher conceptualised the aspects of Service-Learning in the framework illustrated in figure 1.1

Figure1.2: Conceptual Framework



Teachers are a key vehicle for service-learning. Central to any discussion of teacher preparation is a judgement about what content knowledge and skills should teachers possess so that they are able to teach effectively (Mulenga, 2015). It is the teacher who will actually implement service-learning in the curriculum and lead pupils through the various steps by the use of appropriate pedagogies which make service-learning an effective learning experience (see figure1.1). When the pupils acquire civic knowledge, civic skills and dispositions through the interaction with the teacher, and appropriate methodology they are able to show civic responsibility and civic engagement by taking part in community partnerships, doing voluntary work and shaping public deliberation for collective action and common good of public life, the real essence of service-learning. Astin (2000) identified the acquisition of knowledge, communication skills (written and

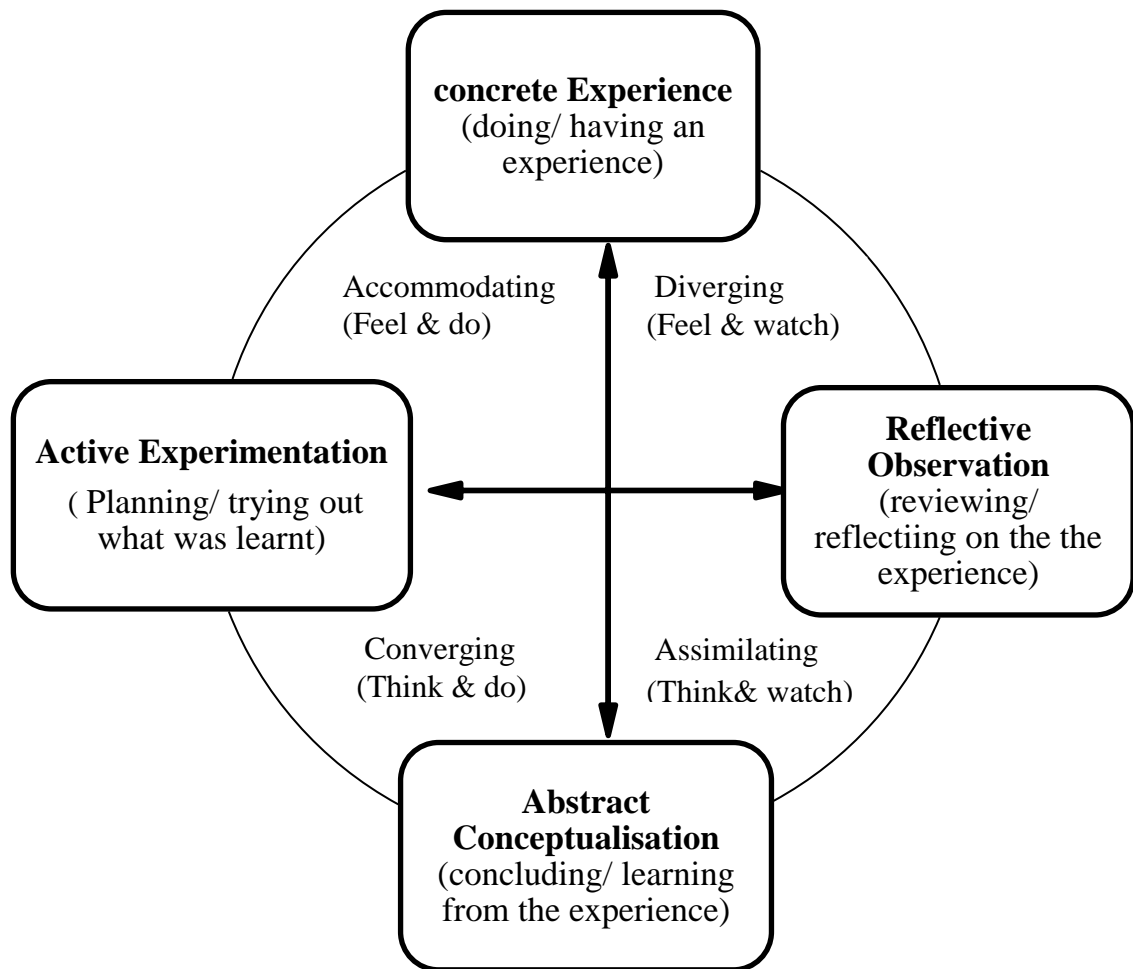
verbal), and critical thinking skills as the general education priorities of academic faculty. He also suggested self-understanding, listening, leadership, empathy, honesty, generosity, and the ability to work collaboratively are the necessary skills to foster civic responsibility.

1.8 Theoretical Framework

This study was guided by the theory of social learning whose proponents include John Dewey, Bandura, Lave and Wenger. Social learning theorists believe that learning is, a process of *social* participation (Lave and Wenger, 1991). The SL methodology builds upon Dewey's 'primacy of experience', which advocates active learning and reflection, and the evolving body of 'experiential learning' research, which entails students applying academic models to solve problems outside the classroom (Dewey 1933). Dewey advocated that a school is a democratic institution and, thus, should be a place where service and participatory citizenship are the norm (Stanton, Giles and Cruz, 1999). Many scholars look to Dewey with his Social learning theory "Learning by doing" as an influential theorist in laying the foundation for service-learning theory (Eyler and Giles, 1994; Deans, 1999 and Carver, 2001).

Clearly, Dewey's philosophy to potential service-learning theory centres on continuity of experience; the principle of interaction in learning; learning leading to further inquiry; reflective activity; truly educative projects; concrete and abstract knowledge; and citizenship and the development of social intelligence (Eyler and Giles, 1994). Further, Deans (1999), noted interest in Dewey relating to service-learning stems from his pragmatic philosophy, political vision, and educational theory as body of work ties knowledge to experience, connects individuals to society, and combines reflection with action, with an emphasis on democracy and community. Cone, and Harris, (1996) argued that a genuine service-learning pedagogy requires careful thought about how people learn experientially and careful attention to the methods educators can use to shape and structure the quality of student experiences. The figure 1.2 on the next page shows how learning occurs as suggested by Kolb (1984).

Figure 1.3: Theoretical Framework



Adapted from Kolb's experiential learning cycle (1984)

Giles and Eyler (1994) noted that service-learning, as a relatively new social and educational phenomenon, suffers from the lack of a well-articulated conceptual framework. Dewey's (1933) educational theory and Kolb's (1984) experiential learning theory (based on Dewey's work) are most frequently used as a basis for practice, research, and analysis. In service-learning, faculty guide students in both their reflection and application of class content to help students make the best of their service experience.

A growing body of scholarship from disciplines and traditions of thought as diverse as social psychology (Vygotsky 1978), cultural anthropology (Lave 1988; Lave and Wenger 1991), and the cognitive sciences (Steinke and Duresh 1999; Eyler 2000) have demonstrated that "learning" is not a simple process of knowledge transmission from

teacher to students but rather a multidimensional social practice where learning is supported by forms of apprenticeship (that is, relationships with others who have various kinds of expertise) and participation in specific, on-going social activities. In other words, students achieve academic mastery not simply by acquiring a particular body of knowledge they can recall on demand, but by developing a personal understanding of information through a process of interpersonal co-construction and problem-solving that depends on relations between themselves, university faculty and staff, their peers, and other educational partners.

Wenger (1998) also adds that a social theory of learning must integrate the components necessary to characterise social participation as a process of learning and of knowing. These components include the following:

Meaning: a way of talking about our ability - individually and collectively - to experience our life and the world as meaningful

Practice: a way of talking about the shared historical and social resources, frameworks, and perspectives that can sustain mutual engagement in action.

Community: a way of talking about the social configurations in which our enterprises are defined as worth pursuing and our participation is recognisable as competence.

Identity: a way of talking about how learning changes who we are and creates personal histories of becoming in the context of our communities. Thus, new knowledge and learning are properly conceived as being located in communities of practice. “For Dewey, who saw the link between the process of learning and democratic citizenship, educative experiences are those which immerse students in worthwhile activities in the community and that provoke curiosity and commitment to continuous inquiry” (Eyler, 2002: 520). Service learning develops moral and ethical citizens prepared to lead a truly equitable society (Franco, 2005). Indeed, Service learning is not only a valuable teaching strategy for teaching course content across the curriculum, it also teaches general education civic responsibilities.

1.9 Operational Definition of Terms

These definitions helped to clarify how this study used some specific terms:

Service-Learning- Service-learning is a teaching and learning strategy that integrates meaningful community service with instruction and reflection to enrich the learning experience, teach civic responsibility, and strengthen communities.

Civic Engagement- is the development of knowledge, skills, abilities, values, and interest in making a difference in one's community.

Public Deliberation- is discussion that involves judicious argument, critical listening, and earnest decision making.

Civic Learning- any learning that contributes to student preparation for community or public involvement in a diverse democratic society

Active Learning- Methods that place the learner at the centre of the educational process and enable them to take responsibility for their own learning to experiment and learn about themselves

10. Summary

This chapter presented the background of the research, statement of the problem, the general and specific research objectives, and general and specific research questions. The significance of the study, delimitation and limitations, defined the guiding terms of the research, conceptual framework and theoretical framework have been presented. The next chapter gives literature review that is related to this study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Overview

This chapter discussed various pieces of literature focusing on historical background of service learning as a civic methodology, Service-learning as the change that affect structures rather than operations, Service-Learning as a strategy to counter disengagement and build democracy, Service-learning a stimulant to public deliberations among the pupils and encourage good citizenship and Implementation of service-learning in public education.

2.1 Service-learning as a civic methodology

Research done by Billing (2004) showed that participation in high-quality service-learning can result in improved attendance, increased test scores, greater problem-solving skills, and better acquisition of skills and knowledge related to reading/language arts, mathematics, science, and social studies. Indeed, the world is undergoing fundamental change that goes to the heart of the individual, community and global relationships on which the concept of citizenship and civic education is funded. Peterson (2011) attested that growing concerns about the general lack of civic literacy, low rates of participation, and acts of discrimination and violence among youth have prompted further debate in citizenship. Hence, there has been an emphasis on Service-Learning to provide holistic Civic Education for the challenge of 21st century to create strong synergies for collective action in public life.

Franco (2005) indicated that service learning is the leading pedagogy to achieve higher education's civic mission and develop citizens prepared to serve the local community. Putting students into the community-at-large is today called "service-learning." It is a common form of civic education that integrates classroom instruction with work within the community. Ideally, the pupils take their experience and observations from service into their academic work, and use their academic research and discussions to inform their service. Muleya (2015) in his study clearly indicated that the use of service-learning fits very well in Civic Education because it encourages learners to act not as solitary individuals who are being taught alongside other solitary individuals but teaches learners to

learn how to engage, discuss, experiment, case study, make presentation, dialogue, analyse and evaluate situations. Further he argued that ‘through such an approach learners are able to make themselves relevant to the needs of society and also respond to the transformation of society in the long run’ (Muleya, 2015: 177). While Muleya (2015) extensively discussed service learning as a teaching framework in education this study took interest further to assess how service learning is done basing on the interaction between the learners and teachers in classroom as well as community to nurture and strengthen democracy through active learning of Civic education.

Although several definitions of Service-Learning exist, four core features are commonly referenced: a hands-on learning experience, the requirement for reflection, a community-based service which fosters civic values, and a beneficial experience both for the student and the community organization. The Service-Learning methodology encompasses a plethora of effective teaching strategies which range from short volunteer placements to semester-long consulting projects, as well as individual or group based activities that may be mandatory or optional, and either embedded in the course content or offered as an extra-curricular activity (Godfrey, Illes and Berry, 2005). Eyler (2000:12) noted, “Service-learning, which, at its best, allows students to confront issues and problems in complex natural contexts, appears to be ideally suited to help students develop a deeper understanding of subject matter, a practical knowledge of how community decision-making processes work, and strategies for transferring knowledge and problem solving skills to new situations”. Rosenberg (2000:8) summed up its value in the statements: “Service-learning combines community work with classroom instruction, emphasizing reflection as well as action. It empowers students by making them responsible in a real-world context while giving them the support, encouragement, information, and skills to be effective”.

Bruner (1961) the renowned educator and psychologist, proposed that some classroom learning ought to be devoted to students creating political-action plans addressing significant social and political issues such as poverty or race. He also urged educators to get their students out into the local communities to explore the occupations, ways of life, and habits of residence. However, most of Civic Education course content and teaching methodology tend to be biased toward individualistic and overlook aspect of community service through SL. Bruner is here following Dewey, who criticized traditional education

for its failure to get teachers and students out into the community to become intimately familiar with the physical, historical, occupational, and economic conditions that could then be used as educational resources (Dewey 1938: 40). Dewey warned of the “standing danger that the material of formal instruction will be merely the subject matter of the schools, isolated from the subject matter of life experience.” This could be countered by immersing students in “the spirit of service,” especially by learning about the various occupations within their communities.

The critical approach to service learning focuses on social responsibility, is very consistent with the Boyte and Kari’s (2000) commonwealth framework of civic responsibility and Westheimer and Kahne (2003a) justice-oriented citizens. Critical service learning is a pedagogical means to identify community concerns and solve societal inequity. Service learners examine the unmet needs of the community using a critical, problem solving lens. Critical service learning expands the emphasis beyond teaching and learning to include the redistribution of power and social change (Mitchell, 2008). Educators can use service-learning as a pedagogic strategy to promote civic skills and dispositions which can strengthen relations among students, the school and the community (Torney-Purta and Vermeer, 2004). Service-learning engagement can help students become more active members of the community, increase student knowledge and understanding of the community, and meet real community needs in the long-run (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2010).

Critics charge that the emphasis in critical service learning goes beyond the educational mission into the realm of social indoctrination (Speck, 2001). However, a primary goal of higher education is not simply the creation of knowledge for its own sake, but knowledge to improve the general welfare of society (Boyte and Hollander, 1999). “The key is to sensitize students to the fact that many of the issues they will explore are ill-structured and that part of their task is to pay attention, figure out what the critical questions are, and refine their understanding of complex community issues,” (Eyler, 2002: 525). Critical service learning develops civic responsibility by “encouraging students to become more active and proactive participants in the learning process” (Sax, 2000: 17). Giles and Eyler (1994b) further identified service-learning as a form of experiential education where learning occurs through a cycle of action and reflection as students . . . seek to achieve real objectives for the community and deeper understanding and skills for themselves. In the

process, students link personal and social development with academic and cognitive development . . . experience enhances understanding; understanding leads to more effective action.”

Eyler and Giles (1999) described five dimensions of civic responsibility: values, knowledge, skills, efficacy, and commitment. Values build the foundation for active citizenship. Eyler and Giles defined values as a sense of social responsibility for what needs to be done. Knowledge, the second responsibility, is defined as the integration of awareness of social need with academic content expertise. Civic knowledge results in intelligent decisions about resolving unmet social problems. Eyler and Giles defined civic skills as the talents and capabilities to take action to address community needs. Efficacy is the self-confidence and belief in one’s civic contributions. Finally, commitment is defined as the willingness to take action and the resolve to create social change. It is a well-grounded fact that democratic citizens must have the knowledge and skills to act on their values to improve their local communities. Service learners develop the capacity and skills to identify solutions to complex problems; solutions that are well suited to the context (Wang and Rogers, 2006).

Empirical evidence suggests that experiential education may be most effective for civic learning. “The reason, again, is that students respond to experiences that touch their emotions and senses of self in a first-hand way” (Damon, 2001: 141). Also, as Conover and Searing (2000: 108) pointed out, “while most students identify themselves as citizens, their grasp of what it means to act as citizens is rudimentary and dominated by a focus on rights, thus creating a privately oriented, passive understanding”. To bring them out of this private and passive understanding, nothing is better, than political participation. The kind of participation here is political action, not simply voting or giving money.

In their comparative analysis of Service-Learning in the United States and South Africa, Hatcher and Erasmus (2008) the study found that there is mutual explicit endorsement for higher education to prepare civic-minded graduates, a transformational role of higher education in society that is supported by stakeholders both within the institution and among non-profit and nongovernmental and a federal or national initiative to achieve such a transformation within higher education organizations. While United States put emphasis on student learning outcomes as goal of service-learning with “Civic responsibility” as a

key learning goal and Service-learning aligns with emphasis on active learning and engaged pedagogies, South Africa put emphasis on collective good of society as goal of service-learning with “Social responsibility” as a key learning goal and Service-learning aligns with Generic Competencies/Critical Cross-field Outcomes (Hatcher and Erasmus, 2008). However, in the U.S., service-learning is supported primarily by non-profit associations and stakeholders within higher education, whereas in South Africa, service-learning is a part of state mandated transformations for higher education.

Therefore, Service Learning (SL) has gained recognition as a curricular strategy for preparing students for their roles as professionals and citizens, changing the way faculty teach, changing the way higher education programs relate to their communities, enabling community organizations and community members to play significant roles in how students are educated, and enhancing community capacity (Connors, et al 2000). It is from this background the researcher would love to get insights on how SL in the teaching of Civic Education in secondary schools is being applied to counteract too much emphasis on the individualistic approach. As individualistic approach runs the risk of not doing enough to empower young people as political actors who have an understanding both of the opportunities and the limitations of individual political action, and who are aware that real change, the change that affects structures rather than operations within existing structures often requires collective action and initiatives from other bodies, including the state.

2.2 Teacher competence in service- learning methodology

Civic competence is critical to the successful functioning of pluralistic democracies. Developing the knowledge, skills, and motivations for effective democratic participation is a national and global imperative that many education institutions have embraced through the teaching strategies of community-based learning and service-learning. A thriving democratic society depends upon active participation of its citizens, characterized by informed deliberation and collaboration to address public problems and work toward common goals (Colby, Beaumont, Ehrlich and Corngold, 2007). Teachers are asked to be responsible for managing and monitoring student learning; know how to engage groups of students to ensure a disciplined learning environment; are adept or skilful at setting norms for social interaction among students and between students and teachers.

