

**`STAKEHOLDERS' PERSPECTIVES ON THE PROCESS OF RE-INTRODUCTION
OF PRIMARY-SECONDARY SCHOOL STRUCTURE IN SELECETD BASIC
SCHOOLS OF SOLWEZI DISTRICT**

BY

VACSTER KATENDE

**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 Primary education
of the University of Zambia**

The University of Zambia

Lusaka

2014

DECLARATION

I declare that the work presented in this dissertation entitled “**Stakeholders’ Perspectives on the Process of Re-Introduction of Primary-Secondary School Structure in Selected Basic Schools of Solwezi District**” is to the best of my knowledge and belief my own work and that it is original. The dissertation contains no material that has been accepted for an award of a degree or diploma by the University of Zambia or any other institution. All other works which are not mine are duly acknowledged in the dissertation.

Vacster Katende

Signed.....

Date.....

COPYRIGHT NOTICE.

© 2014

Vacster Katende

All copyrights reserved. No part of this dissertation may be reproduced, archived, and communicated in any material form, whole or in part, or be made available for loan and copying or otherwise without prior permission in writing from the researcher or the University of Zambia.

CERTIFICATE OF APPROVAL.

We the undersigned recommend that this dissertation by Vacster Katende be accepted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the Degree of Master of Education in Primary Education of the University of Zambia.

Signed.....

Date.....

Signed.....

Date.....

Signed.....

Date.....

ABSTRACT.

This study sought to investigate the perspectives of stakeholders' on the re-introduction of primary-secondary school structure in Solwezi district of the North-Western province of Zambia.

The objectives of the study were as follows: To determine the views of stakeholders on the consultation process on re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure, to establish how the re-introduction of primary-secondary school structure is being implemented in schools, and to establish the challenges of the re-introduction of the primary-secondary structure.

A descriptive survey study design was employed using a mixed approach but with greater focus on the qualitative strand. 12 headteachers, 36 parents, 2 NGO representatives, 1 senior MoE official and the DEBS were purposefully sampled, while 124 teachers and 72 pupils were randomly sampled. In-depth interviews were used to collect data from headteachers, parents, NGO representatives, senior MoE official and the DEBS. Data from pupils were collected using FGD, whereas teachers answered the survey questionnaire. Data collected from survey questionnaires was analysed using Microsoft Excel 2013 while the Interview data was analysed using thematic analysis.

Based on the stakeholders views, findings of this study revealed that a large proportion of teachers that is 112 of 124 (90%) was dissatisfied with the policy change. Most headteachers interviewed too noted that as stakeholders, they were neither consulted nor sensitised on the change. Similarly, the NGOs and some parents interviewed also observed that the change lacked consultation and would affect their children negatively in terms of school progression. Some pupils interviewed during the focus group discussions also indicated that they had fears of dropping out from secondary school due to high fees charged in secondary schools compared to those charged in basic schools. Referring to how the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure was being implemented, the findings of the study revealed that it was being implemented using the top-down approach. Referring to the model of policy change used, the government used the linear model of change which does not consider the transition aspect in the change process. And referring to the challenges of the re-introduction of primary-secondary structure, stakeholders identified a number of challenges ranging from long distances to be covered between home and secondary schools, fear of many drop outs due to high fees charged in secondary schools as compared to what was charged in basic schools and high cut-off points at grade seven examinations. Similarly NGOs expressed worry on the availability of space at secondary schools to absorb pupils from the primary schools.

Based on the stakeholder's views, the study made the following recommendations: Government should extensively consult stakeholders before embarking on policy change in the education sector. This could be done through, public debates, consultative meetings with the Parents and Teachers Associations (PTAs) and other forms of communication. Government should ensure that teachers who are the implementers of education policy are consulted throughout the change process. Government should adequately plan and mobilise financial resources, before the implementation process.

DEDICATION.

This work is dedicated to my late father, mother and my sister: Tom Katende, Monica Ntalasha and Mable Katende respectively. May Their Souls Rest In Peace (MTSRIP). I also dedicate this work to my dear wife Stella Phiri Katende and my dear children: Monica, Garcia, Vacster, Mumba and Mpintwa. And also to my brother and Sisters: Stanley, Beauty, Getrude, Charity and Prisca and to my nephew and brother in-law: Damiano and Joseph Respectively.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.

I wish to, first and foremost, thank God for the grace he granted me to complete this programme. Let me simply say “all praises to you the almighty God for giving me the strength to accomplish this great milestone of my academic journey, I cannot thank you enough”.

I would like to greatly thank and acknowledge my supervisor Dr Kalisto Katongo Kalimaposo who out of his very busy schedule offered me the excellent support and guidance I needed and patiently helped me to complete this dissertation. To you Dr, “may God richly keep on blessing you abundantly”.

I also wish to acknowledge all the lecturers who rendered me untiring academic support in part one through the respective lectures in various courses they offered. These include: Professor Chishimba, Professor Namafe, Dr Zanzini., Dr Manchishi., Dr Matafwali, Dr Banda, Dr Kakanda and Dr Luangala.

I would also like to thank my friends and coursemates for their brain relaxers through jokes and for their academic support. These include: Langson Chibuye, Jonathan Kayuka, Malaya Sondashi, Osborne Chimimba, Mary Mbulo, Enala Lufungulo, Patricia Mwashingwele, Barbra Hara, Richard Shikwasha, Victor Moyo, and Munsanje Sikalinda.

I would also like to thank the respondents of the study, that is, Headteachers, Teachers, Pupils, and NGOs, DEBS and Parents of Solwezi District and senior MoE officials. Without their information, there would have been nothing to analyse and to call a study.

To the Directorate of Research and Graduate Studies (DRGS), I would like to earnestly acknowledge and thank Professor Nyambe (Director), Dr Simwimba (Assistant Director), Dr Ndhlovu (Assistant Dean-PG), Ms Bertha, Mr Phiri, Mr Special, Ms Nalukui, Ms Lungu, Ms Bwalya, Ms Monica, Mr Muyemba, Ms Christine and Mr Kanyanta for their support and cooperation during the period I was mandated to be President of the Postgraduates students at UNZA (UNZAPOGRASA).

May I also thank all the friends and relatives who helped me in one way or another. For instance, Exilda Limpo Liswaniso (Teacher of English) for editing the dissertation and my elder brother Pastor Stanley Katende for his brotherly support and prayers.

Finally, a special thanks to my wife Stella Phiri and my children: Damiano, Monica, Garcia, Vacster, Mumba and Mpintwa and my brother in-law Joseph for withstanding the gap of a husband and father respectively I left at home during the two and half years of my postgraduate study at UNZA. To my headteacher Mr Mbimbi, I say you are not just my supervisor but a parent as well.

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

DECLARATION	iv
COPYRIGHT NOTICE.	
CERTIFICATE OF APPROVAL.....	
ABSTRACT.....	iv
DEDICATION.....	v
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	vi
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	vii
LIST OF TABLES.....	ix
LIST OF FIGURES	x
LIST OF APPENDICES.....	xi
ACRONYMS.....	xii
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.0 Overview	1
1.1 Background of the Study.....	1
1.2 Statement of the problem	4
1.3 Purpose of the Study.....	4
1.4 Objectives of the Study	4
1.5 Research Questions	5
1.6 Significance of the Study	5
1.7 Delimitation of the Study	5
1.8 Limitations of the study	6
1.9 Operational Definition of terms	6
1.10 Organisation of the study	7
1.11 Summary of chapter one	8
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW.....	9
2.0 Overview.....	9
2.1 Basic education system in Zambia: Historical background.....	9
2.1.1 Post-independence education policy	
2.2 Policy definition.....	13
2.3 Policy making and scope.....	14
2.4 Role players and factors in policy making	15
2.5 Generation and evaluation of policy options.....	17
2.5.1 Generating policy options	17
2.5.2 Evaluation of policy options:	17
2.6 Approaches to policy making.....	19
2.7 Planning policy implementation.....	22
2.8 Implementation of basic education policy in Zambia.....	23
2.9 Policy impact assessment	25
2.10 Stakeholders and the policy change process	26
2.11 Selected case studies of education policy reforms around the world.....	32
2.12 Summary.....	41
CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY	42
3.0 Overview	42
3.1 Study Area	42
3.2 Research design	43

3.3 Target Population.....	43
3.4 Sample Size.....	43
3.4.1 Demographic Profile and Geographical Location of Teachers.....	43
3.4.2 Geographic Location of teachers	44
3.5 Research Sample and Sampling Procedure.....	45
3.6 Research instruments.....	45
3.6.2 Interview Guides.....	46
3.6.3 Focus Group Discussions.....	47
3.7 Validity and reliability.....	47
3.8 Data Collection Procedure.....	48
3.9 Data Analysis.....	49
3.10 Reflections on Ethical Issues.....	49
3.11 Summary of chapter three.....	49
CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS.....	51
4.0 Overview.....	51
4.1 Objective one.....	51
4.2 Objective two.....	61
4.3 Objective three.....	63
4.3 Summary of chapter four.....	67
CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS.....	68
5.0 Overview.....	68
5.1 Answers to the Research objectives.....	68
5.2 Objective one.....	69
5.3 Objective two.....	72
5.4 Objective three.....	75
5.5 Summary of chapter five.....	77
CHAPTER SIX: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	78
6.0 Overview.....	78
6.1 Conclusion.....	78
6.2 Recommendations.....	79
6.3 Suggestion for future research.....	79
REFERENCES.....	80
APPENDICES.....	86
Appendix A: Authority to Conduct Educational Research.....	86
Appendix B: Informed Consent Form.....	87
Appendix C: Questionnaire for teachers.....	88
Appendix D: Interview guide for Parents.....	92
Appendix E: In-depth interviews with headteachers.....	93
Appendix F: Budget.....	94
Appendix G: Research work plan.....	95
Appendix H: PF Manifesto on Education.....	96

LIST OF TABLES.

Table 1 Demographic profile of teachers.....	44
Table 2 Geographical location of teachers.....	45
Table 3 Consultation prior to policy change	52
Table 4 Managing the transformation	54
Table 5 Perspective of teachers towards transformation.....	56
Table 6 Has the change improved school system.....	63

LIST OF FIGURES.

Figure 1 Location map of Solwezi District.....	42
--	----

LIST OF APPENDICES.

Appendix A: Authority letter to conduct research.....	86
Appendix B: Informed consent form.....	87
Appendix C: Questionnaire for teachers.....	88
Appendix D: Interview guide for PTA executive members.....	92
Appendix E: Interview guide for headteachers.....	93
Appendix F: Budget.....	94
Appendix G: Research work plan.....	95
Appendix H: PF Manifesto.....	96
Appendix I: Establishment of basic schools circular.....	97

ACRONYMS.

BESSIP-Basic Education Sub-Sector Investment Programme

CSO-Central Statistical Office

DAC-District Administrative Centre

DEBS-District Education Board Secretary

DESO-District Education Standards Officer

ECZ-Examination Council of Zambia

EFA-Education for All

ERIP-Education Rehabilitation Investment Programme

ESO-Education Standards Officer

FGD-Focus Group Discussion

GRZ-Government Republic of Zambia

MoAE-Ministry of African Education

MoE-Ministry of Education

MoESVTEE-Ministry of Education, Science, Vocation Training and Early Education

NGO-Non-Governmental Organisation

NRG-Northern Rhodesian Government

PF-Patriotic Front

PTA-parents and Teachers Association

UNESCO-

US-United States

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION.

1.0 Overview

This chapter presents the background of the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, objectives, research questions, and the significance of the study. Other aspects discussed in this chapter are the delimitation of the study, limitations of the study, operational definitions and organisation of the study.

1.1 Background of the Study

Provision and administration of Education in Zambia can be traced as far back as the colonial period during which it was the responsibility of the British South African Company 1890-1924, the British Colonial Office Administration 1924-1952 and the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland 1953-1963 whose focus was on primary education (Chisholm et al, 1998).

The formal structure of the Zambian education system has undergone a number of changes since independence. Initially, the United Nation Independence Party (UNIP) that formed government at independence in 1964 planned to provide a compulsory ten years of basic education for every child for the decade 1974-1984. This ambitious plan was considered laudable by the nationalist leaders but could not be implemented owing to inadequate resources (Lungwangwa, 1987). For this reason, there was need for a variation of this policy with regard to the stipulated duration while the general principle of providing universal basic education remained unchanged. Thus, a 7-3-2 education structure was proposed, that is seven years of primary, three years of junior secondary and two years of senior secondary school.

The UNIP government led by Dr Kenneth Kaunda considered the seven years of primary school and two years of junior secondary school as sufficient to prepare a child to proceed to the next stage or to leave school. According to them what the child will have learnt by this time was sufficient and lasting to enable them play a full and useful role in the country. The lack of places in secondary school coupled with the government's inability to provide more places prompted communities to seek for alternatives. It was a

common feature for Grade 7 pupils to repeat Grade 7 many times due to inadequate space in secondary schools. The progression of pupils from Grade 7 to secondary school was problematic due to inadequate secondary schools in the country. Consequently, a large number of pupils who could not be absorbed in secondary schools dropped off the school system. The inadequate space in secondary schools prompted communities to adapt or provide facilities in primary schools for the commencement of Night School or Special Study Groups (SSG) to assist pupils who were not selected to conventional secondary schools (Lungwangwa, 1987).

The 1977 Educational Reforms enshrined the policy that the ultimate goal of basic education was to provide nine years of universal basic education ,whereby a child entering grade one at the age of seven would remain in school for at least nine years until at the end of grade nine at the age of sixteen (MoE,1977:7). During the first few years after the publication of the reforms document, the only steps taken to implement was continuing efforts to expand school enrolments so that an increasing number of grade seven pupils will be able to continue into grade 8 and 9. The number of pupils entering the secondary system increased a bit but the proportion did not rise significantly because of the rapid increase in numbers completing grade seven. The lack of places in secondary schools coupled with the government inability to provide more places prompted communities to upgrade primary schools into basic schools in the early 1980s. Some rural communities adapted for classroom purposes dormitories that were no longer in use in primary schools and these classrooms were used for the commencement for the grade 8 and 9 classes (MoE, 1992). From the early 1980s, the movement towards the establishment of basic schools, gathered momentum.