Consistent with Novak et al. (2007) meta-analysis, the results of the study by Warren, (2012) suggested that service- learning has a positive effect on student learning outcomes. This is an encouraging result for educators and administrators considering implementing a service- learning component into their courses or at their universities. Not only does service-learning have positive benefits such as increased multicultural awareness and enhanced social responsibility, but it also increases student learning outcomes, the gold standard when measuring pedagogical practices. Teachers need to know the subjects they teach and how to teach those subjects to students; appreciate how knowledge in their subject is created, organized, and linked to other disciplines and applied in real world settings; develop the critical and analytical capacities of their students. Teacher training institutions and classroom teachers must play a major role in providing the training these young citizens need (Cress, 2011). This understanding would be beneficial to teacher training institutions as they prepare teachers to train young people who will take on roles as adult citizens in a democratic society one day. In order to capitalize on the potential of community-based learning for civic competence, it is essential to understand these pedagogical elements and their effect on learning, but a paucity of research examines how faculty teach for civic competence in each stage of the pedagogical process. The intent of this study was to identify specific pedagogical strategies leading to the development of civic competence to achieve the central mission of civic education.

Pre-service teacher education and in-service professional development must emphasize the need for all pupils to have a greater understanding of civic and democratic concepts (Cress, et al, 2010). This cannot be accomplished through the traditional methods of teaching and rote memorization but only through methods of instruction and teacher behaviour that models the democratic concepts and allows the students to actively participate. Teachers must be committed to students and their learning; foster students' self-esteem, motivation, character, civic responsibility, and their respect for individuals, cultural, religious, and racial differences. National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (2003) challenged teachers to think systematically about their practice and learn from experience; exemplify the virtues they wish to inspire in their students (curiosity, tolerance, honesty, fairness, respect for diversity and appreciation of cultural differences) and the capacities that are prerequisites for intellectual growth (the ability to reason and take multiple perspectives, to be creative and take risks, and to adopt an experimental and problem-solving orientation).

Many institutions help develop citizens' knowledge and skills and shape their civic character and commitments. Family, religious institutions, the media, and community groups exert important influences. Schools, however, bear a special and historic responsibility for the development of civic competency and civic responsibility. Schools fulfil that responsibility through both formal and informal education beginning in the earliest years and continuing through the entire educational process. National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (2003) insisted that teachers are members of learned communities; contribute to the effectiveness of the school by working collaboratively with other professionals on instructional policy, curriculum development, and staff development; find ways to work collaboratively with parents, engaging them productively in the work of the school.

Teachers should engage in designing classroom norms and learning strategies that not only enhance academic learning but also encourage civic learning are essential to purposeful civic learning (Cress, et al 2010). While most traditional courses are organized for private learning that advances the individual student, service learning instructors should consider employing learning strategies that will complement and reinforce the civic lessons from the community experience. For example, efforts to convert from individual to group assignments and from instructor-only to instructor and student review of student assignments, re-norms the teaching-learning process to be consistent with the civic orientation of service learning. Civic learning done right also helps teach children skills they need for the 21st century workplace, such as critical thinking, problem solving, communication, collaboration, creativity, initiative and innovation (Torney-Purta and Wilkenfeld, 2009). In addition, high-quality civic learning engages students by making what they learn at school more relevant to real life. It also promotes academic achievement and prevents some students from dropping out. Research shows, too, that young people are more likely to vote if they have taken a civics class (Bachner, 2010).

2.3 Service-learning as the change that affect social structures

Research on service-learning carried out by Warren (2012) had shown positive effects on many aspects of students' lives including cultural awareness, social responsibility, and student cognitive learning outcomes. These are encouraging results for advocates of service-learning. However, continued research on service-learning, especially on populations beyond college students as well as on theory development to explain why

researchers and educators are seeing such promising effects, is still needed. Pompa (2002) summarizes the critical service-learning approach as becoming conscientious of and able to critique social systems, motivating participants to analyse what they experience, while inspiring them to take action and make change. Marullo (1999) predicted that a critical service-learning pedagogy will produce future activists and leaders committed to social justice. Critical service-learning advocates see the potential to transform generations and ultimately society through carefully implemented service-learning experiences.

While the intentionality of a critical service-learning approach may be difficult to implement within the borders of institutions and a society that do not necessarily invite social change, the promise of this approach and the ethical obligations of the pedagogy require this be the next direction of service-learning programs. Schulz (2007:34) stressed that “social justice cannot activate itself rather; it takes the concerted effort of interdependent stakeholders (community members, students, and instructors) to transform social justice theory into service-learning practice”. Developing experiences with greater attention to equality and shared power between all participants in the service experience and challenging students to analyze the interplay of power, privilege, and oppression at the service placement and in their experience in that placement will ensure that a critical service-learning pedagogy questions and problematizes the status quo.

Westheimer and Kahne (2004) made it clear that the emphasis on personal responsibility in citizenship is an inadequate response to the challenges of educating a democratic citizenry. Critics of the idea of the personally responsible citizen have noted that the emphasis placed on individual character and behaviour obscures the need for collective and public sector initiatives; that this emphasis distracts attention from analysis of the causes of social problems and from systematic solutions and that voluntarism and kindness are put forward as ways of avoiding politics and policy. The main problem Westheimer and Kahne see is that whilst no one “wants young people to lie, cheat, or steal” the values implied in the notion of the personally responsible citizen can be at odds with democratic goals. Even the widely accepted goals such as fostering honesty, good neighbourliness, and so on are not inherently about democracy. To put it differently, while many of the values and traits enlisted in relation to the personally responsible citizen are desirable traits for people living in a community, they are not about democratic citizenship. And, even more strongly, to the extent that emphasis on these character traits detracts from other important democratic

priorities, it may actually hinder rather than make possible democratic participation and change.

Delli Carpini (2003) at the Pew Charitable Trusts said, “My worry is that as good as a lot of service learning work is, that it does not encourage political involvement and policy involvement, but it may, in fact, even discourage it.’ However, Edwards (2004) questions the efficacy of the state taking too much control in implementing and or mandating initiatives such as service-learning. He notes that:

Civic education, service-learning, community service and expanded modes of informal political participation can certainly be useful, so long as they are not state-controlled or used as a substitute for reforms in formal politics or the other interventions already recommended that get at the broader factors underlying low rates of participation by low income and minority groups. These measures can help to build the preconditions for effective interaction between associational life, the public sphere and the good society, but they rely on capacities and connections among associations that must also be developed.

Biesta, (2011) hinted that the main problem, of most Civic Education curriculum content therefore is that a too strong emphasis on personal responsibility, on individual capacities and abilities, and on personal values, dispositions and attitudes not only runs the risk of depoliticising citizenship by seeing it mainly as a personal and social phenomenon. Thus, an exclusive emphasis on personally responsible citizenship apart from analysis of social, political, and economic contexts may therefore well be inadequate for advancing democracy as there is nothing inherently democratic about personally responsible citizenship and, perhaps even more importantly, undemocratic practices are sometimes associated with programs that rely exclusively on notions of personal responsibility. As pedagogy for critical thinking, service learning provides opportunities for problem-posing; gathering evidence and analysing it; and formulating, carrying out, and evaluating plans of action. In order to become critical thinkers, students must learn how to “question the answers!” (Vella, 1994: 28). Perhaps even more difficult, they must accept the fact that in this postmodern age there are few definitive answers to many of the most pressing questions facing communities (Rhoads, 1997).

For this reason, pedagogy for critical thinking must also be a pedagogy for public deliberation. In the absence of certainty, political decisions are justified in large part by the

quality of the process through which they were made. Through service learning, students improve their abilities to participate in democratic deliberation. The goal is more than simply learning how to express themselves verbally and in writing. Students are challenged to listen to a range of voices, to empathize with people different from themselves, and to compromise with others in the name of a common good that is often contested and tentative. Community building, which service learning also teaches, strengthens the relationships that enable a member of a community to accept the results of public deliberation while retaining the capacity for critical thought. To take collective action, the members of a community need to figure out ways to work together while acknowledging their differences, one of the most difficult lessons to learn in the classroom as well as in politics. King's (1964) discussion of "creative tension" helps students to understand the positive uses of conflict as a catalyst for personal growth and the improvement of society. The instructor also encourages them to reflect upon how the members of their host organization resolve disputes among themselves. Because not every "tension" is "creative," our deliberation within the classroom is structured to promote respect as well as the open expression of ideas and disagreements.

2.4 Service-Learning as a Strategy to Counter Disengagement and Build Democracy

Service-learning is a meaningful and viable form of democratic education. The notion of democracy occupies a privileged place in our society. Research has demonstrated that reflective, compared to non-reflective, service-learning has a significant impact on development of intellectual components like knowledge, skills, and cognition. A study by Eyler (2002) revealed that when students' capacity for problem analysis were compared, only students in highly reflective courses showed significant progress in complexity of analysis, the tendency to frame the problem and solution in systematic ways rather than focusing on individual analyses, in coherence of a practical action strategy, and in cognitive development. A significant amount of research exists regarding the positive effects of service-learning on many areas of learning including higher order thinking (Eyler and Giles, 1999), empathy (Lundy, 2007), cultural awareness (Bloom, 2008; Borden, 2007; Gutheil, Chernesky, and Sherratt, 2006), personal and interpersonal development (Gullicks, 2006), motivation to engage in social issues (Lee, Olszewski-Kubilius, Donahue, & Weimholt, 2008), motivation to study (Flournoy, 2007), life skills (Astin and Sax, 1998), self-efficacy (Simons and Cleary, 2006; Stewart, 2008), and civic engagement/responsibility (Astin and Sax, 1998; Prentice, 2007). Educators and policymakers are

increasingly pursuing a broad variety of programs that aim to promote democracy through civic education, service learning, and other pedagogies.

The aim of teaching civic education is considered to be the preparation of active, accountable, and knowledgeable citizens, “committed to the fundamental values and principles of democracy” (Centre for Civic Education, 1994: 1). John Dewey advocated that a school is a democratic institution and, thus, should be a place where service and participatory citizenship are the norm (Stanton, Giles, and Cruz, 1999). Informed and knowledgeable citizens should contribute to “social cohesion, social justice and the common good”, respect diversity, pluralism and rule of law (EDC, 2005: 25). The new individual, who is “aware of cultural heritage and contemporary institutions”, is “committed to maintaining democratic society,” (Newmann, 1985: 5). Another definition of civics mission is given by Butts who expects schools “to deal with all students in such a way as to motivate them and enable them to play their parts as informed, responsible, committed, and effective members of a modern democratic political system” (Butts, 1980: 123).

Furthermore, Civic education produces and enriches “a political knowledgeable citizenry”, and educates and inspires individuals to be responsible and devoted “to the production of good government and the legitimacy of the democratic regime” (Niemi and Junn, 1998: 1). Dynneson and Gross believe that “citizenship training” had long been hankered for and devoted to building a human environment where the new members value and believe in “the democratic way of life, which is based on specific and identifiable moral and ethical behaviors” (Dynneson and Gross, 1991: 1). Civic education creates a meaningful position for the individual within society and provides equal opportunity for him/her to realize his/her knowledge, skills and abilities through different specialization and professional channels.

Indeed, the ultimate goal of civic education as the preparation of citizens for democratic society, and that the knowledge transferred through various educational processes should contribute, enhance, and strengthen democratic values. Civic education should develop learners’ intellectual skills such as analysis, evaluation, synthesis, multiple perspectives, critical thinking, and in-depth understanding of political, social, and economic issues. “Recent political events and the attention to world-wide issues have opened the door to

increased focus on citizenship, rights and responsibilities, comparative governments, the role of religion, foreign and domestic policy, global responsibility, and the need for understanding from multiple cultural and economic perspectives and Service learning, with a civic mission focus, has become a mainstay in many school programs” (Kidwell, 2005:16).

In modern education, civic courses apply textbook content knowledge to real life situations. The Civic Mission of Schools (2003) urged that educators to develop civics programs that enable students to apply what they learn through performing community service that is linked to the formal curriculum and classroom instruction. In support of this Goodrow, et al, (2001) attest that Curriculum development is a process and rests in part on the status of the community-campus partnership and as the needs of the community become more clear, and the experience of the faculty and students evolves, the curriculum will be greatly enhanced. The researchers who developed the model that guided Civic Education recognized the importance of students’ daily lives in their social, civic, and political contexts (Torney-Purta et al., 2001) linked between the school and its community represent an opportunity for motivating student participation in activities related to civic and citizenship education and for offering students real opportunities for exercising the skills and competencies necessary for democratic civic engagement. Branson (1998) contends that Community service should bring students into direct contact with government at every level and with sectors of civil society appropriate to their study of civics and government. Students should go out into the community to observe, to interview, to contribute their time and talents in the interest of the common good. Members of the community-government officials, civic leaders, and other knowledgeable persons-should be invited into schools to share their insights and expertise with students.

Good civic education seeks to develop competence in explaining and analysing. If citizens can explain how something should work, for example the American federal system, the legal system, or the system of checks and balances, they will be more able to detect and help correct malfunctions. Citizens also need to be able to analyse such things as the components and consequences of ideas, social, political, or economic processes, and institutions. The ability to analyse enables one to distinguish between fact and opinion or between means and ends. It also helps the citizen to clarify responsibilities such as those

between personal and public responsibilities or those between elected or appointed officials and citizens.

In a self-governing society citizens are decision-makers. They need, therefore, to develop and continue to improve their skills of evaluating, taking, and defending positions. These skills are essential if citizens are to assess issues on the public agenda, to make judgments about issues and to discuss their assessment with others in public or private. In reflecting Nyerere's understand and value of SL, Nkulu (2005) like Dewey and Nyerere hoped that combining critical analysis with positive action would not only ascertain the link between education and real issues, but also help to solve the problems of society. Both Dewey and Nyerere hoped education would enable individuals to understand and to relate to the world in which they live with the purpose of contributing to its transformation for the better.

In addition to the acquisition of knowledge and intellectual skills, education for citizenship in a democratic society must focus on skills that are required for informed, effective, and responsible participation in the political process and in civil society. Torney-Purta et al., (2001) in their 'Citizenship and education in twenty-eight countries' identified and categorised skills necessary for effective SL as interacting, monitoring, and influencing and further elaborated as follow: Interacting pertains to the skills citizens need to communicate and to work cooperatively with others. To interact is to be responsive to one's fellow citizens. To interact is to question, to answer, and to deliberate with civility, as well as to build coalitions and to manage conflict in a fair, peaceful manner. Monitoring politics and government refers to the skills citizens need to track the handling of issues by the political process and by government. Monitoring also means the exercising of oversight or "watchdog" functions on the part of citizens. Finally, the participatory skill of influencing refers to the capacity to affect the processes of politics and governance, both the formal and the informal processes of governance in the community.

It is essential that the development of participatory skills begins in the earliest grades and that it continues throughout the course of schooling. The youngest pupils can learn to interact in small groups or committees, to pool information, exchange opinions or formulate plans of action commensurate with their maturity. Torney-Purta et al., (2001) in addition pupils can learn to listen attentively, to question effectively, and to manage

conflicts through mediation, compromise, or consensus-building to enhance Service-Learning.

Older pupils can and should be expected to develop the skills of monitoring and influencing public policy. They should learn to research public issues using electronic resources, libraries, the telephone, personal contacts, and the media. Attendance at public meetings ranging from student councils to school boards, city councils, zoning commissions, and legislative hearings ought to be a required part of every high school student's experience. Schulz, et al (2008) in their research '*International civic and citizenship education study: Assessment framework*' emphasised that observation of the courts and exposure to the workings of the judicial system also ought to be a required part of their civic education. Observation in and of itself is not sufficient, as pupils not only need to be prepared for such experiences, they need well planned, structured opportunities to reflect on their experiences under the guidance of knowledgeable and skilful mentors within school and outside classroom to reach out to the community where they are part.

Gonzalez, (2009) argued that if citizens are to influence the course of political life and the public policies adopted, they need to expand their repertoire of participatory skills and service learning should be at the centre stage of shaping the shift. Voting certainly is an important means of exerting influence; but it is not the only means. Again, Gonzalez, (2009) was of the view that citizens also need to learn to use such means as petitioning, speaking, or testifying before public bodies, joining ad-hoc advocacy groups, and forming coalitions and improve public deliberation skills. Like the skills of interacting and monitoring, the skill of influencing can and should be systematically developed to effectively discuss debate, analyse and defend one's position on public and private domain issues.

Nowhere is there a better site for political or democratic action than the school itself, the students' own community, (Dewey, 1916). Creating a democratic culture within the schools not only facilitates preparing students for democratic participation in the political system, but it also fosters a democratic environment that shapes the relationships with adults and among peers that the students already engage in. To Dewey "Students learn much more from the way a school is run. Dewey (1916) emphasised the role of schools in developing citizens that have the proper democratic disposition and participatory skills necessary to act for the common good. This has become true to Zambia by making civic education

compulsory to all senior grades so that pupils learn civic virtues, civic participation, critical thinking, patriotism and diversity as well as interacting with the complexity of the social reality. In addition scholars such as Kymlicka and Norman, (1994) argue that any debate regarding citizenship must relate to the social and cultural plurality of citizenship that characterizes our time.

Within the respectful environment of the classroom, students require opportunities to learn about the multiple perspectives related to controversial issues, debate these perspectives in a collaborative framework, formulate opinions, and, possibly, take action based on these opinions (Levin, 1998; Osler and Starkey, 2005). As demonstrated by the vignette that began this discussion, informed decision-making requires a critical investigation into our pupils' assumptions and expectations to achieve holistic citizenship and eventually achieve the objectives of civic education. For citizenship education to flourish teachers and curriculum should adopt teaching pedagogies that are more transformative, interactive and dialogue orientated. As described by Giroux and McLaren (1986), ensuring classroom-community collaboration, beyond strengthening students' ability to work together, provides a much needed opportunity for equality that extends beyond the classroom. Therefore, an outward-looking classroom provides a curriculum that introduces students to varied aspects of their community, utilizes methods that emphasize critical interactions with a variety of community individuals and groups, and provides a context that can empower students within their communities, both locally and globally.

2.5 Public deliberations encourage good citizenship

In 2003, over 50 respected civic education experts, policymakers and practitioners issued a national report titled *The Civic Mission of Schools* (Centre for Information and Research on Civic Learning and Engagement, and Carnegie Corporation of New York). This report called for schools to reengage in preparing students for effective, principled citizenship. According to the report, American schools today offer far fewer opportunities for students to learn about their roles as citizens in a democracy than students received three decades ago (The Civic Mission of Schools, 2003). Limited budgets, fear of criticism or litigation among teachers for addressing controversial issues, and an increased emphasis on testing and accountability have contributed to this decline. At the same time, civic engagement, especially among young people, has declined significantly since the right to vote was given to 18-year-olds in the early 1970s. The report offers six recommended strategies to

reinvigorate civic education, including service-learning (Education Commission of the States, 2004):

1. Provide instruction in government, history, law and democracy
2. Incorporate discussion of current local, national and international issues and events in the classroom, particularly those that young people view as important to their lives
3. Provide students with the opportunity to apply what they learn through performing community service that is linked to the formal curriculum and classroom instruction
4. Offer extracurricular activities that provide opportunities for young people to get involved in their schools or communities
5. Encourage student participation in school governance
6. Encourage student participation in simulations of democratic processes and procedures.