In November, 1994, the Ministry of Education sent Circular No. 14 of 1994 to all Provincial Education Officers and District Education Officers in the nine provinces titled ‘Policy Guidelines for Establishing Basic Schools’ and it read in part as follows: ‘This circular serves to inform all Provincial Education Officers and District Education Officers that the Ministry of Education has now worked out policy guidelines for establishing Basic Schools in the country (MoE, 1994).

The introduction of Basic Schools resulted into another change of the education structure of the school system in Zambia. In 1997, the Ministry of Education with the help of Cooperating Partners under the Basic Education Subsector Investment Programme (BESSIP) introduced a 9-3-4 structure of the school system, that is, nine years of basic education (Grade 1-9); three years of high school education (Grades 10-12) and four years or more of tertiary education depending on the school and programme admitted into. This structure was regarded as an experimental structure as it run alongside the 7-5-4 structure, i.e., seven years of primary education, five years of secondary education and four years of tertiary education (MoE, 1996).

Through the intervention of BESSIP, the Ministry of Education started implementing a comprehensive strategy for the transformation of the existing primary schools into basic schools and of secondary schools into high schools. In this transformation, efforts included the phasing out of Grades 8 and 9 classes from the secondary schools running from Grade 8 -12. With BESSIP in place, it was anticipated that the overall free education would result in an enormous expansion of enrolment in Grades 8 and 9, which would in turn lead to much higher demand for high school education. It was further anticipated that as more primary schools attained full basic status, the Grade Seven Examination would play a progressively reduced role in the education system and would eventually be abolished (ECZ, 2007).

The practical problems of phasing out Grades 8-9 from the secondary school level included the fact that many basic schools did not have basic facilities including learning materials and qualified teachers to handle the Grades 8 and 9 curriculum areas especially in Science, Mathematics and practical subject areas. It was feared that the foundation of pupils in basic schools would be hampered and would consequently affect the performance of such pupils in Grades 10-12. It was also observed that grant aided and faith based institutions were reluctant to phase out the Grades 8-9 classes in that they wanted to maintain continuity in terms of developing and inculcating moral and religious values in their schools.

The year 2012 saw another change in the structure of the Zambian education system when the then Minister of Education, Dr. John Phiri announced policy changes in the

education structure of the school system in accordance with the PF Manifesto which reads in part as follows:

‘In order to raise the educational standards, the PF government shall phase out basic education and re-introduce a conventional early childhood, primary, secondary and tertiary education system’(PF Manifesto, 2011)’.

The government further rebranded the Ministry of Education as the Ministry of Education, Science and Vocational Training and Early Education (MoESVTEE). Following this pronouncement by the Minister of Education, Science and Vocational Training and Early Education, the 9-3-4 structure of the education system was abolished and the 7-5-4 structure of the education system was re-introduced.

1.2 Statement of the problem

The government, through the Minister of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education (MoESVTEE) made a press statement that the basic-high school structure had been abolished and the primary-secondary school structure in Zambia was re-introduced, (Lusaka Times, September, 2012). Following this policy shift, structural changes have been made in the school system across the country as some basic schools have been transformed into secondary schools by introducing grades 8 and 9 classes to their structure while some have been transformed into primary schools by phasing out the grades 8 and 9 classes from their structure. This policy shift seems to have been received with mixed feelings by stakeholders. There appears a gap in knowledge on how stakeholders’ perceive this re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure in Zambia and hence this study.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the stakeholders’ perspectives on the re-introduction of the primary-secondary schools structure in Solwezi district of north-western province of Zambia.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

In meeting the study purpose, the specific objectives were as follows:

- 1) To determine views of stakeholders on the consultation process on the re-introduction of the primary-secondary structure.
- 2) To establish how the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure was being implemented in schools.
- 3) To establish the challenges of the re-introduction of the primary-secondary structure.

1.5 Research Questions

- 1) What are the views of stakeholders on the consultation process on the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure?
- 2) How is the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure being implemented in schools?
- 3) What are the challenges of the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure?

1.6 Significance of the Study

It is hoped that the information generated in this study might be helpful to policy makers in government and the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education (MoESVTEE), in particular, to consider views of stakeholders' on the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure in Zambia. The study has also contributed to the body of knowledge on policy change in education in Zambia. The findings of this study might also influence education policy change in Zambia as some key informants in this study appeared discontent with piecemeal changes in education.

1.7 Delimitation of the Study

The study was limited to some selected basic schools in Solwezi District of North-Western Province of Zambia. Selection of schools was based on the MoESVTEE guidelines of urban, peri-urban and rural schools. Stakeholders' views were restricted to headteachers, teachers, PTA chairpersons, pupils, NGOs, DEBS and Ministry of Education Science, Vocation Training and Early Education officials from ministry headquarters on the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure.

1.8 Limitations of the study

Like all studies, this study had a number of peculiar limitations and as such the findings should be interpreted carefully so as to represent opportunities for future research.

There were unmeasured exogenous variables which this study did not consider and these could not be enumerated and may affect the relationships we studied. For example, other human resource practices within the education sector and organizational principles in the district that we did not study may affect teacher attitude as well as teacher dynamics; therefore, in future research, measures of human resource practices like criteria for promotion, recruitment of teachers that overlook the sex ought to be considered.

The second limitation was the ‘static’ nature of the study. It was based on a one-time view of certain aspects (material, human resource and infrastructure) of the educational sector than collection of data at different periods of time to see how they all change and affect service delivery. Thus, future research should be based on data collected at different periods of time to determine more precisely the relationship between human resource practices; material resource use and infrastructure use and how they may affect the desires of policy change.

With regard to the methodology, the interaction of the researcher and the respondents inevitably influenced the responses and their interpretation. However, the researcher constantly reflected on the possible influence of age, gender, and status and made cross checks to avoid subjectivity. Furthermore, the databases of the study may not be strictly comparable within the district.

The fourth limitation was to do with the limited sites where the study was done. The results cannot be generalised beyond Solwezi district. However, the study outcomes painted what was really happening in the district and the phenomena and methodology could be a guide for researchers who desire to conduct a much wider study.

1.9 Operational Definition of terms

In this study, the following key terms are defined and given meaning in the context of the study.

Stakeholders-People or persons with a direct interest, involvement and investment in children's education, that is the headteachers, teachers, parents, pupils NGOs and the DEBS.

Change- A deliberate innovation or transformation attempted to improve practice in relation to certain desired objectives (Dalin, 1973:36, 1978:20 in Slater, 1985:447). Thus **change, transformation, innovation and reform** in this study will be used interchangeably.

Basic education- Education running from grades 1 to 9 with the aim of imparting knowledge and skills into learners which would make them live independently in society.

Primary education- Education running from grades 1 to 7 with an aim of imparting learners with elementary education.

Policy- A program or course of action adopted or proposed by the Ministry of Education, Science and Vocation Training and Early Education of Zambia.

Perspective-An attitude or opinion of a stakeholder.

1.10 Organisation of the study

Chapter One presents the background of the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research objectives, and research questions, significance of the study, delimitation and limitations of the study, theoretical framework and operational definition of terms used in the dissertation.