Since the new statute does not specify the content of the required government course, it offers an opportunity for districts to use service-learning to help students understand how government works and how important public policy decisions are made. In most civics courses, students learn about the structure of government, principles of democracy and the rights and responsibilities of citizens. But civics also should provide students with opportunities to learn how government provides services that meet citizens' needs, how citizens (including students) can influence the decisions public officials make and how they can take action when existing public policies do not meet citizens' needs. Service-learning is an ideal strategy for teaching these concepts.

Service-learning can involve students directly in addressing community problems and improving the community through activities such as community clean-ups, food drives, peer tutoring and other one-time projects (Education Commission of the States, 2004). But if students wish to create lasting change in their communities, they will probably need to work with local officials, and they will need some understanding of how local public policy decisions are made. Students will need to learn who has responsibility for making rules or decisions about the issues with which they are concerned and how to access those officials. Students also will need to know how local public policy decisions are influenced by existing laws and decisions made at higher levels of government such as the state or federal government. Students can gain a great deal of content *knowledge* about civics and government through traditional classroom instruction, but civic *skills* must be practiced. Some of these skills, such as writing letters, debating issues or making presentations, can

take place in the classroom. But the effectiveness of classroom exercises is limited because students know they are not real. In the classroom, for example, students do not have to worry much about making mistakes or having their arguments challenged by public officials or other citizens.

In contrast, when students are involved in projects that have real consequences for themselves, their families and friends, and when they know the community is watching, they work harder and learn more. Service-learning provides students with opportunities for “authentic learning” or problem-solving activities that incorporate “real-life questions and issues in a format that encourages collaborative effort, dialogue with informed expert sources, and generalization to broader ideas and application” (Christensen 1995). Civic education should cultivate the knowledge, skills and dispositions (or attitudes) needed to be an effective, engaged citizen. Yet most civics and government classroom instruction emphasizes civic knowledge, with much less focus on skills and dispositions. Most state civics standards reflect a similar orientation. Service-learning can provide a way to correct this unbalanced approach to civics instruction. In a recent review of the literature on service-learning, Billig (2004) concluded that when implemented properly, service-learning can have positive results for students, particularly in the domains of civic skills and dispositions.

The future of our republic and the world over depends on whether or not the next generation is prepared for informed and engaged democratic citizenship. Like the pedagogy of popular education developed by the Brazilian educator Paulo Freire (1972), service learning connects personal and political transformation. Students transform themselves into citizens and their society into one that welcomes and promotes active citizenship. Citizenship requires both knowledge about government and the ability to be involved in governance. It means knowing how to identify and inform yourself about issues, explore and evaluate possible solutions, and then act to resolve problems. It demands that you know how to interact respectfully with others. And it asks that you accept responsibility for meeting your community’s and the nation’s challenges. Participation can take many forms, and there are numerous ways in which students, families and communities can make a difference. Voting is one of our most important rights and responsibilities, but registering to vote and voting on Election Day are not enough. The health of our democracy depends on our schools producing *informed* voters

and community members who value the importance of civic life. Civic engagement includes speaking to the school board, writing to congressional representatives, serving on a jury, collaborating with neighbours on local improvement projects, understanding and debating current events and helping others.

Consistent with the working definition of service-learning developed for this study, “a pedagogical model that intentionally integrates academic learning and relevant community service,” service learning as a pedagogy for citizenship integrates the academic study of democracy and the experience of democratic community service. The guiding principle behind the Democracy Project is that “the only truly effective education system for democracy is democracy, democratic action itself” (Lummis, 1996: 37). Through reflection upon the experience of democratic action, students are encouraged to expand the meaning of citizenship to include acting in a way that recognizes and promotes the citizenship of everyone.

Throughout this study, Service-learning as pedagogy for citizenship shows students that each of them can make a difference. Service learning increases their confidence as citizens, but not because their every experience of collective action is successful. Practicing democracy in the community, in a community organization, and in a classroom “community” is hard work and sometimes frustrating. However, service learning teaches students and their teachers how to learn from mistakes by engaging in a continuous sequence of action and reflection. Ultimately, the success of the Democracy Project will be measured by the extent to which its graduates continue to learn through service as they practice citizenship throughout the rest of their lives.

2.6 Implementation of service-learning in public education

Research done by Scales and Roehlkepartain (2005) concluded that while service-learning programs have the capacity to enhance academic achievement, personal development, and social responsibility, school and local community climate and dynamics are vital in creating successful educational experiences. The National Service-Learning Clearinghouse (2002) created a list that outlines the basis for effective service-learning programs. The following “hallmarks of effective service programs” are suggested to provide valuable service, build civic skills, and increase student achievement:

Service activities should be of sustained or significant duration. Program experience suggests that a minimum of 40 hours over a school year (or 20 per semester) is necessary to yield positive results for students and the community. Teachers or after-school program coordinators or sponsors need to work with students in order to draw the connections between what the students are doing and what they should be learning. Even if service activities are conducted outside of class, it is important that the project have clear and specific learning objectives. The service that students perform should have a strong connection to the curriculum they are studying or to their after-school activities. The relationship between service and democratic practices, ideas, and history should be made explicit in order that students see service as a civic responsibility.

Project participants should be given time to reflect on their service. That may involve asking students to keep a journal, or having teachers and organizers lead discussions or coordinate activities that get participants to analyse and think critically about their service. These activities need to be planned, not left to chance. Students should have a role not only in executing the service project, but also in making decisions about its development. Students should be involved in leadership roles in all phases of the project. In order to ensure that service is really useful and strengthens community ties, strong partnerships with community groups based on mutually agreed upon goals, roles, and responsibilities are essential (The National Service-Learning Clearinghouse, 2002).

Gutmann (1987:288) reminds us that a primary purpose of the public education system in the United States was ‘to give all children an education adequate to take advantage of their political status as citizens’. Service-learning is a proven civic education practice that extends learning into the community and builds a strong sense of agency among young people. Service-learning is a teaching strategy that connects classroom curriculum with service projects. Promoting a spirit of volunteerism and community service is often the pathway for drawing young people into their community (Wuthnow, 1991; Coles, 1993; Lisman, 1998). Service-learning engages students in projects that serve the community while building social, civic, and academic skills.

To be able to identify and advocate the use of a valid instrument to capture service-learners’ sense of community service self-efficacy will only further assist educators and

policy makers to better understand the impact of service-learning programs while simultaneously being able to use the information to improve current programs for maximum impact. As Barber (1998) noted:

Serving others is not just a form of do-goodism or feel-goodism, it is a road to social responsibility and citizenship. When linked closely to classroom learning ... it is an ideal setting for bridging the gap between the classroom and the street, between the theory of democracy and it is much more obstreperous practice Service is an instrument of civic pedagogy In serving the community, the young forge commonality; in acknowledging difference, they bridge division; and in assuming individual responsibility, they nurture social citizenship.

Maurer and Christine (2014) insisted that service-learning requires the use of active learning methods that place the learner at the centre of the educational process and enable them to take responsibility for their own learning to experiment and learn about themselves. Such methods have been shown to make learning experiences richer and to have positive benefits for students in terms of improving their motivation with positive effects from their engagement with learning and long-term attainment. Thus teachers need the professional competencies to be able to guide students through the learning process rather than, as in traditional methods, communicating knowledge and information mainly through 'chalk and talk' (Mihai, 2014). They need the skills to be able to ensure the relevance of education to students' learning needs and backgrounds and be able to support students in planning activity. The teacher's role is especially important in the latter stage of activity-based learning, i.e. in the reflection and generalisation stages. Without the right support, students may not be able to draw lessons from their experiences. Further, Mihai, (2014) consented that in this setting, there is a fine balance to be found between too distant interventions that leave learners under-equipped to make the most of the experience and too much supervision which does not leave space for students to develop their independence.

Klymenko, (2014) assented that students need authentic, practical experiences and realistic learning environments as essential parts of active learning. Teachers need to have access to a varied new range of resources in order to build activities for students that are as true to life as possible, bringing the outside world into the school. This includes, for example, the resources to set up and manage a business-like project, to organize study

visits to companies or charities, or visits to schools by entrepreneurs. Brock and Cameron (1999) challenged both schools to become more open to their local communities and, in equal measure, businesses and the wider community in general to be willing to play an active and committed role in supporting teachers and schools in their endeavours. Changes to teacher education cannot take place in a vacuum if they are to be effective.

2.7 Summary of literature reviewed and identified gap

This chapter has discussed literature review and how scholars, schools, institution are now turning attention to service learning as the remedy to stimulate young people's interest to create a cadre of citizens who are civic minded with civic engagement and responsibility. As the interest in service-learning extends across the globe, there is need to better understand the similarities and differences among continental practices and the various new emerging expressions of service-learning. In addition to looking for more contextualized paradigms to support service-learning, primary, secondary schools and higher education institutions should identify appropriate strategies and support from each sector of society (e.g., non-profit, business, government) to endorse and support this promising change in teaching and learning. Community service helps to promote and develop social responsibility and awareness and create civic-minded pupils and graduates who are committed to solve societal challenges with better approaches. Indeed, for service-learning to succeed, the idea of community service must be supported by public policy, curriculum and institutionalised it at all levels, institutions (schools and universities) are expected to engage with the community, so as to make SL part of the larger culture and transform society.

In light of the above reviewed literature, it is evident that studies conducted have mostly been concentrated on higher education and on teacher education. Moreover, the reviewed literatures have all indicated the positive influence of service-learning on pupils where such services are properly offered. However, little or no literature has indicated the use of service-learning in the teaching of civic Education in public secondary schools in Lusaka province of Zambia. This is despite a number of calls to switch on to active civic learning activities to stimulate critical and active citizenship among the youth both in urban and rural areas. Hence, this study tried to fill the above information gap.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Overview

This chapter describes the methodology that was used in carrying out this study. The chapter is discussed under the following sub themes; research design, target population, study sample, sampling procedures, research instruments, data collection procedure, data analysis, ethical considerations and a summary to wrap it up.

3.1 Research Design

McMurray (1990) stated that research designs are a set of instructions to the researcher to gather and analyse data in such a way as to control whom and what to study. Therefore, a research design is a framework in the whole process of research aimed at pointing the researcher in the direction of that research. This research employed a cross sectional survey design in which the level of service-learning in the teaching of Civic Education in secondary schools was assessed. The essence of conducting a cross sectional study was to learn about characteristics such as knowledge, attitude and practices of teachers and learners concerning the level of service- learning in secondary schools in Lusaka province.

Babbie (2000) pointed out that a cross sectional study uses different groups of people who differ in the variable of interest but who share other characteristics such as socioeconomic status, educational background, and ethnicity. Cross-sectional studies are used in education, but this method is also utilized in many other areas including social sciences and developmental psychology. According to Burns and Grove (2003:201), descriptive research “is designed to provide a picture of a situation as it naturally happens”. It may be used to justify current practice and make judgment and also to develop theories. For the purpose of this study, descriptive research was used to obtain a picture of teachers’ and pupils’ opinions of teaching Service-Learning in Civic Education in secondary schools in Lusaka province.

3.2 Area of Study

The study was conducted in Lusaka province where three public secondary schools were selected purposively. Lusaka was selected being the first province to pioneer Civic Education at its inception in 2004 at senior secondary school level in Zambia. Three public secondary schools were sampled in Lusaka province as they pioneered Civic Education in 2004; a boys' secondary school and two co-educational secondary schools to help and assess the teaching of service-learning in the Civic Education. Therefore, given its location and conducive environment for educational development, the researcher found that Lusaka could provide information for this study.

3.3 Target Population

Singh (2006) stated that a target population is an aggregate or totality of objects or individuals to which inferences during the study are made. It is also referred to as an entire group of persons or elements that have at least one thing in common. For the purpose of this study, the population included all Civic Education teachers, all pupils taking civic education and all Heads of Social Sciences departments from the three secondary schools of Lusaka province.

3.4 Study Sample and Sampling Procedure

3.4.1 Sample Size

The sample consisted of 96 respondents, distributed as follows: eighty four (84) pupils selected from three schools, nine (9) Civic Education teachers and three (3) head of department Social Sciences.

3.4.2 Sampling Techniques

Both purposive and systematic random sampling procedures were used. Civic Education Teachers and HoDs Social Sciences were selected purposively since the researcher considered that these had required information, government circulars, some policy documents and implement curriculum content in the province. Civic Education teachers were central for being involved in everyday classroom and community interactions with learners, parents, content knowledge and school management. The three schools were selected purposefully as they piloted Civic Education at senior level in Lusaka province as a result they had wider experience to share in this research. In selecting the participants'

attention was given to diversity with regard to gender, years of teaching experience, management experience (maximal variations and typical sampling). Kothari, (2004) stated that purposive sampling is considered more appropriate when the universe happens to be small and a known characteristic of it is to be studied intensively.

Pupils who participated in this study were selected using systematic random sampling. On average seven (7) pupils were selected from 4 classes from each school in this case the distinct classes of pupils in their twelfth grade who were taking Civic Education. Systematic random sampling can be taken as an improvement over a simple random sample in as much as the systematic sample is spread more evenly over the entire population (Kothari, 2004). It is an easier and less costly method of sampling and can be conveniently used even in case of large populations. Further, Singh, (2006) pointed out systematic random samples may be comprehensive and representative of the population and observations of the sample may be used for drawing conclusions and generalizations.

3.5 Data Collection Methods and Instruments

Data collection was by means of in-depth personal interviews (HoDs and teachers), focus group discussion (FGD) of 5 pupils from each school and questionnaires were administered to teachers and pupils. Heads of department, Civic Education teachers, and Civic Education pupils were engaged during January and February 2016. Heads of Social Sciences departments from the three selected secondary schools were given questionnaires and were also interviewed being the overseers of the learning and teaching process and that they were also familiar with educational policies, direct contact with school administration. Questionnaires were administered to the teachers as well as interviews while focus group discussion and questionnaires were administered to the pupils. One focus group of 5 pupils each from the three schools was conducted to stimulate discussion among the pupils.

The interviews and FGD were conducted in English. The interviews and FGD were digitally recorded and verbatim were transcribed. Reflective field notes were taken by the interviewer for the sake of triangulation.

3.5.1 Questionnaires

According to Kombo and Tromp (2006), a questionnaire is a research instrument that gathers data over a large sample. A self-administered questionnaire was distributed to 84 pupils in twelfth grade who were taking Civic education and 12 teachers of Civic education in selected secondary schools of Lusaka to collect quantitative data. The main essence of administering a self-completion questionnaire to pupils and teachers was to assess the teaching of service-learning in Civic Education in secondary schools in Lusaka province.

The questionnaires had four sections (see Appendix: 1 and 2). Section A dealt with social demographic information and section B contained statements regarding pedagogies and practices that could enhance service-learning. To achieve that, 9 related statements based on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 to 4, with 4 representing the extreme positive perception and 1 representing the extreme negative perception of all responses were prepared. Respondents were availed with the questionnaire for grading to determine each one's level of agreement with the statement. The rankings were categorized as follows: 1= never 2= rarely 3= sometimes 4= often. Teachers and pupils therefore, graded each statement by means of ticking one of the four (4) rankings appearing next to it. Section C of the questionnaire sought to address teacher's competency in engaging active civic learning methods. The rankings were categorized as follows: 1= not at all 2= rare occasion 3= frequent 4= very frequent. Section D had statements on pupils' level of involvement in public deliberations. The rankings were categorized as follows: 1= never 2= partial 3= strong 4= very strong; where 1 is the weakest and 4 is the strongest

3.5.2 Interview Schedules

An interview as a method of data gathering refers to the questions which are asked to the respondents orally (Kombo and Tromp, 2006). It consists of a written list of questions or topics that need to be covered by the interviewer. In this study, to collect qualitative data, semi-structured interviews (Appendix 3) were administered to HoDs Social Sciences and teachers of Civic Education to crosscheck other teachers' responses in the questionnaires. According to Kombo and Tromp (2006) semi-structured interviews are interviews based on the use of an interview guide. Simply put, an interview guide is a written list of questions or topics that need to be covered by the interview. Using the interview guide, one-on-one interviews were conducted to include 6 teachers of Civic Education and 3

HoDs Social Sciences and were tape-recorded to collect data on assessment of teaching of service-learning in teaching Civic Education in selected secondary schools.

3.5.3 Focus group Discussion Schedule

This method was used to solicit information from pupils. The focus group discussion guide had two sections A and B. Section A addressed objectives 1 and 2 on practices and teacher competency respectively (see Appendix 4) while Section B was centred on pupils' public deliberations. After discussions the pupils were asked to individually write short informative paragraphs on their perceptions on service- learning, particularly with the intention of fully expressing what they could not say in groups due to fear.

3.6 Validity and Reliability

Issues of validity and reliability were also addressed throughout the study process. Validity is concerned with the integrity of the conclusions that are generated from a piece of research (Bryman, 2008:3). Validity in this regard entails the extent to which an instrument fairly and comprehensively represents the factors under study (Cohen et al., 2007). It has to do with the accuracy and precision of data, and whether a study can yield the same results when repeated. Validity examines the extent to which the results of the study could be generalised to the real world (Bless and Achola, 1988). At the same time, all the research instruments to do with qualitative data were personally administered by the researcher who ensured that probes, clarifications and follow-up questions were addressed but also contact numbers (of the researcher) were put on self-administered questionnaires that dealt with quantitative data see appendix 1 and 2). Recording of the interviews also helped in further strengthening the trustworthiness of data by ensuring that data was not distorted.

Reliability is concerned with the consistency of the results obtained from a measuring instrument. According to Bless and Achola (1988), reliability is concerned with the degree of consistency to which a particular measuring procedure gives equivalent results over a number of repeated trials. It depends on the trustworthiness of the research instruments, whether a research instrument is consistent and able to generate the same data when repeated several times. To ensure that the research instruments remained consistent, all the instruments were piloted so that corrections and modifications could be made. In this case, the quantitative and qualitative data sets complement each other and provided for the triangulation of findings, hence greater validity and reliability of the emerging inferences.