Chapter Two focuses on review of literature. This chapter provides a review of relevant literature to the problem under study that is stakeholders' perspectives on the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure.

Chapter Three provides an in-depth look into the research methodology used in the dissertation. Included under this chapter are: research design; target population; research site; sample size; sampling procedure; research instruments; validity and reliability; pilot study; data collection; data analysis; reflections ethical issues.

Chapter Four presents the research findings using research objectives as thematic guides. The results in this chapter are sequentially arranged in two forms. The first form is quantitative in nature while the second one is qualitative in nature.

Chapter Five covers the discussion of the findings. The discussion is based on the research objectives to show the research outputs in relation to the problem being investigated.

Chapter six presents a summary of the findings and conclusion drawn from the results. It also presents the recommendations made based on the findings of the study and a proposed future research.

1.11 Summary of chapter one

The chapter presented an introduction to the study, (stakeholders' perspectives on the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure) by outlining the major features. These are the background to the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, objectives of the study, research questions, and delimitation of the study, limitations to the study, theoretical framework, and definitions of terms.

The chapter which follows focuses on literature review. It provides a general review of the relevant literature to the problem under discussion.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW.

2.0 Overview.

The chapter provides a review of literature surveyed on the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure in Zambia. The presentation is organised under the following subheadings: A historical background of Basic Education in Zambia; post-independence education policies as presented in the 1977, 1992 and 1996 national policy documents on education with regard to Basic education and the structure of the Zambian school system; policy definition; policy making and scope; Role players and factors in policy making; Generation and evaluation of policy options; Planning policy implementation; Implementation of basic education policy in Zambia; Policy impact assessment; Stakeholders and the policy change process and selected Case studies of educational reforms around the world.

2.1 Basic education system in Zambia: Historical background.

In Zambia, basic education as a concept and educational policy objective can be traced back to the notions of the nationalist leaders under the United Nation Independence Party (UNIP) about the future of education in the country. Its roots were in the nationalist leaders' dislike of the colonial oppression and racial discrimination, a practice which denied basic facilities and services for a decent life to the indigenous people. To the nationalists, the ultimate goal of a fair society was in the extent to which its members were able to have access to the basic facilities of life, and education being one of them. The colonial educational policy and practice did not provide people with such an opportunity (Lungwangwa, 1987).

The African educational system, as inherited by UNIP that formed government in 1964, was mostly run or controlled by voluntary agencies. For example, 56.4 percent of the primary school enrollment was managed by voluntary agencies compared to 43.6 percent by local education authorities and government (GRZ/MoE, 1964). The objectives of the nationalists in education were: compulsory primary education for all children, quantitative expansion of the educational system at all levels, removal of colour bar in educational facilities and opportunities and the development of technical education.

These aspects of education policy were stated in the UNIPs election manifesto of 1962. (UNESCO, 1964)

In its manifesto, prior to the general elections, it was the view of the leaders of UNIP that primary education in the country should not only be made universal, but it should be compulsory. Compulsory primary education by implication meant offering school places to all children up to junior secondary level, that is, (Form II). This was the case because of the education structure that existed at the time: namely, 8 years of primary education, 2 years of junior secondary education and 4 years of higher secondary. By the time the child reached sixteen years old, he or she should have completed junior secondary.

However, it was not the nationalists aim to provide compulsory education up to senior secondary school level. Rather, they envisaged a complete system of education beginning with optional attendance at pre-primary school; compulsory education throughout primary school; compulsory attendance at an institute giving some form of secondary instruction and for those who were best fitted to continue attendance at centres of higher education such as colleges of technology, and teacher training colleges (UNESCO, 1964).

On the other hand, the policy of compulsory primary education up to 16 years referred to primary education and some form of post-primary education. This would take the form of training after primary level for those children who could not afford to proceed beyond primary school level, before a system of 10 years of compulsory education up to junior secondary would be implemented. The concept of compulsory primary education for all children between 5 and 16 years was interpreted to mean free education for all children in this age because the corollary of compulsory primary education was that it should be free.

2.1.1 Post-independence education policy: The organization and control of education was changed significantly after independence (Kelly, 1999). In addition to the provision of compulsory free education and desegregation of schools, the nationalists wanted to expand the education system and the arguments for changing the educational setup were stated as follows:

First, in an independent country which subscribes to a democratic way of life, the national interest requires that there should be equality of educational opportunity for all

and without regard to racial, tribal or religious affiliations; second, in a young country, the system of education must foster a sense of nationhood and promote national unity without necessarily incurring uniformity; and third, in a developing country seriously deficient of trained manpower, an urgent objective of education must be to sub serve the needs of national development without in the process frustrating the full development of individual abilities and satisfactions (GRZ/MoE,1964)

With these objectives in mind, the major task of the independent government was to integrate the different systems of education that existed in the country with the objective being to promote a unit of purpose. In short, political independence, led to a shift from local control to state control of education.

Some of the proposed changes included the establishment of a multi-racial system; shortening of the primary cycle from 9 years to 7 years; abolition of tuition fees in schools; increased enrollment of girls in secondary schools through a grade point lower than that of boys; and establishment of a common examination system throughout the primary cycle and the secondary cycle. And since the focus was that of racial disparities especially between the Africans and Europeans in educational services, these changes were mainly structural. They were structural in that they did not address themselves to such issues as the disparities in education achievements between different social-economic groups or among groups from different regions (UNESCO, 1963).

As a departure from the planners' exclusive focus on expanding the inherited colonial education system which put emphasis on the production of manpower as a the right direction towards economic development, Dr. Kenneth Kaunda, the first President of Zambia emphasised three points specifically in justifying the need for change in the educational system in his address to the nation in 1970. His three points were to establish a national system of education, the need to give due emphasis to the primary school level and the need to broaden the support of the school system to include the community within which schools were established (GRZ/MoE, 1970).

The seventies in other words, was a decade in which the Zambian government expressed significant interest in a basic education system. The interest in basic education system

was stated at different points. In its report after the First National Education Conference, the Ministry of Education recommended that the government should concentrate its resources on some form of universal basic education with a length of course ranging from 7 to 10 years (GRZ/MoE, 1970). Another indication of the governments' interest in basic education system came in 1973. In June 1973 President Kaunda appointed an Ad Hoc Committee on education to evaluate the educational developments in the country and suggest policy directions for the decade 1974 to 1984 to the government. In terms of priority the Ad Hoc Committee reiterated the need for the government to establish a system of 10 years compulsory schooling for every child (UNIP, 1974).

An elaborate and definitive commitment to a system of basic education in Zambia arose out of the educational reform movement that began in 1974 and finally culminated in a "policy" document entitled Education for Development: Draft Statement on Educational Reform (GRZ/MoE, 1976). According to the Ministry of Education, the document was a draft statement on how the education system was to be changed. After a national debate of the draft document, which lasted for almost one year, the government came out with an education policy document entitled Educational Reform: Proposals and Recommendations in October 1977 (GRZ/MoE, 1977). In this document, the government, among other things recommended that there be established a "Basic Education System of 9 Years" instead of the proposed ten years. The objective of this system was to build a national education system that would allow participation by individuals and organisations. The process of implementing the proposed system of basic education was envisaged to be accomplished through restructuring the inherited educational system.