Multiple methods of data collection validate research. This is so because methods complement each other with no overlapping weaknesses (Brewer and Patton, 2002). Combination of methods ensures that inconsistencies are removed and thus valid and reliable data emerges (Patton, 1990). Member checking was also used to enhance the study. Member checking (if something are not understood during the interviews, the researcher should go back to the participants to confirm the meaning that was made out of it) could be also used to strengthen the study (Nieuwenhuis, 2007).

3.7 Data Analysis

The study employed both qualitative and quantitative techniques in collecting and analysing data. The study involved three data collection techniques, namely questionnaires, interviews and focus group discussion. Quantitative data sets were analysed using descriptive statistics and group comparisons between teachers and pupils on how they viewed or perceived teaching of service- learning in Civic Education. From the final dataset, descriptive statistics were generated, and comparisons were made between teachers and pupils who teaching and learning Civic Education. Qualitative data sets were coded and transcribed according to the emerging themes. Data analysis refers to examining what has been collected in a survey or experiment and making deductions and inferences (Kombo and Tromp, 2006). Descriptive statistics were used to analyse quantitative data sets while emerging themes were used to analyse qualitative data. Descriptive research involves gathering data that describe events and then organizes, tabulates, depicts, and describes the data collected (Glass and Hopkins, 1984). It often uses visual aids such as graphs and charts to aid the reader in understanding the data distribution.

3.7.1 Quantitative Data Analysis

Quantitative data were collected through a questionnaire. The data from 84 questionnaires collected, were entered on the data entry screen created on the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20.0 software. SPSS software facilitated for accuracy and speedy entry of data from questionnaires as well as analysis of the responses. Descriptive statistics in form of frequency tables, means, standard deviation and charts were generated using SPSS Software and excel and group comparisons were made.

3.7.2 Qualitative Data Analysis

Objectives were used to reduce, condense and group the content of the interviews and FGD. Rich, thick descriptions allow readers to make decisions regarding transferability. The researcher worked through all the data and coded using emerging themes. Related codes thereafter were organised into the pre-set categories. After completing the categorisation, the researcher, re-read the transcriptions to check whether all the important insights that had emerged from the data were captured. The detailed descriptions may enable the readers to transfer information to other settings and thus determine whether the findings can be transferred (Creswell, 2008).

Qualitative data from semi-structured interviews and FGD were collected, transcribed and coded into themes and sub-themes that emerged through thematic analysis. This was done by carefully listening to the recorded conversations in order to interpret, reduce and code key responses into major and sub-themes that emerged for later discussion. This was done in the light of the research questions at hand. Some responses were also isolated to be used as original quotes for verbatim to highlight important findings of the study.

3.8 Delimitation

This study was conducted in three selected public secondary schools in Lusaka province. The schools were Libala, Arakan boys and Chongwe Secondary Schools.

3.9 Limitations

The study was only conducted in three public secondary schools therefore results from this study may not be generalized to represent all secondary schools in Lusaka province. However, it is hoped that the results of this study has given an insight of what the picture is like in public secondary schools concerning service-learning in the teaching of Civic Education.

3.10 Ethical Considerations

Singh (2006) cautioned that a researcher should not mention the name of subjects anywhere in the report and if possible names of institutions where sample subjects have selected for data collection should not be mentioned even in the appendix. Instead, the code number should be used for this purpose. Singh further pointed out that as a general

rule, the researcher must respect the human sample subjects selected in his/her specific research study.

The following points were considered in process of data collection and report:

1. The researcher protected the dignity and welfare of human sample subjects.
2. The human sample subjects' freedom to decline participation was respected, and the confidentiality of research was maintained.
3. The researcher guarded against violation or invasion of privacy.

Hence, permission to carry out the research was obtained from the Provincial Education Officer (PEO) in Lusaka (see appendix 5). Before going in the field for data collection, permission was requested from UNZA Ethics Committee and an introductory letter from the Assistant Dean Post Graduate in the School of Education was given (see appendix 7). Each of the interviewee received a consent letter of permission see appendix 6). As the appointments were made for the interviews, in each case, a brief explanation of the aim of the study, as well as a tentative interview schedule were given.

The interviewees were also informed that information from the participants would be kept confidential and only for academic purposes. Since the principle of anonymity is linked with confidentiality, the participants were also assured that their names, as well as their schools would not be disclosed or identified. At the beginning of the interviews permission were always sought from the participants to record the interviews with a promise that the audiotapes would be destroyed at the end of the research and that there was no other risks involved in participating in this study apart from time taken for interviews and answering the questionnaires.

3.11 Summary

This chapter presented the research methodology that was used in this study. It covered the research design, target population, study sample, sampling procedures, data collection, data analysis and ethical considerations. The following chapter presents presentation of findings.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

4.0 Overview

This chapter presents the findings of the study which aimed at assessing service-learning in the teaching of Civic Education in three selected secondary schools in Lusaka province. The findings were presented based on the objectives of the study which were: to investigate pedagogical approaches and practices which enhance service-learning in the teaching of civic education in secondary schools; to establish whether teachers are competent enough to apply service-learning methodology in the teaching of civic education in secondary schools; to investigate the application of some essential competencies for public deliberations in service-learning among the pupils. The findings from the pupils were presented alongside those from Civic Education teachers and heads of department social sciences. While actual words said by respondents were used as much as possible in the descriptions, other words have been paraphrased. Both qualitative and quantitative data sets were presented in tables and figures.

4.1 Demographics of the Respondents

As a reminder, this section presented the demographics of the respondents who took part in this study. In order to have a clear picture of the sample observed, a background check was important to explore the necessary demographics that were captured in the questionnaires such as gender, age and length in service.

Table 4.1: Frequency and percentage distribution of teachers according to gender and age group

Variable	<i>f</i>	%
Gender (n=12)		
Male	5	42
Female	7	58
Age group (n=12)		
26-36	4	33
37-47	8	67

Table 4.1 shows that 42% of the sampled teachers were male while the remaining 58% were females. There were more female teachers than the males. Further it shows the age group of teachers as 26-36 years and 37- 47 years with frequencies 4 and 8 respectively.

Figure 4.1: Teachers' length in Service

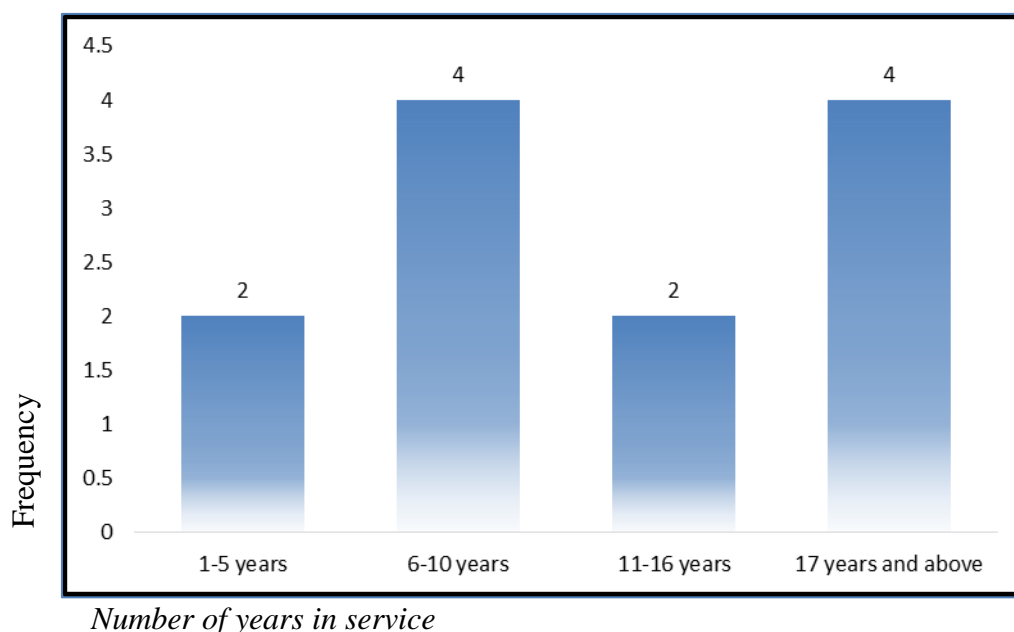


Figure 4.1 depicts the number of years that a teacher had spent in service. During the time the research was conducted 2 teachers had spent 1-5 years in the teaching service, 4 teachers had spent 6-10 years, 2 teachers had spent 11-16 years, and 4 teachers had spent 17 years and more in the teaching service. This indicated that the respondents had long experience in teaching Civic Education to attest service-learning in secondary schools.

Table 4.2: Frequency and percentage distribution of pupils according to gender and age group

Variable	<i>f</i>	%
Gender (n=84)		
Male	47	56
Female	37	44
Age group (n=84)		
11-16	14	16.7
17-22	67	79.8
23 and above	3	3.6

Table 4.2 shows the gender distribution of the pupil participants, it can be observed that out of the total of 84, 56% were males, and 44% were females. It is also observable that this represents a 100% response to this question. From the same table, a frequency of 67 pupil respondents were between the age range 17-22 years, 14 were between 11-16 years, while 3 were 23 years and above. The majority of pupil respondents were 17-22 who are active in social, political and public issues hence can give credible information on the level of service- learning in secondary schools.

4.2 Pedagogical approaches and practices

As earlier mentioned, at the beginning of this chapter, research question one sought to investigate pedagogical approaches and practices which enhanced service-learning in the teaching of civic education in secondary schools in Lusaka province. A number of statements were given to help answer this question in tabular form (see appendix 1 and 2). This question was very important in that it sought to address classroom and outside classroom interactions between teachers and pupils. The respondents were asked to rate the statements in table using the likert scale of: 1= Never, 2= Rarely, 3=Sometimes, 4=Often. The findings for methodological approaches are presented in table 4.3 on the next page.

In response to this question the following were the results from data analysed using SPSS from 84 pupils and 12 teachers (respondents) respectively;

Table 4.3: Means and Standard deviation of pupils on approaches in the teaching of service-learning

	Mean	Std. Deviation
Teaching methods stimulate students politically, socially, civic participation in wider community and school	3.22	0.894
Teachers encourage pupils to make up their own minds	3.12	0.827
Teachers encourage pupils to express their opinions	3.35	0.818
Pupils express opinions in class with different views from most of other learners	3	0.944
Teachers encourage pupils to discuss issues with people with different opinion	2.79	1.054
Teacher present several sides of the issues when explaining them in class	2.98	1.024
Schools provide secure environment and encourage pupils to express opinions, debate and practice decision making	3.05	1.047
Pupils use skills of identifying and describing, explaining and analysing, and evaluating, taking, and defending public issue positions	2.63	1.056
Pupils develop and continue improving skills of evaluating, taking, and defending positions	2.92	1.073

Note: 1= Never, 2= Rarely, 3=Sometimes, 4=Often

In response to question 1, 9 statements were given to pupils in the questionnaire (see appendix 2). Table 4.3 show the generated mean and standard deviation of the questions under the first objective. From the mean shown above most frequencies were concentrated on the response of sometimes. The value range was from ‘Never (1)’ to ‘Often’ (4). The scores of ‘never’ to ‘rarely’ have been taken to present a variable which had mean score of 0 to 2.5 on the continuous likert type scale; ($0 \leq \text{mean} \leq 2.5$). The scores of ‘sometimes’ to ‘often’ have been taken to represent a variable with a mean score of 2.6 to 4 on the

continuous Likert scale: ($2.6 \leq \text{mean} \leq 4$) and a standard deviation of >1 implies a significant difference on the impact of the variable among respondents. The results in table 4.3 indicate that in most times; teaching methods stimulated students politically and socially. Teachers encouraged pupils to make up their own minds, Teachers encouraged pupils to discuss issues with people with different opinion, and Pupils expressed opinions in class with different views from most of other learners. These responses did not occur with variation among the responses since their standard deviations are less than one (1). The remaining statements were at least frequently done, however there was much variation in the responses as indicated by the standard deviation which are more than one (1). This means that a good number of responses also indicated otherwise. Table 4.4 on the next page shows teachers responses on pedagogical approaches and practices used in the teaching of service-learning

Table 4.4: Teachers Responses on pedagogical approaches and practices used in the teaching of service-learning

Pedagogies and practices that enhances service learning (N=12)	Mean	Std. Deviation
Teaching methods stimulate students politically, socially, civic participation in wider community and school	3.42	0.515
Teachers encourage pupils to make up their own minds or own decisions	3.5	0.522
Teachers encourage pupils to express their opinions	3.58	0.515
Pupils express opinions in class with different views from most of other learners	3.25	0.866
Teachers encourage pupils to discuss issues with people with different opinion	3.18	0.982
Teacher present several sides of the issues when explaining them in class	3.42	0.515
Schools provide secure environment and encourage pupils to express opinions, debate and practice decision making	3.5	0.798
Pupils use skills of identifying and describing, explaining and analysing, and evaluating, taking, and defending public issue positions	3.25	0.622
Pupils develop and continue improving skills of evaluating, taking, and defending positions	3.25	0.452

Table 4.4 shows the teachers responses to the pedagogical approaches used in service learning. The value range was from ‘Never (1)’ to ‘Often’ (4). The scores of ‘never’ to ‘rarely’ have been taken to present a variable which had mean score of 0 to 2.5 on the continuous likert type scale; ($0 \leq \text{mean} \leq 2.5$). The scores of ‘sometimes’ to ‘often’ have

been taken to represent a variable with a mean score of 2.6 to 4 on the continuous Likert scale: ($2.6 \leq \text{mean} \leq 4$) and a standard deviation of >1 implies a significant difference on the impact of the variable among respondents. The results in table 4.4 indicates that in most times; Teaching methods stimulated students politically, socially, Teachers encouraged pupils to make up their own minds, Teachers encouraged pupils to discuss issues with people with different opinions, Pupils expressed opinions in class with different views from most of other learners. These responses did not occur with variation among the responses since their standard deviations were less than one (1). Generally most teachers indicated either sometimes and often to most questions. Teachers felt that they at sometimes and often pupils developed skills for evaluating defend public issues, and they expressed their opinion in class.

The next section presents the interviewees' perceptions and views on pedagogical approaches and practices in use for service learning. A number of questions were asked to teachers and HoDs from the interview schedule for HoDs and Teachers (see appendix 3) and Focus Group Interview Schedule for Pupils (see appendix 4). In response to the first research question the following themes or issues emerged;

4.2.1 Interest in civic participation in the wider community and at school

In trying to find out whether the teaching methods stimulate pupils' interest in political and social issues, civic participation in the wider community and at school, one male pupil said;

Yes to some extent in that we as civic education pupils are active in following the happenings in the political arena except that school conditions and home condition normally do not encourage participating in active political issues at secondary school level. He went to say that the best is to teach us how to actively participate and influence change if necessary so that leadership skills are cultivated at the tender age.

For service-learning to be meaningful and valued in society, methods of teaching employed by the teachers should capture pupils' interest in political, economic and social issues so that learners are able to participate in civic matters affecting society. One HoD said that;

Most pupils are active and willing to participate in civic matters that concern them. Some pupils are even in voluntary group very geared to help solve societal challenges. Public school must be a place where parents want to send their kids, teachers want to teach and children want to learn. There is need to fulfil the collective obligation to help all children succeed by making public schools the centre of the community and fulfils their purpose as an anchor of democracy and a propeller of economy through service-learning to achieve public goals and solve public problems. Institutions of learning should take seriously the goal of civic education and engagement, to ensure life-long, active citizenship and, ultimately the long-term health of democracies.

4.2.2 Providing a secure school environment

When asked whether schools provided a secure environment where pupils are encouraged to express opinion, to debate, to practice decision making and or bring up current political events for discussion in class, one pupil said that;

We are not allowed to discuss current political happenings in class however, we are allowed to take part in decision making mostly through our representatives like prefects, monitors or sometimes we are directly involved especially if the issue is agent and sensitive such as to do we poor sanitation or keeping the school premises clean and tidy.

A secure political and social environment in school was very important to achieve service-learning where democratic principles are upheld. In reference to this, one teacher said that;

Most schools do not allow open political discussion among pupils. Such approaches make pupils not to improve public engagement of elected official with pupils. Institutions of learning must be capable of giving learners the necessary competences to face the challenges of the new millennium, together with an awareness of shared values and belonging to a common social and cultural space.

In connection with whether schools provided a secure environment where pupils were encouraged to express opinion, to debate, to practice decision making and or bring up current political events for discussion in class. Another pupil attested that;

They were punished severely for bring a political debate in class when the teacher did not come for the lesson. Sometimes even teachers fear to teach controversial issues or topics especially those bordering on political, social issues affecting citizens.

4.2.3 Skills of evaluating, taking, and defending positions

Teachers should be preoccupied with fostering skills of evaluating, taking, and defending positions among the learners so as to activate critical mind for civic engagement. When asked whether pupils had skills of evaluating, taking and defending positions, one teacher during interviews suggested that;

It would be of help to pupils to create an award or scholarship for outstanding achievement in civic education and encourage programmes such as junior president on Zambia National Broadcasting Corporation (ZNBC) and sites like www.africanleadershipacademy.org as they build confidence when talking in public, make critical reflections, tolerance as well as enhancing the philosophy of common good and co-existence. Besides there must be need to talk to legislators about increasing funding and other support for civic education and advocate for bills supporting civic learning.

Character development in civic skills and dispositions require systematic training and preparation for someone to function properly. One HoD pointed out that;

As teachers we need to understand that skills such as public speaking, taking and defending positions do not just come automatically in human beings. Hence, there is need to teach them to our learners at every level of education ladder to prepare them for societal challenges.

Following up whether pupils were adequately prepared to speak in public, debate and question authorities, one pupil suggested that;

Debate, discussions, quiz and mock trials can greatly contribute and increase pupils' efficacy in public speaking, questioning and defending positions. Also learn democratic values such as compromise, respecting other people's views at all costs. Otherwise there is need to greatly improve in this area in that most of us were not that competent.

When following whether teachers guided Pupils to develop and continue to improve their skills of evaluating, taking, and defending positions, one teacher said that;

A strong agenda is not yet created to determine the level of and set goals for the renewal of students' civic learning and preparation in schools and colleges. It is important that we do more to prepare school children for their life beyond the classroom and for the role that they will have to play as citizens of this country.

When asked whether service-learning was a popular method in the teaching of Civic education in secondary schools, one HoD suggested that;

Service-learning was not yet sustained in schools hence systematic attention must be paid in the elementary and secondary school curricula so that a solid foundation is made from the tender age through colleges and universities. We cannot assume that civic knowledge, capacities, and commitments follow automatically from completing high school, crossing the finish line in college, or entering the workforce. We the Educators need to intentionally foster this kind of learning in our students.