It was not until January 1983 that the Ministry of General Education and Culture announced that the interim structure of the proposed basic education system was to be implemented with immediate effect (Zambia Daily Mail, 1983). A period of almost 6 years had elapsed without any progress of expanding basic educational facilities proposed in 1977. The delay in expanding basic education as envisaged in the educational reforms of 1977 was partly a result of a clearly misconceived implementation process. For instance, no definite period was set when the process of expanding basic educational

facilities would start. In other words, the Zambian government's proposed policy on basic education was not accompanied by a carefully stated planned implementation process. For instance, it lacked a clearly-stated process of resource mobilisation (GRZ, 1978)

2.2 Policy definition.

Since the policy process is a crucial element in educational planning, it is essential to clarify the concepts of 'policy' and 'policy making' before proceeding any further. The concept of policy is not a precise term. Policy denotes among other elements, guidance for action. It may take the form of a declaration of goals, a declaration of general purpose and an authoritative decision. Therefore, there is no single definition of policy which is universally accepted. For instance, Ranney (1968:7) defines policy as “a declaration and implementation of intent”. Hanekom (1987) also describes policy as making known, the formal articulation, the declaration of intent or the publication of a goal to be pursued. Whereas Peters (1993:4) defines policy as “the sum of government activities, whether they are undertaken officially or through agents to influence the lives of citizens”, Bates & Eldredge (1980:12) define policy as “...a statement that provides a guide for decision- making by members of the organization charged with the responsibility of operating the organization as a system”. Theodoulou & Cahn (1995) note that policy is what the government says and does about perceived public problems.

In analyzing the definitions of what policy is, Mokhaba (2005), using Ranney's (1968) definition of policy, implies that consensus has been reached as to what should be done for society. The statement of Hanekom (1987) would mean that government must put in writing its aim in a particular matter. Not only should the aim be stated, but the process or processes to be followed to achieve the stated objective should be clearly spelt out. The definition, by Peters (1993), entails that government should apply its mind to problems that face society and formulate appropriate steps that will remedy the situation. Actions that are taken should aim at improving the living conditions of citizens.

A policy, then, could be defined functionally to mean: An explicit or implicit single decision or group of decisions which may set out directives for guiding future decisions, initiate or retard action, or guide implementation of previous decisions (Michael, 1980).

2.3 Policy making and scope.

The term 'policy making' like 'policy' implies competing conceptions and assumptions. A study of the theoretical and empirical work of social scientists reveals the two essential dimensions of policy making: who does it (the actors) and how (the process). Historically, the actor in policy making has been considered unitary and rational. But more recently policy analysts have introduced the organizational (public interest) model and the personalistic (self-interest) model. The process element has fluctuated between a comprehensive approach and an incremental approach. Lindblom and Cohen (1979) laid out the differences between the comprehensive and incremental methods of policy making. According to them, the comprehensive method entails, in its extreme form, one single central planning authority for the whole of society, combining economic, political, and social control into one integrated planning process that makes interaction unnecessary. It assumes: (a) that the problem at hand does not go beyond man's cognitive capacities and (b) there exist agreed criteria (rather than social conflict on values) by which solutions can be judged and (c) that the problem-solvers have adequate incentives to stay with comprehensive analysis until it is completed (rather than 'regress' to using incremental planning).

Policy making is the first step in any planning cycle and planners must appreciate the dynamics of policy formulation before they can design implementation and evaluation procedures effectively. Policies, however, differ in terms of their scope, complexity, decision environment, range of choices, and decision criteria. They are grouped as: Issue-specific policies, Programme policies, Multi-programme policies and Large scale or Strategic policies.

Issue-specific policies: These are short-term decisions involving day to day management of a particular issue. For instance, when basic education is universalized (i.e. grade 1-9) what should be the core curriculum in basic schools? Subulwa (2004) writes that directives from MoE, particularly those directed towards the implementation of broad policy positions, fall in this category. For example the MoE circular to PEOs in 1998, instructing them to allow girls who became pregnant to go back to school after delivery was under issue – specific policies.

Programme directed policies: These policies are confined to a programme in a single area of the education system. For example: how to improve administration and managerial capacity in basic schools which was the focus of the training programme under BESSIP (Subulwa, 2004).

Multi-programme policies: These policies deal with competing programme areas in terms of choosing priorities. For example: how should we allocate public resources between Basic and High school education? For instance, Kelly (1999) observes that at the moment donor attention and government priority was in favor of revamping basic education at the expense of high school and tertiary education.

Large scale or strategic policies: These policies are concerned with broad resource allocations or issues of a strategic nature to a country or section of the education system. For example, the universalization of basic education from Grades 1-9, is an issue of a strategic nature to a country. This is because of the large financial resource allocations and equity considerations associated with such policies if adopted suggests (Subulwa, 2004). He further goes on to say that the broader the scope of a policy, the more problematic it becomes.

2.4 Role players and factors in policy making.

On account of the fact that policies affect the whole spectrum of the community, people from different walks of life (stakeholders) should and could contribute to policy formulation. Many individuals and groups take part in policy formulation. Some are more important participants in this respect than others. The following institutions and factors influence policy formulation: Public bureaucrats, think tanks, interest groups, members of legislative bodies, circumstances of the environment, needs and expectations of the society and political parties.

The public bureaucrats: The public bureaucrats (i.e. Appointed government officials) are responsible for translating lofty aspirations of political leaders into attainable concrete proposals. That is, government bureaucracies are central to policy formulation as Mokhaba (2005) quoting Cloete (1998) points out that those political executive office-bearers are well placed to influence the policies of the institutions entrusted to them. These office-bearers have at their disposal expert officials to advise them. In addition,

these office-bearers are leaders in the legislative institutions which have a final say in policy matters.

Think tanks and shadow cabinets: Significant sources of policy formulation are “think tanks”. These institutions usually consist of professional policy analysts and policy formulators who usually work on contract for a client. The “think-tanks” tend to be more creative and innovative than public institutions. A “think tank” could be requested by a public institution to solve a specific problem. Reports produced by a think tank have an element of respectability attached to it as they are produced by one or more experts. These “think tanks” have an inherent weakness in that the experts who constitute them have an unfortunate tendency to tell their clients what they want to hear.

Interest groups: These could also influence policy formulation. Numerous associations have been created by members of the public with interests. These groups from time to time approach government on policy matters, either to propose a new policy or an amendment of an existing policy or the scrapping of an unfavorable policy. The aim of the interest groups is to secure tangible benefits for their members through policy adaptations. In particular instances interest groups are represented in policy formulating bodies where their vote could count. This representation enables them to be a force to be reckoned with because they are in a position to bring pressure to bear on legislators. Interest groups participate in policy formulation by identifying public problems. It is up to decision makers to accept or reject policy proposals of interest groups. In general, policy choices advocated by interest groups tend to be conservative, incremental, rarely produce sweeping changes, and serve self-interest. A case in point is the educational reforms of 1977 where the elites whose conservative orientation dictated a gradualist approach to educational reform and implementation. This observation suggests that elite and incremental models of policy – making are particularly relevant to the understanding of some general causes and consequences of policy-making in developing countries. These groups broaden the range of interests represented in the policy-making. They provided a balance to the policy process and provide a strong voice for reform and change.