The conclusion drawn from the results obtained from questionnaires, interview schedule and focus group interview schedule on the variable investigate pedagogical approaches and practices that enhance service-learning in the teaching of civic education in secondary schools in Lusaka province show favourable interaction between teachers and pupils. As regards to the qualitative data some respondents felt that school need to be more democratic to allow pupils have either formal or informal political discussion affecting them in school environment. Even the verbatim illustrated above attest to this fact.

4.3 Teacher competency in engaging service-learning methods

The second research question of this study was to find out teacher competency in applying service-learning methods in the teaching of civic education in secondary schools. Several statements in the questionnaires were given to both teachers and pupils about the teacher competency in applying service-learning for active Civic Education learning. A comparative analysis is done later to show whether there would be the differences between teachers' and pupils' views on teacher competency in engaging Service-Learning methods.

Table 4.5: Pupils' responses on teacher competency in engaging service-learning methods in the teaching of civic education in secondary schools

Teacher Competence in active civic learning methods (N=84)	Mean	Std. Deviation
Oral reports by learners	1.8	0.881
Drama/ role playing in small groups	1.73	0.91
Individual projects	2.11	1.141
Group projects	2.15	1.125
Inquiry-Guided learning	2.43	1.083
Class discussion	2.99	1.036
Presentation by learners panel from the class	2.23	1.069
Allow debate on current issues by students from class	1.9	1.037
Construction of summaries by students	1.65	0.857
Interviews	1.48	0.846
Case studies	1.58	0.885
Critical thinking	2.22	1.066
Lecture strategies	2.04	1.109
Problem-solving	2.39	1.151

1= Not at all, 2= Rare Occasions, 3= Frequently, 4= Very Frequently.

The value range was from 'not at all (1)' to 'very frequently' (4). The scores of 'not at all' to 'rare occasions have been taken to present a variable which had mean scores of 0 to 2.5 on the continuous likert scale; ($0 \leq \text{mean} \leq 2.5$). The scores of 'frequently' to 'very frequently' have been taken to represent a variable with a mean score of 2.6 to 4 on the continuous Likert scale: ($2.6 \leq \text{mean} \leq 4$) and a standard deviation of >1 implies a significant difference on the impact of the variable among respondents. The results in table 4.5 indicates that on rare occasions all the indicated most listed activities were occasionally

done in exception of class discussions that had a mean of 2.9 indicating that it was frequently done. However most means had a standard deviation of more than one indicating that in some instances divergent views existed from the expected notion of responses. Apart from class discussions the pupils indicated that most of the strategies were rarely or sometimes never used at all. It is important to note that problem solving showed a mixed view.

Table 4.6: Teachers' responses on teacher competency in applying service-learning methodology in the teaching of civic education in secondary schools

Teacher Competence in active civic learning methods (N=12)	Mean	Std. Deviation
Oral reports by learners	2.75	0.866
Drama/ role playing in small groups	2.5	0.674
Individual projects	1.92	0.515
Group projects	2.42	0.996
Inquiry-Guided learning	3.08	0.793
Class discussion	3.58	0.515
Presentation by learners panel from the class	3.08	0.793
Allow debate (informal) on current issues by students from class	3.08	0.9
Construction of summaries by students	2	0.943
Interviews	1.83	0.835
Case studies	1.92	0.9
Critical thinking	3.08	0.515
Lecture strategies	3.17	0.937
Problem-solving	3.08	0.9

The value range was from ‘never (1)’ to ‘very frequently’ (4). The scores of ‘not at all’ to ‘rare occasions have been taken to present a variable which had mean score of 0 to 2.5 on the continuous likert type scale; ($0 \leq \text{mean} \leq 2.5$). The scores of ‘frequently’ to ‘very frequently’ have been taken to represent a variable with a mean score of 2.6 to 4 on the continuous Likert scale: ($2.6 \leq \text{mean} \leq 4$) and a standard deviation of >1 implies a significant difference on the impact of the variable among respondents. The results in table 4.6 indicate that case studies, interviews, summary construction, group and individual projects, and drama are activities that are rarely done in the school. This is because the means were less than or equal to 2.5 variations from the mean were also minimal this was due to the standard deviations of values than one (1). The remaining activities were reported to be at least frequently done with the mean greater than 2.5 and less variations among the responses with standard deviation of less than one.

From table 4.6 teachers indicated that individual projects were rarely used. Class discussion and critical thinking were very frequently used according to the teachers. Lecture strategies, problem solving and inquiry-guided were frequently interviews; case studies and construction of summaries were rarely and sometimes not used by the teachers at all. While pupils indicated that active civic learning methods were not or rarely engaged by teachers for classroom instructions, teachers felt that most of the strategies were used.

The following section presents the interviewees’ perceptions and views on teacher competency for teaching of service-learning in Civic Education in secondary schools in Lusaka province. Teachers and pupils were asked several questions from the interview schedule and focus group interview schedule respectively.

4.3.1 Teacher competency in active civic learning methods

Active civic learning methods are at the centre of awakening service-learning among pupils of different ages. It is the obligation of the teacher to be tactful in employing such strategies as medium of instructions. With no doubt, one HoD confirmed that;

Methods such as interviews, case studies, construction of summaries, individual projects are not common among the teachers of civic education in most secondary schools. It is for this reason that Continuous Professional Development (CPD) should be strengthened to share experiences and knowledge on such issues affecting the delivery of quality education.

This view seemed to have been supported by pupils from the schools sampled who also felt that teachers rarely engaged participatory methods in lesson delivery. The male pupil being the class monitor attested that;

Lecture method dominate class activities as sometimes teachers even give me notes to write for my fellow pupils and in most cases such notes go unexplained by the teachers impacting negatively on knowledge acquisition and interest in the subject offered by such teachers. He went on to say that such approaches are a source of problems and noise from classes as pupils become easily bored with copying notes say for 80 minutes. But if pupils are actively involved such cases are kept to minimum.

From the focus group discussion, one female pupil said that;

When teachers involve us we remember information easily and gave an example when they acted a sketch on substance abuse adding that when asked about effects of substance abuse it would be easy to recall unlike lecture notes. Therefore, teachers should try to engage pupils actively in the learning process to achieve long life learning that leave impact in the learner. Active pupil engagement stimulates critical thinking, innovation and reflection to solve societal challenge.

4.3.2 Service-learning as a civic teaching methodology

In trying to find out whether teachers were competent enough to use service-learning as a civic teaching methodology, one female pupil pointed out that;

Mostly the commonly method used are discussion, lecture and question and answer while debate and parliament are rarely used by our teachers. She went on to that I do not remember any time the teacher used interview, case study, construction of summaries or oral reports.

When asked during FGD if service-learning was a popular method of teaching Civic education in secondary schools, one pupil reluctantly said that;

Not that prominent in that we as pupils only learn to pass examinations '*kwasila*' finish". The application part is not that emphasised by both our teachers and parents as long as you pass tests and examinations then it is a done deal.

Service- learning requires strong collaboration among stakeholders to implement and realise its benefits. In responding to whether teachers had competencies in using service-learning as a civic teaching method, one male teacher lamented that;

Lack of use of active civic learning methods was due to school arrangement concerning timetable of 40 minutes and afternoon classes adding that such methods require a lot of time and careful planning. He went on to say that there are less incentives to encourage us to actively engage participatory methods as school management every time complain that the school has no money but when it comes for sports huge sums of money are given.

The view that had just been expressed seemed to have been supported by a number of teachers in separate interviews. There is need for mutual collaboration among the school stakeholders to enhance and support service-learning in secondary schools. Another female teacher bitterly complained that;

School management do not help with necessary support to encourage teachers use active methods for example we see school buses going in town even for more than four (4) times a day but when we request for a bus for education tour or to attend a court session the answer is there is no fuel or no money. She further said such answers put the teachers off to actively employ active learning methods. It is evidently clear that even pupils get excited to move away from the usual classroom arrangement and concentration and knowledge retention is high when pupils are exposed to experiential learning within the community of practice or outside school premises.

The HoD with vast experience in teaching the subject also shared similar sentiments with other teachers on the use of interactive teaching methods. The HoDs had the following to say;

Our teachers face many problems during their work (low student learning motivation, inadequate experience of using interactive methods, the overloaded textbook is difficult for the students to understand, short teaching time, lack of materials and supplies, cooperation with local self-administrative bodies, communities are not supportive, the school principal and other administrators complain about the noise when we use interactive methods)

After cross-checking the data from teachers and pupils, responses were affirmatively agreeable that teachers did not or rarely engaged active civic learning methods in the

teaching of service-learning in secondary schools. While teachers had a fair rating of engaging such methods, pupils who are recipients of learning instructions clearly indicated in both quantitative and qualitative data sets that there was weak engagement of active learning methods in secondary schools. The fair rating among teachers could mean that they were aware of such methods but they were not engaging them as medium of instructions to the pupils.

4.4 Public Deliberations among Pupils

The third research question of this study was to; investigate the extent to which pupils applied essential competencies needed for public deliberations through service-learning. There were a number of statements given in the table from which the pupils and teachers were supposed to rate the level of public deliberations to help address this research question.

Table 4.7: Pupils' responses on public deliberations among pupils

	Std.	
Public Deliberation among pupils (N=84)	Mean	Deviation
Pupils have interest and disposition in public and political life	2.6	1.019
Pupils vote for a class representative and take part in decision-making in the running of the school	1.88	1.166
Civil society and NGOs share information e.g. dangers of early marriages, environmental degradation at you school	1.84	1.11
Pupils petition, speak, or testify before public bodies, join ad-hoc advocacy groups, and forming coalitions	1.51	0.843
Pupils participate at student assembly discussion, contest for class representative, school parliament, and or council	1.88	1.109
Attend parliament or court session	1.34	0.476
Pupils participate in voluntary groups to help community and charity organisations	1.92	1.044
Government institutions such as ACC, DEC, and CCPC have links with your school	2.31	1.229
Question the local or constituency representatives	1.42	0.779

1= never, 2= Partial, 3= strong, 4=very strong.

The value range was from ‘never (1)’ to ‘very strong’ (4). The scores of ‘never’ to ‘partial’ have been taken to present a variable which had mean score of 0 to 2.5 on the continuous likert type scale; ($0 \leq \text{mean} \leq 2.5$). The scores of ‘strong’ to ‘very strong’ have been taken to represent a variable with a mean score of 2.6 to 4 on the continuous Likert scale: ($2.6 \leq \text{mean} \leq 4$) and a standard deviation of >1 implies a significant difference on the impact of the variable among respondents. The results in table 4.7 indicates that in exception of Pupils having interest and disposition in public and political life, the remaining statements indicated in the table were never or partially done. This is evident with the low means in the table that range from 1 to 2.5. It is important to note that some of the most statements had much variation in responses this is due to the high standard deviations. Apart from pupils having interest and disposition in public and political life which had a rate of strong, most responses ranged from 1= never to 2= partial confirming that public deliberations among the pupils was very weak.

Table 4.8: Teacher’s responses on public deliberations among pupils

	Mean	Std. Deviation
Public Deliberation among pupils (N=12)		
Pupils have interest and disposition in public and political life	3.17	0.577
Pupils vote for a class representative and take part in decision-making in the running of the school	3	0.853
Pupils petition, speak, or testify before public bodies, join ad-hoc advocacy groups, and forming coalitions	1.92	0.9
Pupils participate at student assembly discussion, contest for class representative, school parliament, and or council	3	0.953
Attend parliament or court session	2	0.853
Question the local or constituency representatives	1.17	0.577
Government institutions such as ACC, DEC, and CCPC have links with your school	2.83	0.835
Pupils participate in voluntary groups to help community and charity organisations	2.25	0.965

The value range was from ‘never (1)’ to ‘very strong’ (4). The scores of ‘never’ to ‘partial’ have been taken to present a variable which had mean score of 0 to 2.5 on the continuous

likert type scale; ($0 \leq \text{mean} \leq 2.5$). The scores of 'strong' to 'very strong' have been taken to represent a variable with a mean score of 2.6 to 4 on the continuous Likert scale: ($2.6 \leq \text{mean} \leq 4$) and a standard deviation of >1 implies a significant difference on the impact of the variable among respondents. All the responses shown indicate that there was no much variation in the responses given by the teachers. This is due to the low standard deviation (less than one). Table 4.8 shows that a good number of teachers felt that pupils participated in student assembly discussions, contest for class representative and or school parliament. It is however cardinal to note that almost all teachers indicated that the pupils never question the local constituency representatives. A good number of teachers indicated that government institutions have strong links with the school. There was a mixed view on the pupils' participation in voluntary groups to help community and charity organisations.

This section presents research question three on the interviewees' perceptions and views on public deliberations among the pupils for service-learning. And among the themes that emerged under this were pupils questioning elected and non-elected officials, attending parliament or court sessions and school partnership with government institutions.

4.4.1 Pupils questioning elected and non-elected officials

It is important to note that during deliberation, participants consider relevant facts from multiple points of view, converse with one another to think critically about options before them and enlarge their perspectives, opinions, and understandings. One teacher during interview lamented that;

It was sad that the elected officials are too remote from schools and pupils; they rarely visit schools and talk to learners. This engagement requires that young people are educated for Citizenship and that they develop a range of knowledge, skills and dispositions. They need to know about politics, law, economics, the functioning of communities and social groups and their responsibilities in terms of these communities and groups. And they need to feel confident in applying this knowledge; they need a 'toolkit' of Citizenship skills: investigating, communicating, participating, negotiating and taking responsible action be critically, effective, rather than merely active.

From onset, pupils should be made to know that community do not exist in isolation with its members thus there was need to stimulate interest among pupils in political, social and economic. One pupil said that;

Local or constituency representatives, local government and elected officials do not provide information to schools on local issues and how to participate instead they preach that politics is a dirt game. This kind of message scares away young people from participating in politics with such notions. Indeed, parliament should consider its role in consistently developing civic education resources and the different curriculum approaches across the country. It should work closely with other organisations to support more training for teachers, and more and better materials for young people.

4.4.2 Attend Parliament or court session

Preparations of pupils for future roles require robust and collaborative efforts. The teachers need to be creative and innovative to inspire their learners to work beyond selfish interest. In trying to find out whether pupils were attending parliament or court sessions, the teacher said that;

There are rare occasions when learners were engaged to volunteer to judge mock trials and serve on Model United Nations or parliament. Schools as mini communities were not doing enough to stimulate pupils' interest in attending parliament or court session. To be honest, very little happened in reference to this question. However, it should be remembered that gatherings of pupils and young people to attend parliament and court sessions has the potential of improving academic performance, learn about discipline, relationships, values, motivation and may help achieve personal aspirations in later life.

However, all the teachers from the sampled schools who were asked about pupils attending parliament or court sessions had similar sentiments. Although they had expressed the same view in different ways, their sentiments seemed to echo what the above teacher said. One HoD from a boys' secondary was of the idea that;

Teachers rarely plan and create students' outreach programmes that connect students to learning experiences in the courts and volunteer to coordinate field trips to the court. At all levels, I think education has a positive role. It can knockdown prejudices; build understanding between individuals and communities; empower deprived groups; and encourage a climate of opinion, open, respectful debate.

This view seemed to have been supported by a good number of pupils who were taking Civic Education and in supporting this view, one girl during FGD suggested that;

Courts can recruit volunteers to assist with civic learning projects at schools in collaboration with teachers as well as school management I have said so because we do not see that happening. This is in the quest to bring such institutions closer to the learners and begin to see them as part of the solutions to the challenges and success of society.

4.4.3 School partnership with government institutions

This comment came from a teacher who has been teaching Civic education since its inception. When he was asked in a separate interview about school partnership with governmental and non-governmental organisations he said that;

Government institutions and community organizations rarely Pre-register student voters and to do voter education at high schools as well as educate parents and policy makers about the need for civic education. It is clear that such institutions can offer civic education for families, support and advocate for the state policy changes recommendations. They too can advocate with local schools and districts, state and district boards of education and state legislators to implement active learning in Civic Education that enhance service-learning. I can confirm that some government and non-governmental organisations and or institutions are in good partnership with our school.

In support of the above sentiments, one boy during FGD was of the view that;

Government institutions and community organizations must be seen active to offer internships and service-learning experiences for pupils. Understanding the role and operation of Parliament and Government in our democracy is an important part of civic education. Pupils learn about the institutions, issues, and practices of our democracy and how citizens can become involved in their community. Thus we need strong partnership with governmental and non-governmental institutions to enhance pupils' deliberation in public issues.

Deliberations enable groups of pupils and/ or citizens to come together in a non-coercive environment to learn about, discuss, and ultimately render their recommendations for action to public officials. The HoD explained that;

To succeed in this enterprise, we need strong leadership from educators, policy leaders, and key stakeholders from business, philanthropy, labour, and government respective sphere of influence to mobilize the needed leadership and chart a direction for a new era of civic learning and engagement. We have articulated both an educational vision and an action agenda to make civic learning not just a shared priority but an achievement.

Another HoD from a different school clearly stated that;

Through public dialogues, pupils and residents can gain awareness of specific issues, change their individual behaviours, build trust among one another, and restore positive social interactions. By listening and sharing personal stories, individuals have an opportunity to question their beliefs and perhaps modify some of them. Indeed service learning is a means to teach problem solving skills, it assist students in learning more about themselves and their capacities, it fosters collaborative learning and civic responsibility while it enhances relationships between an educational institution and the surrounding community.

The conclusion drawn from the results obtained from the themes such as pupils questioning elected and non-elected officials, pupils attending parliament and court sessions and school partnership with government institutions on the variable clearly show that there were weak public deliberations among the pupils. Issues such attending court sessions, questioning elected and non-elected officials were almost none existence as can be noted from both quantitative data represented by mean and standard deviation and verbatim from the emerging themes.

4.5 Summary

Based on the three research questions that this chapter has presented the findings that were arrived at through both qualitative and quantitative data sets strongly suggested that there was weak service learning in the teaching of Civic Education in sampled secondary schools in the study. The findings had shown that active civic learning methods were rarely used by teachers and this had been confirmed by the findings. It is also evidently clear that public deliberations among the learners were also not showing any good impression to reckon on. The school was cited as being undemocratic enough to allow pupils to debate political issues as well as public issues of interest be it formal or informal. There was also a gap between theory and practice as teachers seemed to be aware of active or participatory methods but they were rarely being practiced in everyday execution of

learning instructions to enhance service-learning. It was also noted that strong collaborations among critical stakeholders such school management, policy makers, educators, community and private sector was needed to ensure coordination for service-learning to thrive and create the society where public life was respected and civic life become the norm. Indeed, the practice of deliberation was the cornerstone of democratic and community politics. The next chapter is a discussion of the findings that have been presented in this chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

5.0 Overview

This chapter presents a discussion of the findings and their implications on service- learning and teaching of Civic Education. The findings are discussed in relation to the research objectives and the existing knowledge on service- learning and teaching of civic education with existing theories. The discussion of findings from the pupils has been integrated with those from Civic Education teachers and heads of department social sciences.

5.1 Pedagogical approaches and practices

Often times, teachers encourage pupils to express their opinions as can be seen from table 4.3 and table 4.4. From these data sets it can be deduced that in and outside classroom interactions are favourable to stimulate service- learning in secondary schools as most of frequencies from respondents centred on option rated 3 the second highest from option 4 representing the mean of ≥ 3 . It is noted that to achieve active civic learning Civic education teachers should involve pupils actively in their acquisition of knowledge, skills, and virtues. Examples of active learning include systematic concept learning, analysis of case studies, development of decision-making skills, cooperative learning tasks, and the interactive group discussions that are associated with teaching civic virtues through literary study. This is in consistency with Muleya (2015) who clearly stated that the use of service-learning fits very well in Civic Education because it encourages learners to act not as solitary individuals who are being taught alongside other solitary individuals but teaches learners to learn how to engage, discuss, experiment, case study, make presentation, dialogue, analyse and evaluate situations. Intellectually active learning, in contrast to passive learning, appears to be associated with higher levels of achievement. Furthermore, it enables students to develop skills and processes needed for independent inquiry and civic decision making throughout a lifetime. These are capacities of citizenship needed to make a constitutional democracy work.

5.2.1 Interest in civic participation in the wider community and at school

The interviews and FGD from the subsequent subheadings of the themes confirmed the need to engage pupils in more active civic participation so that pupils become more relevant to the community where they belong. Teachers should emphasize cooperative learning in small groups, which requires students to work together to achieve a common objective. Through this cooperative learning activity, students develop various participatory skills and the civic virtues associated with them. Learners involved regularly in cooperative learning situations tend to develop such skills as leadership, conflict resolution, compromise, negotiation, and constructive criticism (Slavin, 1991). Civic learning provides compelling, motivating and challenging experiences that can keep children in school. Civic learning, beginning in elementary and middle school with a focus on civic responsibility, reduces student's likelihood of dropping out of high school (Starks, 2010). Civic learning not only enhances knowledge of economic and political processes, it provides opportunities for youth to apply academic concepts in real-life settings work collaboratively in teams and engage with professional role models. Moreover, students should be aware of what the learning possibilities are, and be confident of and believe in their learning abilities to meet schooling system requirements. It is the teachers' task to illustrate the learning process and its ends, as well as to encourage student participation in "developing understanding".

5.2.2 Schools not Democratic

From the emerged themes, the school was cited as not being more democratic to allow pupils have formal or informal discussions within school premises. This revelation was against Dewey's theory on the role of schools. As Dewey saw matters in 1916, schools should become ever more porous spaces linked to ever changing communities and function to enable students to develop shared interests; learn in an atmosphere of freedom and participation, and engage with a curriculum based on their own interests and experience (Stanton, Giles and Cruz, 1999). It is from this premise that civic learning should build a positive school climate, which in turn has a positive impact on a wide array of outcomes for students, ranging from academic achievement to personal character. Respectful dialogue about controversial issues is foundational to a positive school climate. The

benefits of civic learning in one classroom can help shape the norms of other classrooms and the school more broadly.

One way to teach democracy is to provide opportunities to practice it in schools and communities. Both academic content and process; civic knowledge, virtues and skills must be taught and learned together to fulfil the mission of civic education, which is the development of individuals with the capacity to establish, maintain and improve democratic governance and citizenship in their country and throughout the world (Mihai, 2014). This can be accomplished by using participatory methods and active learning so that students experience participation in a real democracy. Only if civic education programs are well-designed and well taught, if they use participatory methods, stress learning by doing and focus on issues that have direct relevance to participants' daily lives, it can have a significant and positive impact on democratic participation and attitudes.

In any way, schools fulfil that responsibility through formal and informal education beginning in the earliest years and continuing through entire educational process. Formal education provide a basic understanding of civic life, politics and government, while informal education should enable citizens to understand the workings of their own and other political systems, as well as the relationship of the politics and government of their own country through "extra" or co-curricular activities. In any way, more interactive, cooperative and participatory learning activities in the classroom and out-of-school are needed for students in order to assist them in developing essential skills for democracy, stimulate their civic interests and improve their knowledge and skills, as well as their sense of efficacy (Youniss, 2011). In the other hand, participatory methods require well-informed and skilled teachers who are able to improve the quality of democracy. Unfortunately, in many cases, teachers are simply assigned to teach civic education for which they have no interest, experience or qualification. Appropriate teacher training is necessary to ensure the development of civic education.

5.2.3 Skills of evaluating, taking, and defending positions

From the emerged themes from the interviews and focus group discussions it was observed that skills of evaluating, taking, and defending positions still need more attention so as to create a cadre of citizens with critical and open minded. It must be remembered that critical

pedagogy is not concerned simply with offering students new ways to think critically and act with authority as agents in the classroom, it is also concerned with providing teachers and students with the skills and knowledge to expand their capacities to both question deep-seated assumptions and myths that legitimate the most archaic and disempowering social practices that structure every aspect of society and to take responsibility for intervening in the world. In other words, critical pedagogy forges critique and agency through a language of scepticism and possibility. Mitchell (2008) attested that central to the very definition of critical pedagogy is a common concern for reforming schools and developing modes of pedagogical practice in which teachers and students become critical agents actively questioning and negotiating the relationship between theory and practice, critical analysis and common sense, and learning and social change.

It is assumed that if learners would think critically and act effectively and virtuously in response to a public issue, they must understand the terms of the issue, its origins, the alternative responses to it, and the likely consequences of these responses. This understanding is based upon their knowledge and the applications of this knowledge to explain, evaluate, and resolve a public issue depends upon the cognitive process skills of the learners. Thus, this research was in agreement with Dewey (1939) who proposed that learning is a socially constructed, community based process. Hence, learning is in relationship between people and environment with full participation in communities of practice and utilization of resources.

5.2 Competency of teachers to engage service-learning methods

It is an undeniable fact that teachers play a crucial role in supporting the learning experience of young people and adult learners. The conjoining of content and process in teaching and learning of civic knowledge, skills, and virtues has become central in the teaching of civic education. Mulenga (2015) clearly stated that central to any discussion of teacher preparation is a judgement about what content knowledge and skills teachers possess so that they are able to teach effectively. In their development of curricula and classroom lessons, teachers should recognize that civic virtues and skills, intellectual and participatory, are inseparable from a body of civic knowledge or content. Teachers' competency to use service-learning as a civic teaching methodology

As can be observed from table 4.5 for pupils' responses on the use of active or participatory methods by civic education teachers, the mean ($1 \leq \text{mean} \leq 2.5$) which concentrated on options of 1= not at all, 2= rare occasions, clearly showed that such methods are rarely put to use as a means to give instructions to learners. Most statistical data indicated that such critical methods are rarely used. However when cross checking table 4.6 for Teachers responses claimed to participate in most of these activities while the pupils claimed that only class discussions were significantly done. This may be interpreted that there is gap between theory and practice as teachers may be aware of the methodology but were not being practiced. Pupils who were the recipients of such knowledge showed that such methodologies are not a common feature of lesson delivery among the teachers. Though in different subject, on teacher competency, this study is consistent with the findings of Mulenga (2015) who concluded that student teachers and graduate teachers did not have sound understanding of the subject matter they were to teach and pedagogical knowledge and skills to effectively teach English language in secondary schools.

Further, findings from this study are in line with the national education reports which criticized the passive, impersonal nature of instructional methodologies and called for a pedagogy that was more active and involving, that enabled learners to take more responsibility for their education, and that brought them into direct contact with the subjects of their study (National Centre for Educational Statistics, 2010). Unfortunately, a number of teachers as the findings showed seem not to appreciate/ share this view as traditional methods of teaching were frequently employed as medium of instructions to the learners.

A range of classroom activities and instructional tools are often listed as supporting active and experiential learning, including (but not limited to): fieldwork, trigger films, case studies, laboratory projects, problems sets, guest speakers, projects on actual policy proposals, debates, media and internet assignments, journal writing, and in simulations. More recent additions to this list, and specifically in the area of European Studies, are problem-based learning, blended learning, and the utilization of various social networks exercises in today's technologically advanced classrooms (Maurer and Neuhold 2014; Klymenko 2014; Mihai 2014; and, Farneti et al 2014). It is from this point of view that teachers must be treated as a critical public resource, essential not only to the importance of an empowering educational experience for students but also the formation of a democratic society. At the institutional level, this means giving teachers an opportunity to

exercise power over the conditions of their work. We cannot separate what teachers do from the economic and political conditions that shape their work, that is, their academic labour. This means they should have both the time and the power to institute structural conditions that allow them to produce curriculum, collaborate with parents, conduct research, and work with communities.

5.2.1 Service-learning in secondary schools

Theme 4.5.2 indicated that service-learning was not a common feature both to teachers and pupils. Teachers should be given the freedom to shape the school curricula, engage in shared research with other teachers and with others outside of the school, and to play a central role in the governance of the school and their labour (Pasek, Feldman, Romer and Jamieson, 2008). Educational empowerment for teachers cannot be separated from issues of power and governance. Educators should be valued as public intellectuals who connect critical ideas, traditions, disciplines, and values to the public realm of everyday life. Further these scholars Pasek, et al (2008) employed educators at the same time to assume the responsibility of connecting their work to larger social issues, while raising questions about what it means to provide students with the skills they need to write policy papers, be resilient against defeat, analyse social problems, and learn the tools of democracy, and learning how to make a difference in one's life as a social agent.

Freire (1970) Critical pedagogy, unlike dominant modes of teaching, insists that one of the fundamental tasks of educators is to make sure that the future points the way to a more socially just world, a world in which the discourses of critique and possibility in conjunction with the values of reason, freedom and equality function to alter, as part of a broader democratic project, the grounds upon which life is lived. Mulenga (2015) convincingly argued that the rationale for the competency-based teacher education curriculum design forces teacher educators to take a hard look at what their curriculum is designed to accomplish and to review carefully the way they go about accomplishing it.

Best practices in service learning include a combination of classroom instruction through which students gain the necessary foundational and professional skills, and experience and action on genuine community needs (Eyler, Giles, Stenson and Gray (2001). Through this combined approach students are able to take their knowledge bases and apply them to address an array of societal problems. The application of this pedagogy includes the offering of structured time for students to step back and reflect on their hands-on

experience in the community setting and consider their roles and responsibilities as citizens of a society.

According to Elyer and Giles (1999) quality service-learning experiences include the following ; curricula and projects that are sustainable and developed in partnership with the community; activities that are meaningful to students learning and country needs; clear and relevant connection to community activities to course learning objectives and purposeful challenges for participants to grapple with diversity and social issues. Service-learning is characterised as the interplay of service and learning not only within individual course settings but also within the broader academic institutional goals of community engagement.

5.3 The level of public deliberations in Service-learning among the pupils

The third objective of this paper was to; investigate the application of some essential competencies for public deliberations in service-learning among the pupils. Deliberation connects people, even those with conflicting interests, in a way that allows them to make decisions and act in regard to problems or challenging circumstances. Deliberation can also reveal new possibilities for action that individuals alone did not see before.

Participation can take many forms, and there are numerous ways in which learners, families and communities can make a difference. Voting is one of our most important rights and responsibilities, but registering to vote and voting on Election Day are not enough. The health of our democracy depends on our schools producing informed voters and community members who value the importance of civic life. Commission on Youth Voting and Civic Knowledge (2013) stated that civic engagement includes speaking to the school board, writing to congressional representatives, serving on a jury, collaborating with neighbours on local improvement projects, understanding and debating current events and helping others.

Just at a glance from the tabulations regarding the mean of ($1 \leq \text{mean} \leq 2.6$) and standard deviation $0.45 \leq SD \leq 1.22$ on the table 4.7, one is able to tell that responses concentrated on the never and partial showing clearly that public deliberations among the learners was very insignificant. From the table it was clear that pupils significantly indicated less or no participation and involvement in the activities of public deliberations. Questions such as pupils attend parliament or court session; question the local or constituency

representatives show how alienated pupils are from engaging in active political and social matters. It must be remembered that the future of the republic and the world over depends on whether or not the next generation was prepared for informed and engaged democratic citizenship. These low levels of pupils' participation confirm Klymenko's observation that in many fledgling democracies, low participation, intolerance, political ignorance, and alienation are major systemic problems (Klymenko, 2014). However, citizenship requires both knowledge about government and the ability to be involved in governance. It means knowing how to identify and inform yourself about issues, explore and evaluate possible solutions, and then act to resolve problems. It demands that you know how to interact respectfully with others. And citizenship asks that one accept responsibility for meeting community's and the nation's challenges.

5.3.1 Pupils interest and disposition in public and political life

As observed from the interviews and FGD it was clear that pupils were interested in political issues but older generations have made it difficult to allow pupils participate in public matters. Mostly, politics have been defined as a dirt game distancing pupils from engaging into such activities. On the other hand, proponents of involving youth in deliberation assert that youth are too often excluded from important decision-making activities, which contribute to feelings of marginalization and undermines notions of deliberative democracy (Frank, 2006). It is from this background that all learners must be prepared adequately to participate in a country's civic life and to achieve its democratic ideals for all citizens. Starks (2010) insisted that in high-quality civic learning, students learn to think critically, develop research skills, assess and synthesize information and present coherent arguments based on data. To put these skills into practice, they work with others in groups, organize activities in their communities and speak persuasively in public. They also develop common shared values about opportunity, fairness and tolerance and an understanding that their actions can have an impact, especially when people work together.

To ensure that pupils and youth engage productively in institutional decision-making, a variety of efforts should be made to enhance their understanding of policy issues, develop the skills needed to engage in effective dialogue, and create opportunities for youth engagement in decision making processes. Such skills are well developed and acquired from schools through active interactions in the teaching/ learning processes. Following the

writings of John Dewey, full deliberation includes a careful examination of a problem or issue, the identification of possible solutions, the establishment or reaffirmation of evaluative criteria, and the use of these criteria in identifying an optimal solution.

In short, preparing learners of all ages for informed, engaged participation in the civic and democratic life of our communities, states, and nation is not just essential it is entirely consistent with the over-arching national goals of increasing student achievement; with closing achievement gaps. It is prudent that business, Civic and Community Leaders offer internships for students or volunteer to be a guest speaker at a school or to serve in a mock trial or Model United Nations so that pupils are stimulated to identified themselves with the community in which they a part. Through deliberative information processing models of citizen engagement, participants come to a shared understanding of underlying issues and trade-offs and, as a result, are collectively prepared to make substantively better policy recommendations (Jones, 1994: 21). Such processes can reduce friction and competition between interests, and citizens experience greater satisfaction with the process when agencies ensure that public input is accounted for and reflected in the final decisions.

5.3.2 School partnership with government institutions and civil society

Cross checking the data in table 4.7 and table 4.8 pupils felt that school partnership with governmental institutions and civil society was partial while the teachers indicated that partnership was strong. However, there was a positive sign of better partnerships between government institutions and schools especially in HIV and AIDS, Anti-corruption, drug enforcement commission. It is evident the a very strong collaboration was needed as the world outside of school is the laboratory for civic learning, and civic learning cannot flourish without active participation from local government, the courts, businesses, non-profits, community organizations and families (Starks, 2010). Students need to get out of the school building to practice civic engagement, and civic leaders need to come into schools to engage students. Central to this mission is the establishment of training programmes to enhance the capacities of leaders of civic education programmes in programme planning, budgeting, networking, administration, implementation, curriculum development, evaluation, and tasks related to systemic implementation of civic education.

It is essential that faculty engage the community-based experts in all aspects of course development. Indeed these community leaders are very interested in helping to shape and achieve learning goals and experiences for our students. This three sided partnership between faculty, students and community members creates a dynamic unique to service learning and one that forges essential links between our schools and the citizens within communities and the citizens we educate (Hart and Donnelly, 2007).

5.3.3 Pupils attend parliament, court session or question elected officials.

Data from questionnaires for both pupils and teachers testify that pupils are alienated from participating in political matters as presented in tables 4.7 and 4.8. Questions such as questioning elected officials and attending court sessions did not give a good picture in such deliberations. Gains in critical thinking occur when individuals are able to critically consider reality and tolerate perplexity (Dewey, 1933; Freire, 1993). Critical thinking abilities appear essential to cultural competence, i.e., the cultural awareness, knowledge, intelligence, and sensitivity one brings to any situation. Service-Learning in this case may serve as one creative approach to build on cultural awareness and acceptance and to facilitate engagement and critical thinking skills.

Deliberation deepens a basic tenet of democracy: that place citizens closer to the affairs of government strengthens representation, transparency, and accountability, and can improve results. According to Sanders (1997:367), broadening participation in deliberation is more than a matter of redistributing the skills of argumentation; explicit attention to group dynamics and strategies are needed “to undercut the dominance of higher-status individuals, for the democratic hope of deliberation is that it produces mutual respect”.

The most critical distinction between deliberative forms of public participation and traditional techniques of public engagement is that deliberation emphasizes information processing (meaning-making) as much as information exchange (upstream and downstream communication). Deliberative democracy advances richer forms of public participation that engage citizens in structured dialogue around focused policy issues, yielding benefits to participants and sponsors that extend well beyond the collection of useful information. Democratic deliberation augments participants’ levels of knowledge about issues, cultivates trust, builds civic capacity, and, over the long term, may increase general levels of civic engagement and political participation.

Through public deliberation, residents can discuss problems in their area, identify solutions, mobilize for local problem solving, and strengthen their relationships with public officials (Sanders, 1997). Success requires mobilizing citizens to engage in deliberation and often to take action following deliberation. It requires building civic organizations that can sponsor and facilitate public deliberation over controversial issues and community problems as they arise over time. More fundamental, deliberative initiatives often aim at quite different problems with democratic governance repairing social fabric, improving public judgment, bridging gaps between communities and government, holding government officials accountable, and mobilizing civic resources and energies. Consistency with the current research done by Muleya (2015) this study also confirmed that service-learning in secondary schools is weak. This kind of scenario is making public deliberations and good life a nightmare among the youth considering weak civic responsibility and engagement. This research holds value to Dewey (1922) who proposed that educated citizens demonstrate habits of engaged participation in the work of democracy. Educational attainment is balanced by the public responsibilities of using content expertise to improve communities, both locally and globally (Colby, et al., 2000).