Members of legislatures: Members of legislature are significant functionaries in policy formulation. A number of them involve themselves in serious policy formulation activities. Just like interest groups, parliamentarians have interest in reform rather than in incremental changes. They use formulation and advocacy as means of furthering their careers by adopting roles as national policy makers instead of emphasizing constituency service.

Circumstances or the environment: Circumstances refer to the environment as a whole in which the government operates. The environment includes the state of community life with respect to economic, technological and social matters. Dry climatic conditions and land that is not arable have necessitated the formulation of policy with respect to conservation of water and forestry. Other factors that influence policy on the state of community life are: technological developments, expectations of society, population increase and urbanization, crises, natural disasters, War and depression, international treaties and economic and industrial development (Cloete, 1998).

Policies of political parties: Both in democratic countries and one-party state the leaders of political parties govern. The ways in which they govern their countries are based on their policies. It therefore, follows that when a new political party wins an election and thus comes into power, it could introduce policy change. Other matters which could change when a new political party takes over the government are priorities.

2.5 Generation and evaluation of policy options.

2.5.1 Generating policy options: New policies are usually generated when the present situation of the sector and its context is perturbed by a problem, a political decision or a re-organization scheme (Overall national planning). Policy options can be generated in several different ways to accommodate the disequilibrium. For analytical purposes one can group these processes under the following four modes: Systemic, incremental, adhoc and importation. In concrete situations, though, several of these modes maybe combined (Haddard & Demsky, 1994).

2.5.2 Evaluation of policy options: Policy options can be evaluated only if alternative scenarios are developed to allow estimations of the likely implications of the

options considered. The imaginary situation that would be created if a policy option were implemented is compared with the present situation, and the scenario of transition from the existing to the imaginary case is evaluated in terms of: desirability, affordability and feasibility (Haddad & Demsky, 1994).

Desirability: Desirability involves three dimensions: a) The impact of the option on the various interest groups or stakeholders, who would benefit? Who might feel threatened? How might the potential losers be compensated? What would make the option desirable to all stakeholders? b) Compatibility with the dominant ideology and targets of economic growth articulated in development plans and, c) In some cases, the impact of a policy option on political development and stability.

Affordability: The fiscal costs of the change as well as the social and political costs need to be evaluated. This is especially important because educational expenditures are more vulnerable to changes in economic situations and political objectives than some other kinds of public expenditures. Therefore, alternative economic scenarios need to be considered. Further, Private costs [will a reform require consumers to share the costs? and if so, what happens to the poorer groups?]; Opportunity cost [are there other measures which might benefit the education system, but would have to be forgone to pay for the current proposal?]; What are the political costs [if an option favors one group over another; is the government willing to pay the political costs?] (Haddard & Demsky, 1994).

Feasibility: A very different kind of implication is the availability of human resources for implementing the change. The more difficult is the estimate of what level of training is required of teachers (the more sophisticated the programme and/or technology involved, the more highly trained the personnel need to be) and whether there are enough personnel to implement the policy option.

Another element to observe is time. Most studies of education projects indicate that there are frequent time overruns in implementation. More realistic estimates of time need to be made and can only be done by the careful assessment of the implementation capabilities and experiences. The issue of sustainability should fare prominently

when the above criteria are applied. Education initiatives have to be sustained politically and financially over a lengthy period of time to reach fruition.

2.6 Approaches to policy making.

Mokhaba (2005) citing Turton & Bernhardt (1998) distinguishes approaches to policy-making as: Rational approach; Incrementalist model; political interest group theory approach; Bargaining approach and Political system approach.

Rational approach: Also called the linear or mainstream model, is the most widely-held view of the way policy is made. It outlines policy-making as a problem solving process which is rational, balanced, objective and analytical. In this model, decisions are made in a series of sequential phases, starting with the identification of a problem or issue and ending with a set of activities to solve or deal with the issue. This model assumes that policy-makers approach the issues rationally, going through each logical stage of the process, and carefully considering all relevant information. If policies do not achieve what they are intended to achieve, the blame is often not laid on the policy itself, but rather on political or managerial failure during policy implementation asserts (Lindblom, 1968).

The rational approach has serious limitations and weaknesses. Many argue that in reality a great deal of policy-making does not fit this pattern. The model assumes that policy is the product of one mind, which often is not the case. The rational approach fails to evoke or suggest the distinctively political aspects of policy-making, its disorder and the consequent strikingly different ways in which policies emerge as Lindblom (1968:4) points out: “*A policy is sometimes the outcome of a political compromise among policy makers, none of whom had in mind quite the problem to which the agreed policy is a solution. Sometimes policies spring from new opportunities, not decided nevertheless happen*”.

In addition, the rational approach assumes a degree of perfection which policy-makers seldom achieve. The Criticisms leveled against the weakness of the rational approach led to the development of an alternative approach which was premised on the assumption of incrementality.

The incrementalist model approach: This is where policy-makers look at a small number of alternatives for dealing with a problem and tend to choose options that differ only marginally from existing policy. In this model, there is no optimal policy decision. It is considered that a good policy is one that all participants agree on rather than what is best to solve a problem. Incremental policy-making is essentially remedial; it focuses on small changes to existing policies than drastic fundamental changes. Policy-making in this approach is also serial in the sense that as mistakes become apparent the problems have to be revisited and corrected and new approaches to the issues are developed. Policy is not made once and for all, it is remade endlessly. The weakness of the incremental model is its inability to account satisfactorily for fundamental changes and for the fact that sometimes policy-makers behave in non-incremental manner (sometimes they behave as if they are dealing with radically different alternatives). It further has limitations in that as new decisions are built on the base of old programmes the decisions probably go wrong if the base itself is misdirected (Lindblom, 1968).

The political interest group theory approach: This theory stresses the importance of external pressure from interest groups or pressure groups. David Truman, one of the major theorists in this tradition, has emphasized that society is composed of multiplicity of competing groups and that it is impossible to explain policies without taking these into account. According to Truman (1995), groups make demands concerning particular policies according to three main clusters of variables; that is: The internal characteristic of each group, the relative strategic position in society of each group and the characteristic of government or governance procedures. The political interest group theory has limitations. In the more extreme form it tends to see policy simply as the result of group conflict and compromise. In addition, there is a tendency to play down the importance of the role of individuals and of organizational factors and environmental conditions, and the stress on conflict tends to mean neglect of elements of consensus and integration.

The Bargaining approach: This approach has been described as one in which policy reforms are presented as reasoned arguments. Policy is developed through debate

between state and societal actors. Participants present claims and justifications which others review critically. In this approach, language not only depicts reality in such arguments, but also shapes the issues at hand in the debates. Because of the controversial nature of much of the education policy-making process, bargaining models have clear application. The model could be adapted to provide a basis for studying bargaining between government agencies and officials.