5.6 Summary

Service-Learning (SL) is an increasingly accepted tool that can provide culturally-relevant teaching and deep, experiential learning. John Dewey advocated that a school is a democratic institution and, thus, should be a place where service and participatory citizenship are the norm (Stanton, Giles, and Cruz, 1999). Therefore, civic engagement is designed to increase students' understanding of the environmental, sociological, and political contexts of issues and theories addressed in the classroom. It helps sustain a high level of curiosity and enthusiasm as students encounter new, often challenging ideas. It encourages students to see their own intellectual work as valuable. It is predicated upon their attitudes and values, knowledge, habits, and political behaviour. It also is influenced by the clarity and intention of course instructors. Service-learning as a teaching technique requires that the faculty and students welcome community experts into the role as teachers. Faculty must be willing to view themselves as co-teachers with their community-based counterparts and students must be willing to shed their traditional style of learning to become active rather than passive learners in the service learning setting.

From the analysis done on the three objectives of this research, Dewey's theory to service learning remain relevant by explaining that learning takes into consideration not only the curriculum of the course, but the learning acquired through the participation in activities. In addition, Dewey situates the principle of interaction as the starting point for service-learning, where learning is the result of the interaction between the internal and objective aspects of experience (Carver, 2001; Eyler and Giles, 1994). Dewey's notions of situational learning also lend themselves to a theory of service-learning, where learning results from a transaction between the individual and the environment (Eyler and Giles, 1994). Carver (2001) directly links the student's community service experience central and serving as both a process and an outcome (Carver, 2001).

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.0 Overview

This chapter presents the conclusion of the study and recommendations drawn from the findings of the study. The study was conducted to assess service-learning in the teaching of Civic Education in three selected public secondary schools in Lusaka province.

6.1 The Main Research Findings and Conclusions

As a reminder to the reader, this study was looking at the assessment of service-learning in the teaching of Civic Education in secondary schools. The problem that was identified for investigation in this study was that of having little documentation about Service-Learning and its application and implementation in Zambian secondary schools. The summary of the main findings are presented here below as guided by the research questions:

The conclusion drawn from the results obtained on the variable to investigate pedagogical approaches and practices that enhance service-learning in the teaching of civic education in secondary schools in Lusaka province show the mean of three. This gives a good indicator of interactions between teachers and learners both in and outside classroom. Arising from the findings, it can be concluded that the level of service-learning was minimal. Such methods were rarely practices or engaged as form of instructions in classroom lowering pragmatic nature of learning and knowing. There was lack of positive active public deliberations among the learners towards issues of public concern and participation in politics. Politics has been ill labelled by the older generation as a dirty game hence, alienating political participation from secondary school pupils and the youth in general which service-learning should help address if fully institutionalised.

The three sampled schools in this study therefore failed short of their expectation to offer service-learning to their pupils regarding the specifications of the social learning theory as propounded by Dewey and later by Kolb. While the findings from this small, purposive sample cannot be generalized to the youth population at large, they complement survey data by providing a more nuanced picture of the aspirations, values, choices, and strategies followed by young Zambians as they move from school to work to offer service to the community at large.

6.2 Recommendations

1. Since it was revealed that service-learning was weak, programme, and financial supports for Service-Learning in secondary and primary Education should be initiated and intensified by the Ministry of General Education. Policy at all levels should support high-quality service-learning experiences in primary and secondary education. It must be aligned with the various cultures, conditions, and structures of public education.
2. Arising from the minimal engagement of active civic learning methods among the teachers it is recommended that pre-service and in-service teacher education programmes be established by the Ministry of General Education and Ministry of Higher Education in collaboration with teacher education institutions to develop the capacity of teachers to provide high quality instructions in service-learning. Hence, there is need to provide on-going in-service professional development on service-learning for teachers at all levels, from novice to veteran.
3. The study revealed that civic deliberations and participation to achieve civic life was still weak. Therefore, there was need to rebalance and reclaim the public purpose of education hence the Ministry of General Education should ensure that the people who work in schools; teachers, support staff, administrators help learners build lives of great purpose and potential by instilling essential knowledge and skills, including critical reasoning, problem-solving and the ability to work with others, and by promoting civic participation to achieve civic life.
4. It was discovered that politics had been alienated from pupils at secondary school level thus Ministry of General Education need to increase opportunities to showcase, recognize, and reward youths as well as expanding and supporting a national network of youth leaders for service-learning. For service-learning to take hold in schools and have the desired impact, adults and youths alike need to embrace its full potential for all learners to be partners and leaders in their schools and communities.

6.3 Recommendations for Future Research

1. Further studies should be done to cover grant aided and private schools in order to have a comparative data in the teaching of service-learning in secondary schools.
2. A study should be done on a large scale to cover the whole Lusaka province so that the picture of service-learning offered in the whole province can be ascertained.
3. A study should be done to assess service-learning in the teaching of Civic Education in Colleges of Education.

REFERENCES

- Arendt, H. (1958). *The Origins of Totalitarianism: The Human Condition on Revolution*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Babbie, E. (2000). *The Practice of Social Research*. 11th ed. Tsinghua: Tsinghua University Press
- Bachner, J. (2010). *From Classroom to Voting Booth: The Effect of High School Civic Education on Turnout*. Retrieved on 16th December 2015 from: <http://www.gov.harvard.edu/files>
- Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a Unifying Theory of Behavioural Change. *Psychological Review*, 84, 191-215.
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The Exercise of Control*. New York: W. H.
- Battistoni, R. M. (1997). Service Learning and Democratic Citizenship. *Theory into Practice*, 36 (3). 150-156.
- Biesta, G.J. J. (2011). *Learning Democracy in School and Society: Education, Lifelong Learning, and the Politics of Citizenship*. Rotterdam: Sense publishers
- Branson, M.S. (1998). *The Role of Civic Education: A Forthcoming Education Policy Task Force Position Paper from the Communitarian Network*. New York: Centre for Civic
- Bringle, R. G. & Hatcher, J. A. (1999). Reflection in service learning: Making meaning of experience. *Educational Horizons*, 77(4), 179-185.
- Bridgeland, J., Dilulio, Jr., J., & Morison, K. (2006). *The Silent Epidemic: Perspectives of High School Dropouts*. Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation. Retrieved on 10th January, 2016 from: <https://docs.gatesfoundation>.
- Brock, K. L. & Cameron, J.B. (1999). "Enlivening Political Science Courses with Kolb's Learning Preference Model." *PS: Political Science and Politics* 32(June): 251-298.
- Bruner, J. (1961). *The Process of Education*. New York: Vintage Books/Random House.
- Burnett, J. A., Long, L. L., & Horne, H. L. (2005). Service Learning for Counsellors: Integrating Education, Training, and the Community. *Journal of Humanistic Counselling, Education, and Development*, 44, 158-167.
- Butts, F. R. (1980). *The Revival of Civic Learning: A Rationale for Citizenship Education in American Schools*. Bloomington: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation. Cambridge: University of Cambridge Press.

- Centre for Civic Education (1994). *National standards for civics and government*. Calabasas: Centre for Civic Education.
- Colby, A. (2008). 'The Place of Political Learning in College,' *Peer Review Issue* Freeman.
- Colby, A. Ehrlich, T., Beaumont, E., Rosner, J. & Stephens, J. (2000). Higher Education and the Development of Civic Responsibility. In T. Ehrlich (Ed.), *Civic Responsibility and Higher Education* (pp. xxi – xliii). Phoenix: Oryx Press.
- Colby, A., Ehrlich, T., Beaumont, E., & Stephens, J. (2003). Educating Undergraduates for Responsible Citizenship. *Change, November/December*, 40-48.
- Colby, A., Beaumont, E., Ehrlich, T., & Corngold, J. (2007). *Educating for Democracy*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Cone, D. & Harris, S. (1996). 'Service-learning Practice, Developing a Theoretical Framework'' *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning*, 3, 31-43
- Coles, R. (1993). *The Call of Service: A Witness to Idealism*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Commission on Youth Voting and Civic Knowledge. (2013). *All Together Now: Collaboration and Innovation for Youth Engagement*. Retrieved from http://www.civicyouth.org/wp-content/uploads/16th April 2016
- Connors, K., Kirk Henry, J. & Seifer, S. D. (2000). "Improving the Preparation of Nursing Professionals through Community-campus Partnerships," in Gott, M. (ed). *Nursing Practice, Policy and Change*. New York: Radcliffe Medical Press.
- Cress, C. (2011). Pedagogical and epistemological approaches to service-learning. In C. M. Cress & D. M. Donahue (Eds.), *Democratic Dilemmas of Teaching Service-Learning: Curricular Strategies for Success* (43-54). Sterling, VA: Stylus Press.
- Cress, C. M., Burack, C., Giles, D. E., Elkins, J., & Stevens, M. C. (2010). *A Promising Connection: Increasing College Access and Success through Civic Engagement*. Boston: Campus Compact.
- Creswell, J. W., and Plano Clark, V. L. (2007). *Designing and Conducting Mixed Methods Research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches*. London: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Curriculum Development Centre (CDC) (2013). *The Zambia Education Curriculum Framework 2013*. Lusaka: CDC
- Dagger, R. (1997). *Civic Virtues: Rights, Citizenship, and Republican Liberalism*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Damon, W. (2001). "To Not Fade Away: Restoring Civic Identity Among the Young," in Diane Ravitch & Joseph P. Viteritti (eds.) *Making Good Citizens*. New Haven: Yale University Press, 122–141.
- Dávila, A., & Mora, M. (2007). CIRCLE Working Paper 52: Civic Engagement and High School Academic Progress: An Analysis Using NELS Data. *The Center for Information & Research on Civic Learning and Engagement*. Retrieved on 16th January, 2016 from <http://www.civicyouth.org/circle-working-paper-52-civic-engagement-and-high-school-academicprogress-an-analysis-using-nels-data/>
- Delli Carpini, M. (2003). Civics lessons beyond the classroom, Retrieved on 4th April, 2015 at http://www.npr.org/display_pages/features/feature_905341.html
- Dewey, J. (1916). *Democracy and Education: An Introduction to the Philosophy of Education*. New York: Macmillan.
- Dewey, J. (1922). *Human Nature and Conduct: An Introduction to Social Psychology*. New York: Holt.
- Dewey, J. (1933). *How we Think: A Restatement of the Relation of Reflective Thinking to the Educative Process* (2 ed.). Lexington, MA: Heath.
- Dewey, J. (1939). *Freedom and Culture*. New York: Putnam.
- Edwards, M. (2004). *Civil Society*. Cambridge: Polity.
- Ellsberg, M. and Heise, L. (2005). *Researching Violence against Women: A Practical Guide for Researchers and Activists*. Washington DC: World Health Organisation and PATH
- Eyler, J. (2000). What do we most need to know about the impact of service learning on Student learning? *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning*, 7, 11-17
- Eyler, J. S., Giles, D. E., Stenson, C. M. & Gray, C. J. (2001). *At a Glance: What we Know about the Effects of Service Learning on College Students, Faculty, Institutions, and Communities, 1993-2000* (3rd ed.) Washington, DC: Learn and Serve America, Corporation for National and Community Service.
- Farneti, R., Bianchi, I., Mayrgündter, T. & Niederhauser, J. (2014). The Network Is the Message: Social Networks as Teaching Tools. *Teaching and Learning the European Union: Traditional and Innovative Methods*. Eds., Stefania Baroncelli, Roberto Farneti, Ioan Horga, Sophie Vanhoonacker. Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Springer, 2014.
- Fox, R. L. & Ronkowski, S. A. (1997). Learning Styles of Political Science Students. *PS: Political Science & Politics* 30 (December.): 732-737.

- Franco, R. W. (2005). The Civic Role of Community Colleges: Preparing Students for the Work of Democracy. *The Journal of Public Affairs*. 119-138.
- Frank, K. (2006). The potential of youth participation in planning. *Journal of Planning Literature*, 29(4), 351–371.
- Giles, D.E. Jr., & Eyler, J. (1994b). 'The Theoretical Roots of Service-Learning in John Dewey: Towards a Theory of Service-Learning,' *Michigan Journal of Community Service-Learning*, 1:77-85.
- Giroux, H.A. (2006). *America on the Edge: Henry Giroux on Politics, Culture and Education*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Godfrey, P. C., Illes, L. M., & Berry, G. R. (2005). Creating Breadth in Business Education Through Service-Learning. *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, 4(3), 309-323.
- Gonzalez, D. (2009). *A Survey of Best Practices of Global Service-Learning Programs in University of Georgia* (UGA), Office of service learning.
- Goodrow, B. et al. (2001). "The Community Partnerships Experience: A Report of Institutional Transition at East Tennessee State University" in *Academic Medicine*, Vol 76, No 2.
- Gross, R. E., & Dynneson, T. L. (1991). *Social Science Perspectives on Citizenship Education*. New York: Teachers Collage, Columbia University.
- Gutmann, A. (1987) *Democratic Education*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press..
- Haight, W. L., & Bidwell, L. N. (2015). *Mixed Methods Research for Social Work: Integrating Methodologies to Strengthen Practice and Policy*. Chicago, IL: Lyceum.
- Hart, D., & Donnelly, T. (2007). High School Community Service as a Predictor of Adult Voting and Volunteering. *American Educational Research Journal*, 44(1),197–219.
- Hart, L., Smith, S., Swars, S., & Smith, M. (2009). An Examination of Research Methods in Mathematics Education (1995-2005). *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 3(1), 26-41.
- Hatcher, J. A. & Erasmus, M. A. (2008). Service-Learning in the United States and South Africa: A Comparative Analysis Informed by John Dewey and Julius Nyerere *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning*. 49-61.
- Hatcher, J. A., Bringle, R. G. & Muthiah, R. (2004). Designing Effective Reflection: What Matters to Service Learning? *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning*, Fall 2004. 38-46.
- Honnet, E.P. & Paulsen, S. J. (1989). *Principles of Good Practice for Combining Service and Learning*. Wingspread Special Report, Racine, WI: The Johnson Foundation.

- Howard, J. (2001). *Service Learning Course Design Workbook*. Ann Arbor, MI: Edward Ginsberg Center for Community Service, The University of Michigan.
- Jacoby, B. et al. (2003). *Building partnerships for service-learning*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Kahne, J. & Westheimer, J. (1999). In the Service of What? The Politics of Service Learning. In J. Claus and D. Ogden (Eds.), *Service Learning for Youth Empowerment and Social Change*. (pp. 25-42). New York: Peter Lang.
- Klymenko, L. (2014). "Involve me, and I will understand": How to Engage Students in Political Science Classes (3), 293-304. Retrieved on 19th December 2015 from <http://search.proquest.com/docview/1629025441?accountid=28588>
- Kolb, D. A. (1981). Learning Styles and Disciplinary Differences. In A.W. Chickering (Ed.), *The Modern American College*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Kolb, D.A. (1984). *Experiential Learning: Experience as the Source of Learning and Development*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Kothari, C. R. (2004). *Research Methodology: Methods and Techniques*. New Delhi: New Age International
- Lave and Wenger (1991). *Situated Learning: Legitimate peripheral participation*.
- Lisman, C.D. (1998). *Toward a Civil Society: civic literacy and service learning*. Westport, CT: Bergin & Garvey.
- Liu, G. (1995). 'Knowledge, foundation and Discourse: Philosophical Support of Service-Learning' *Michigan Journal of Community Service-Learning*, 2: 5-18.
- Lummis, C. D. (1996). *Radical Democracy*. New York: Cornell University Press.
- Maurer, H. & Neuhold, C. (2014). Problem-Based Learning in European Studies. *Teaching and Learning the European Union: Traditional and Innovative Methods*. Eds., Stefania Baroncelli, Roberto Farneti, Ioan Horga, Sophie Vanhoonacker. Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Springer, 2014.
- Mihai, A. (2014). Finding the Right Mix? Teaching European Studies through Blended Learning. *Teaching and Learning the European Union: Traditional and Innovative Methods*. Eds., Stefania Baroncelli, Roberto Farneti, Ioan Horga, Sophie Vanhoonacker. Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Springer, 2014.