The political system approach: Pioneered in political science by David Easton (1965), this is another model or approach. This approach is rooted in a criticism of development of policy as being top-down, not generated from the communities in which policies are implemented. It argues for “actor- perspective”, emphasizing the need to take into account the opinion of individuals, agencies and social groups that have a stake in how a system evolves. This approach does not promote interaction and sharing of ideas between those who make policy and those who are influenced most directly by the outcome. As a model, it is based on the assumption that political activities and behavior in a society or part of it are not interrelated, and that disturbances in one part inevitably does not affect others.

Another very different approach to policy-making is that of Theodore Lowi, a scholar in the field of public administration. Lowi (1970) assumes that policies determine politics, and that different kinds of policies may be associated with quite distinctive political processes. Thus, his examination of policy formulation begins with an analysis of the different outputs of government policy, and then attempts to establish systematic relationships between those outputs and differences in the processes from which they evolved.

Lowi (1970) distinguishes four basic types of policy output as: distributive, redistributive, regulative and constituent. He states that the policy characteristics of each are differentiated by different degrees of directness or indirectness in the application of legitimate coercion, and by the size of the unit (ranging from individuals to groups and to classes) to which the legitimate coercion is applied.

2.7 Planning policy implementation.

The six years delay in expanding and implementing the basic education sector as planned in the case of Zambia is an example of flawed planning policy implementation. Van Melter and Van Horn (1977) contend that once a policy has been chosen, planning for policy implementation should begin immediately. What was abstract during the planning stage begins to become concrete during implementation. Policy implementation encompasses actions by public and private groups that effect the achievement of objectives set forth in policy decisions (Van Melter & Van Horn, 1977).

Policies which have less problematic features have a great possibility for successful implementation than the policy having more problematic features and Policy implementation does not only or mainly depend on distribution of the political power in a society.

The resources available to policy actors are not uniform in all societies. Most of the public policy analysts argue that the success or failure of the policy implementation largely depends on the policy's content and context. The crucial role for implementation analysts is to identify the factors that affect the achievement of policy objectives and these are: resources, policy standards and objectives, communication, characteristic of the implementing agencies, political environment, and economic, social and cultural conditions.

Resources may include funds or other incentives in the program that might encourage or facilitate effective implementation. Funds and incentives are usually not adequate, a cause often cited for the failure of implementation efforts. Cleaves (1980) states that because of the few resources for execution many policies formulated in the Third World countries are highly problematic to implement. Resource availability is important for two reasons: First, Policies sometimes make demands on implementers that simply cannot be met without further infusion of money, skilled personnel, or other resources. Second, even where allocations are not absolutely necessary for effective implementation, the provision of additional resources can lessen the burdens on implementing agencies.

Standards and objectives elaborate on the overall goals of the policy decision. The profile of policy standards and objectives can be utilized to assess the quality, clarity consistency and accuracy of national level direction. Van Horn and Van Meter (1977) argue that if the policy standards when viewed longitudinally are inconsistent, confusing, unclear and inaccurate, then they will create problems that will seep into the policy delivery system. Therefore, if policies are to be implemented, as intended by the policy makers, then the goals must be clear and understandable to the implementers.

The political environment of implementing agencies affects the nature of policy performance and implementation. The extent of support for or opposition to the policy objectives by organizational superiors, public and private individuals, and groups influence implementation efforts and results, regardless of the positions of the implementers or the quality of the agency executing the programme.

Cultural norms may also affect the implementation of a particular policy. Cultural dimension pertains to society in which certain norms are distinct and clearly affect the implementation of government policy.

2.8 Implementation of basic education policy in Zambia.

In November, 1994, the Ministry of Education sent Circular No.14 of 1994 to all Provincial Education Officers and District Education Officers in the nine provinces entitled ‘Establishment of Basic Schools’ and it read in part as follows:

“This Circular serves to inform all Provincial Education Officers and District Education Officers that the Ministry of Education has now worked out policy guidelines for establishing basic schools in the country, (MoE, 1994).

In 1997, the Zambian education system with the structure 9-3-4, that is, nine years of basic education, three years of high school education and four years of tertiary education was enhanced through Basic Education Structural Support Implementation Programme-BESSIP, 1999-2003 and the Sector Plan 2003-2007. Through these two programmes, the Ministry of Education started implementing a comprehensive strategy for the

transformation of existing primary schools into basic schools and of secondary schools into high schools. In this transformation, efforts included the phasing out of grades 8 and 9 classes from the secondary schools running from grade 8 to 12.

With the help of BESSIP, it was anticipated that the overall free education would result in an enormous expansion of enrolment in grades 8 and 9, which would in turn lead to much higher demand for high education. It was further anticipated that as more primary schools attained full basic school status, the grade 7 examination would play a progressively reduced role in the education system and would eventually be abolished (ECZ,2007). The practical problems of phasing out the grades 8 and 9 from the secondary level included the fact that: many basic schools did not have the facilities, learning materials and qualified teachers to handle the grades 8 and 9 curriculum areas e.g. science and home economics and hence the poor foundation and quality of many basic graduates could affect their performance negatively in grades 10 to 12. Grant aided and faith based institutions became reluctant to phase out the grades 8 and 9 classes in that they wanted to maintain continuity in terms of developing and inculcating moral and religious values in their schools.

In 2012, the Patriotic Front Political Party that formed government after 20th September, 2011 presidential and general elections, made an educational policy change in accordance with their manifesto which states the following:

“In order to raise the educational standards, the PF government shall:

- Re-introduce free and compulsory education for all (that is from grade one to grade twelve), taking care to control the “unofficial” fee collections that have proliferated under the MMD’s version of free education;*
- Provide adequate budgetary allocation on education to make free education a reality and further to cater for an appropriate expansion and up-grading of infrastructure and teaching resources;*

- *Upgrade all primary schools providing grades 1 to 4 to full primary schools (i.e., grade 1 to grade 7);*
- *Upgrade community schools to fully fledged primary and secondary schools;*
- *Review the language of instruction policy so as to promote the teaching of local languages at primary level;*
- *Phase out basic education and re-introduce a conventional early childhood, primary, secondary and tertiary education system;*
- *Open two paths for grade eight pupils based on their grade seven performance to follow up to grade twelve. One will be for learners who will follow an academic path and the other for learners who will follow a technical path.*
- *Re-orient the curriculum for primary and secondary schools to put emphasis on life skills subjects to enable learners cope with the demands of self-employment and the labour market*
- *Review the Education Act of 1966 in order to harmonize it with the current demands in the education sector (PF Manifesto, 2011)”.*

Through the Ministry of Education, Science and Vocational Training and Early Education (MoESVTEE) a pronouncement was made to abolish the 9-3-4 education structure, with nine years of basic, three years of secondary and four years of university education and re-introduced the 7-5-4 education structure, with seven years of primary, five years of secondary, and four years of university education. However, the pronouncement was not backed by any concept paper.

2.9 Policy impact assessment

Once the policy has been in place long enough to produce results, a policy assessment can take place. To carry this out, it is necessary to have some sense of how long it should take for the policy, once implemented, to take hold. Haddad & Demsky (1994) concur with Kremer (1990) and observe that while policy output measurement can be carried out on a continual basis, premature attempts

at assessment can mis-state the effectiveness of the policy. Furthermore, it is preferable to delay final assessment until a number of cycles have transpired to separate the effect of the contents of the policy change from the excitement which often accompanies implementing a new initiative for the first time. On the other hand, the sooner accurate assessment initiatives take place, the sooner policy-makers can know if their initiatives are working as anticipated or if adjustments in policy design or implementation are required.