- Mitchell, T. (2008). Traditional vs. Critical Service-Learning: Engaging the Literature to Differentiate Two Models. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning*, 14(2), 50-65.
- Mouton, J. & Wildschut, L. (2005). Service Learning in South Africa: Lessons Learnt through Systematic Evaluation, *Acta Academica Supplementum*. (3): 116-150
- Mulenga, I. M. (2015). *English Language Teacher Education Curriculum Designing: A Mixed Methods Analysis of the Programme at the University of Zambia*. Unpublished PhD Thesis. The University of Zambia
- Muleya, G. (2015). *The Teaching of Civic Education in Zambia: An Examination of Trends in the Teaching of Civic Education in Schools*. Unpublished PhD Thesis. University of South Africa
- National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (2003). *About NBPTS*. Accessed on 12th November 2015 from: <http://www.nbpts.org/about/index.cfm>
- National Center for Educational Statistics (2010). *Service-Learning and Community Service in K-12 Public Schools*. Accessed on 10th December 2015 from . <http://nces.ed.gov/surveys/frss/publications>
- National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) (2007). *Service-Learning: an essential component of citizenship education*. Accessed on 10th December 2015 from. <http://www.socialstudies.org/positions/servicelearning>
- National Service-Learning Clearinghouse (2002). *Students for service to America: A Guidebook for Engaging America's Students in a Lifelong Habit of Service*. Retrieved 24th July 2015 from: <http://www.studentsinservicetoamerica.org>
- Neuman, W. L. (2000). *Social Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*. Freeman: Allyn and Bacon Pub (4th ed.)
- Neuman, W. L. (2007). *Basics of Social Research: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*. Boston: Pearson Education.
- Niemi, R. G., & Junn, J. (1998). *Civic education: What makes students learn?* New Haven & London: Yale University Press.
- Oldfield, A. (1990). *Citizenship and Community Civic Republicanism in the Modern World*. London: Routledge.
- Pasek, J., Feldman, L., Romer, D., & Jamieson, K. (2008). Schools as Incubators of Democratic Participation: Building long-term Political Efficacy with Civic Education. *Applied Developmental Science*, 12(1), 26–37.
- Peterson, A. (2009). 'Civic Republicanism and Contestatory Deliberation: Framing Pupil Discourse within Citizenship Education,' *British Journal of Educational Studies*. 57(1) 55–69

- Peterson, A. (2010). 'The Formation and Expression of Character: Schools, Families and Citizenship', in J. Arthur (ed.) *Citizens of Character: New Directions in Character and Values Education*. Exeter: Imprint Academic.
- Peterson, A. (2011). *Civic Republicanism and Civic Education: The Education of Citizens*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Pettit, (1997) *Republicanism: A Theory of Freedom and Government*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Prentice, M. (2011). Civic Engagement among Community College Students through Service Learning. *Community College Journal of Research and Practice*, 35. 842-854.
- Prentice, M. & Garcia, R. M. (2000). Service Learning: The Next Generation in Education. *Community College Journal of Research and Practice*, 24. 19-26.
- Prentice, M. and Robinson, G. (2007). *Linking Service Learning and Civic Engagement in Community College Students*. Washington, DC: American Association of Community Colleges.
- Rhoads, R. (1997). *Community Service and Higher Learning: Explorations of the Caring Self*. Albany: State University of New York Press.
- Rosenberg, L. (2000). Becoming the Change we wish to see in the World: Combating through Service-learning Learned Passivity. *Academic Exchange Quarterly*, 4, 6-11.
- Schmidt, M. E., Marks, J. L. & Derrico, L. (2004). What a Difference Mentoring Makes: Service Learning and Engagement for College Students. *Mentoring and Tutoring*, 12 (2). 205-217.
- Schulz, W. et al (2008). *International civic and citizenship education study: Assessment framework*. Amsterdam: The Netherlands: International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA).
- Singh, Y. K. (2006). *Fundamental of Research Methodology and Statistics*. New Delhi: New Age International
- Speck, B. W., & Hoppe, S. L. (Eds.). 2004. *Service-learning: History, theory, and issues*. Westport, CT: Praeger.
- Stanton, T. K., Giles, D. E., & Cruz, N. I. (1999). *Service-learning: A Movement's Pioneers Reflect on its Origins, Practice, and Future*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

- Syvertsen, A., Stout, M., Flanagan, C., Mitra, D., Oliver, M., & Sundar, S. (2009). Using Elections as Teachable Moments: A Randomized Evaluation of the Student Voices Civic Education Program. *American Journal of Education*, 116(1), 33–67.
- Torney-Purta, J., Lehmann, R., Oswald, H. & Schulz, W. (2001). *Citizenship and Education in Twenty-eight Countries*. Amsterdam: The Netherlands: International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA).
- Torney-Purta, J. & Vermeer, S. (2004) *Developing Citizenship Competencies from Kindergarten through Grade 12: A Background paper for Policymakers and Educators*. Denver, CO: Education Commission of the States.
- Torney-Purta, J. & Wilkenfeld, B.S. (2009). *Paths to 21st Century Competencies through Civic Education Classrooms: An Analysis of Survey Results from Ninth- Graders*. American Bar Association Division for Public Education. Retrieved on 17th December 2015 from: <http://www.civicyouth.org>
- Tyler, R. W. (2004). *Conditions for Effective Learning*. Amherst, MA: National Coalition for Equality in Learning. Unpublished manuscript
- Vella, J. (1994). *Learning to Listen, Learning to Teach: The Power of Dialogue in Educating Adults*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Wenger, (1998). *Communities of Practice, Learning, Meaning and Identity*. Cambridge: University of Cambridge Press.
- Westheimer, J. & Kahne, J. (2003a). What Kind of Citizen: Political Choices and Educational Goals. *Campus Compact Reader: Service Learning and Civic Education*. Winter. 1-13.
- Westheimer, J. & Kahne, J. (2003b). Reconnecting Education to Democracy: Democratic Dialogues. *Phi Delta Kappan*, September. 9- 14.
- Westheimer, J. & Kahne, J. (2004). What Kind of Citizen? The Politics of Educating for Democracy, *American Educational Research Journal*, 41(2), 237–269.
- Wuthnow, R. (1991) *Acts of Compassion: caring for others and helping ourselves*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Young, I. M. (2000). *Inclusion and democracy*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Youniss, J. (2011). Civic education: What schools can do to encourage civic identity and action. *Applied Developmental Science*, 15(2), 98–103.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1

Questionnaire for Teachers

Dear sir/ madam,

You have been chosen to take part in a research study about Assessment of Service Learning in the Teaching of Civic Education in Three Selected Secondary Schools in Lusaka Province, Zambia. The study deals with Service-learning as a teaching and learning strategy that integrates meaningful community service with instruction and reflection to enrich the learning experience, teach civic responsibility, and strengthen communities. The study is being conducted by Daniel Katongo Chola a Masters student at UNZA, as part of a dissertation project for the award of the Master of Education in Civic Education. Once you agree to participate in the study, you will be asked to complete in the following survey consisting of general statements/questions, and or demographic questions.

Risk assessment: there is no risk to participation in this study beyond that of everyday life such as time and patience. All of your responses will be kept anonymous and confidential. Thus, individual participant will not be identified.

I would kindly request that all participants answer all questions as instructed. However, participation in this project is purely voluntary. If you have any questions, please contact me at: dakacho.dk@gmail.com or 0979429858/0961546368

Thank you in anticipation.

Daniel Katongo Chola (Computer No. 514701057)

The University of Zambia

School of Education

Email: dakacho.dk@gmail.com

Instructions

1. Do not write your name on this questionnaire.
2. Tick [] in the box of your preferred choice and/ or write in the space provided

Section A: Demographic Details

1. What is your Sex
 - (a) Male []
 - (b) Female []
2. What is your age
 - (a) 15---25 []
 - (b) 26---36 []
 - (c) 37---47 []
 - (d) 48 and above []
3. How long have you been in service
 - (a) 1-5 []
 - (b) 6-10 []
 - (c) 11-16 []
 - (d) 17 and above []
4. What is your position?
 - (a) Head teacher/ Deputy head teacher []
 - (b) Head of department []
 - (c) Subject/Class teacher []

Section B *Pedagogical and practices*

The table below shows practices and pedagogies that enhance service-learning. Tick in the desired box for each statement.

	Tick on desired Response
--	--------------------------

Pedagogical Approaches and practices	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often
5. Teaching methods stimulate students politically, socially, civic participation in wider community and school				
6. Teachers encourage pupils to make up their own minds				
7. Teachers encourage pupils to express their opinions				
8. Pupils express opinions in class with different views from most of other learners				
9. Teachers encourage pupils to discuss issues with people with different opinion				
10. Teacher present several sides of the issues when explaining them in class				
11. Schools provide secure environment and encourage pupils to express opinions, debate and practice decision making				
12. Pupils use skills of identifying and describing, explaining and analysing, and evaluating, taking, and defending public issue positions				
13. Pupils develop and continue improving skills of evaluating, taking, and defending positions				

Section C: Teacher Competency in engaging active civic learning methods

Tick [] in appropriate box for your choice option on teaching/learning methods/strategies that are used in the learning of Civic Education in secondary schools. How often do you use these teaching methods/ strategies in learning of Civic Education?

Teaching Methods /Strategies	Not at all =1	Rare occasions =2	Frequent =3	Very Frequent =4
14. Oral reports by learners				
15. Drama/ role playing in small groups				
16. Individual projects				
17. Group project				
18. Inquiry-Guided Learning				
19. Class discussion				
20. Presentations by learners panels from the class				
21. Allow Debate (informal) on current issues by students from class				
22. Construction of summaries by students				
23. Interviews				
24. Case studies				
25. Critical Thinking				
26. Lecture Strategies				
27. Problem-solving				

SECTION D: PUBLIC DELIBERATIONS (Civic participation in the wider community). Tick in appropriate box for each statement to indicate the level of participation of pupils in public deliberation or Civic participation in the wider community.

PUBLIC DELIBERATIONS	Tick on desired response			
	Never	Partial	Strong	Very Strong
28. Pupils have interest and disposition in public and political life				
29. Pupils vote for a class representative and take part in decision-making in the running of the school				
30. Civil society and NGOs share information e.g. dangers of early marriages, environmental degradation at you school				
31. Pupils petition, speak, or testify before public bodies, join ad-hoc advocacy groups, and forming coalitions				
32. Pupils participate at student assembly discussion, contest for class representative, school parliament, and or council				
33. Attend parliament or court session				
34. Pupils participate in voluntary groups to help community and charity organisations				
35. Government institutions such as ACC, DEC, and CCPC have links with your school				
36. Question the local or constituency representatives				

Thank you for your time

Appendix 2:

Questionnaire for Pupils

Dear sir/ madam,

You have been chosen to take part in a research about *Assessment of Service Learning in the Teaching of Civic Education in Three Selected Secondary Schools in Lusaka Province, Zambia*. The study deals with Service-learning as a teaching and learning strategy that integrates meaningful community service with instruction and reflection to enrich the learning experience, teach civic responsibility, and strengthen communities. The study is being conducted by Chola Daniel Katongo Chola a Masters student at UNZA, as part of a dissertation project for the award of the Master of Education in Civic Education. Once you agree to participate in the study, you will be asked to complete in the following survey consisting of general statements/questions, and or demographic questions.

Risk assessment: there is no risk to participation in this study beyond that of everyday life such as time and patience. All of your responses will be kept anonymous and confidential. Thus, individual participant will not be identified.

I would kindly request that all participants answer all questions as instructed. However, participation in this project is purely voluntary. If you have any questions, please contact me at: dakacho.dk@gmail.com or 0979429858/0961546368

Thank you in anticipation.

Daniel Katongo Chola (Computer No. 514701057)

The University of Zambia

School of Education

Email: dakacho.dk@gmail.com

Instructions

1. Do not write your name on this questionnaire.
2. Tick [] in the boxes and/or write in the space provided

Section A *Personal Details*

1. What is your gender?

(a)Male []

(b)Female []

2. What is your Age?

(a) 11---16 []

(b) 17 and above []

Section B *Pedagogical and practices*

The table below shows practices and pedagogies that enhance service-learning. Tick in the desired box for each statement.

Approaches and practices	Tick on desired Response			
	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often
3. Teaching methods stimulate students politically, socially, civic participation in wider community and school				
4. Teachers encourage pupils to make up their own minds				
5. Teachers encourage pupils to express their opinions				
6. Pupils express opinions in class with different views from most of other learners				
7. Teachers encourage pupils to discuss issues with people with different opinion				
8. Teacher present several sides of the issues when explaining them in class				

9. Schools provide secure environment and encourage pupils to express opinions, debate and practice decision making				
10. Pupils use skills of identifying and describing, explaining and analysing, and evaluating, taking, and defending public issue positions				
11. Pupils develop and continue improving skills of evaluating, taking, and defending positions				

Section C: Teacher Competency in engaging active civic learning methods

Tick [] in appropriate box for your choice option on teaching/learning methods/strategies that are used in the learning of Civic Education in secondary schools. How often do you use these teaching methods/ strategies in learning of Civic Education?

Teaching Methods /Strategies	Not at all =1	Rear occasions =2	Frequent =3	Very Frequent =4
12. Oral reports by learners				
13. Drama/ role playing in small groups				
14. Individual projects				
15. Group project				
16. Inquiry-Guided Learning				
17. Class discussion				
18. Presentations by learners panels from the class				
19. Allow Debate (informal) on current issues by students from class				
20. Construction of summaries by				

students				
21. Interviews				
22. Case studies				
23. Critical Thinking				
24. Lecture Strategies				
25. Problem-solving				

SECTION D: PUBLIC DELIBERATIONS (CIVIC PARTICIPATION IN THE WIDER COMMUNITY)

Tick in appropriate box for each statement to indicate the level of participation of pupils in public deliberation or Civic participation in the wider community.

Pupils participation in wider community	Tick on desired Response			
	Never	Partial	Strong	Very Strong
26. Pupils have interest and disposition in public and political life				
27. Pupils vote for a class representative and take part in decision-making in the running of the school				
28. Civil society and NGOs share information e.g. dangers of early marriages, environmental degradation at you school				
29. Pupils petition, speak, or testify before public bodies, join ad-hoc advocacy groups, and forming coalitions				

30. Pupils participate at student assembly discussion, contest for class representative, school parliament, and or council				
31. Attend parliament or court session				
32. Pupils participate in voluntary groups to help community and charity organisations				
33. Government institutions such as ACC, DEC, and CCPC have links with your school				
34. Question the local or constituency representatives				

Thank you for your time

Appendix 3

Interview Schedule for (HoD and Teachers)

Date..... Time.....
Place.....

The following questions will guide the interview however; follow-up questions where necessary will be asked for further details and clarity.

PEDAGOGICAL (METHODOLOGY)

1. Do the teaching methods stimulate students' interest in political and social issues, civic participation in the wider community and at school?
2. Schools provide a secure environment where pupils are encouraged to express opinion, to debate, to practice decision making and or bring up current political events for discussion in class
3. Do teachers guide Pupils to develop and continue to improve their skills of evaluating, taking, and defending positions?
4. Are teachers competent enough to use service-learning as a civic teaching methodology
5. Is service-learning a popular method of teaching Civic education in secondary schools?
6. Is service learning in schools adequately addressed?
7. What are of some the challenges in teaching of service learning in schools?
8. Suggest ways of improving service learning in your school

PUBLIC DELIBERATIONS

- 9.** What is the extent of interest and disposition to engage in public and political life among pupils?
- 10.** Are the pupils willing or active in Peaceful demonstration, petitioning, speaking, or testifying before public bodies, joining ad-hoc advocacy groups, and forming coalitions?
- 11.** Are the pupils involved in any Voluntary participation in school-based or community based activities outside of regular lessons?
- 12.** Give examples of such Voluntary participation
- 13.** Are schools in any partnership with government institutions, NGOs or civil society?
- 14.** Name such institutions or organisation.

Thank you

Appendix 4

Focus Group Interview Schedule for Pupils

Date..... Time.....
Place.....

The following questions will guide the interview however; follow-up questions where necessary will be asked for further detailed and clarity.

SECTION A: PEDAGOGICAL (METHODOLOGY)

1. Do the teaching methods stimulate pupils' interest in political and social issues, civic participation in the wider community and at school?
2. Schools provide a secure environment where pupils are encouraged to express opinion, to debate, to practice decision making and or bring up current political events for discussion in class
3. Teachers guide Pupils to develop and continue to improve their skills of evaluating, taking, and defending positions.
4. Are teachers competent enough to use service-learning as a civic teaching methodology
5. Is service-learning a popular method of teaching Civic education in secondary schools?
6. Is service learning in schools adequately addressed?
7. What are some of the challenges in teaching of service learning in schools?
8. Suggest ways of improving service learning in your school

SECTIONB: PUBLIC DELIBERATIONS

9. What is the extent of interest and disposition to engage in public and political life among pupils?
10. Are the pupils willing or active in Peaceful demonstration, petitioning, speaking, or testifying before public bodies, joining ad-hoc advocacy groups, and forming coalitions?
11. Are the pupils involved in any Voluntary participation in school-based or community based activities outside of regular lessons
12. Give examples of such Voluntary participation
13. Are schools in any partnership with government institutions, NGOs and/ or civil society?
14. Name such institutions or organisation.

Thank you

Appendix 5

Individual Participant's Informed Consent Form

Dear respondent,

This serves to inform you about the purpose of this research and procedure that will be followed in it. You are also being asked to sign this form to indicate that you have volunteered to participate in this exercise.

1. **Description** – This is purely an academic education research and no individual will be identified in person for their participation. The researcher is a University of Zambia student pursuing a Master of Education degree in Civic Education. This research is a major requirement for the researcher to complete the programme.
2. **Purpose** - The researcher wishes to assess Service Learning in the Teaching of Civic Education in three selected Secondary Schools in Lusaka province, Zambia.
3. **Consent** - Participation in this exercise is voluntary.
4. **Confidentiality** – All the data to be collected from this research will be confidential. Participants are assured of anonymity in this research (no names or identity shall be given) whatsoever. If the conversation is recorded information will be kept under key and lock or with secret password and shall be destroyed after data analysis.
5. **Rights of respondents** – The rights of participants will be protected and respected. Participants are assured that they shall suffer no harm as results of participating in this exercise. Participants are free to ask for clarification at any point of the exercise and to inform the researcher if they have any challenge about the procedure in the research.

6. Declaration of consent

I have read and understood this document. I therefore, agree to freely participate in this exercise without any monetary gain of any kind.

Signature..... Date.....

Appendix 6
Permission to carry out Research from PEO

*All communications should be addressed to
the Provincial Educational Officer and not
to any individual by name*

Telephone: 260-211-250655 251220
Fax: 260-251009



In reply please quote:
PEO/LR/101/28/2

REPUBLIC OF ZAMBIA

MINISTRY OF GENERAL EDUCATION

OFFICE OF THE PROVINCIAL EDUCATION OFFICER
LUSAKA REGIONAL HEADQUARTERS
PRIVATE BAG RW 21E
LUSAKA

26th February, 2016

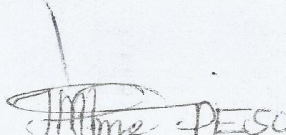
TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

RE: FIELD WORK FOR MASTERS STUDENT

This letter serves to introduce to you Mr. Chola Daniel Katongo computer No. 514701057 who is a student at the University of Zambia, School of Education.

Mr. Katongo is pursuing a Masters programme in Education which has a component of fieldwork.

Any resistance rendered to him will be greatly appreciated.


fr | Ngoma Felix Z.
**PROVINCIAL EDUCATION OFFICER
LUSAKA PROVINCE.**

/sc*

Appendix 7

Introductory letter from UNZA



THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

Telephone: 291381
Telegram: UNZA, LUSAKA
Telex: UNZALU ZA 44370

PO Box 32379
Lusaka, Zambia
Fax: +260-1-292702

Date: 05.11.2015

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN


Dear Sir/Madam

RE: FIELD WORK FOR MASTERS / PHD STUDENTS

The bearer of this letter Mr./Ms. CHOLA DANIEL KATONGO Computer number 514701051 is a duly registered student at the University of Zambia, School of Education.

He/She is taking a Masters/PhD programme in Education. The programme has a fieldwork component which he/she has to complete.

We shall greatly appreciate if the necessary assistance is rendered to him/her/

Yours faithfully,

DANIEL NTSHEMI (Dn)
SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
PO BOX 32379, LUSAKA
ASSISTANT DEAN POSTGRADUATE STUDIES- SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

cc. Director, DRGS
Dean, Education