For instance, if assessment reveals that the policy outcome is lacking, it is necessary to determine whether the policy itself is inadequate, or whether poor implementation is at fault. Human capital inadequacies, under-funding, or inadequate economic stimulus during the implementation stage are the many possible causes of failure of a well-designed policy. Kremer (1990) further points out that if assessment reveals deficiencies in outcomes and if implementation can be shown to have been well done, then it is necessary to re-examine the policy decision and to determine what adjustments or what new policies should be substituted for the original choice. Once this is done, then one moves again to the planning and implementation stages given the rapid pace of contemporary change and their intimate links between the educational system and the rest of society even successfully conceived and implemented initiatives require adjustments over time.

2.10 Stakeholders and the policy change process

Sarason (1995) indicates that broad stakeholder participation is a key ingredient for any change process in education. Among others, stakeholder participation is one of the elements of the conceptual framework of the general change process.

Broad stakeholder participation is the fundamental bedrock upon which all other aspects of the conceptual framework of the general change process are built. Without broad stakeholder participation, the other elements of the framework lose their meaning and sense of purpose (Sarason, 1995).

Educational stakeholders are the people in a community (e.g., parents, teachers, students, civil servants, and clergy) that have a vested interest, or “stake,” in the education system. Clinton (1996) emphasised that even those who may not have children in the schools at a

particular point in time must be vested. The major reason he gave was that the welfare of every stakeholder in a democracy depends to some extent on the welfare of all other members of that community, and therefore, they should be interested in ensuring that every child be provided with the best educational opportunities in order to continue the improvement of their community. The education of children has a direct influence on the quality of government, level of crime, and amount of retirement support that all members of our society can expect (Goodlad, 2002). These are a few of the reasons why all members of a community should be vested in their public educational system. Without this vested interest by a broad and diverse base of stakeholders, the democratic goals of a society are likely to become unattainable.

Recently, with the sense of urgency to change and improve public schools in the United States and other countries, parents have been asked to join school-based management (SBM) teams. SBM teams give parents the opportunity to get involved in important matters and to begin to take ownership by being a part of the school decision-making process (Fine, 1993). In his book, *Parental Involvement and the Political Principle*, Sarason (1995:7) characterized “the political principle” with these words: “When you are going to be affected, directly or indirectly, by a decision, you should stand in some relationship to the decision making process”. Asking parents to be a part of decision-making in a change process is clearly a step toward helping parents not only to get involved, but also to take ownership of the change process.

For example, in the Metropolitan School District of Decatur Township, parents and other community members were members of the district-wide “Leadership Team,” which was empowered by the school board and superintendent to lead their systemic change process (Reigeluth & Stinson, 2007). These community members had equal voice with the other stakeholders on the team: teachers, administrators, non-teaching staff, and school board members.

However, the dialogue surrounding involvement needs to shift from seeking only parental involvement to seeking and developing broad stakeholder participation (Fine, 1993). This was accomplished in the Decatur Township school district by developing the capacity of all members of the team to make decisions about the change process as well as about the

desired changes for the school district (Reigeluth & Stinson, 2007). All Leadership Team members were strongly encouraged to share their thinking with others in their stakeholder groups and to bring forward ideas of those others.

Bringing stakeholders together who have diverse backgrounds, experiences and opinions strengthens the change process. If voices of stakeholders are left out, particularly the voices of those who have been historically marginalized, then the change process is weakened and is more susceptible to adverse reactions from very same stakeholders.

When it comes to engaging parents and other stakeholders in a systemic change process, Banathy (1996:228) expanded Sarason's notion of "the political principle" with this profound statement:

"When it comes to the design of social and societal systems of all kinds, it is the users, the people in the system, who are the experts. Nobody has the right to design social systems for someone else. It is unethical to design social systems for someone else. Design cannot be legislated, it should not be bought from the expert, and it should not be copied from the design of others. If the privilege of and responsibility for design is given away, others will take charge of designing our lives and our systems. They will shape our future".

Banathy (1996) transcended "the political principle" based on decision making, to offer a political principle based on designing, and seizing ownership of designing, a new educational system.

In order for a broad range of stakeholders to feel a sense of ownership in an educational change process, their roles would need to fundamentally change. They not only would need to be involved and help make decisions, but would also need to become creators, designers and visionaries of a new and fundamentally different educational system (Reigeluth, 2007). As in the Decatur Township, stakeholders evolved their mindsets, developed a systems view, and understood the systemic change process to be able to begin the process of designing a new educational system (Reigeluth & Stinson, 2007).

In its survey study, UNESCO (1996) indicated that the first step in the policy framework approach to policy implementation is to engage the stakeholders. This may include organized interests (such as organizations representing a whole sector), or simply individuals that may be affected by the outcome of a given policy. Freeman (1984) made a persuasive case that systematic managerial attention to stakeholder interests is critical to firm success. The role of NGOs for instance is particularly important, since their active involvement in specific topics has promoted transparency, and enabled consensus-building in policy implementation (Appelstrand, 2002).

Stakeholder consultation processes for policy making have also assumed increasingly important in policy making. Impact Assessment regulations have brought consultations to the fore as a formal mechanism for policy formulation and policy options (Commission, 2001). Stakeholder consultations are expected to improve the quality of policy making and to ensure plurality of views into policymaking (Commission, 2002; Radaelli, 2005). The importance of stakeholder input, ensuring plurality of views, was also reinforced in the strategic review of Better Regulation (Commission, 2008). Thus, stakeholder consultations are important for policy making at all levels.

In India researchers at the University of Edinburgh concluded that lack of consultation led to failure of India's "Operation Blackboard", a government programme that aimed to ensure that all schools had at least two rooms and two teachers, and that all teachers had a package of essential teaching aids. However, the programme fell apart because of failure to consult teachers or representatives at the planning stage (VSO, 2002). Poor or nonexistent management training of managers has led to ineffective implementation of national policies and misapplication of resources.

Rajan (2002) states that consulting people entails an implicit "promise" that, at a minimum, their views will be considered during the decision-making process. This does not mean that every issue or request must be acted upon, but it does mean being clear with people about which aspects of the project are still open to modification based on their input, and which are not. It also means taking feedback received during the consultation process seriously and making best efforts to address issues raised through changes to project design, proposed mitigation measures, or development benefits and

opportunities. Inevitably there will be limitations, both commercial and practical, in the degree to which stakeholder demands can be met. At other times, making modifications as a result of stakeholder feedback will make good business sense and contribute to local development, or can be done as a gesture of good faith and relationship-building.

For projects that have environmental and social impacts, consultation will not be a single conversation but a series of opportunities to create understanding about the project among those it will likely affect or interest, and to learn how these external parties view the project and its attendant risks, impacts, opportunities, and mitigation measures (Swat,2000). Listening to stakeholder concerns and feedback can be a valuable source of information that can improve project design and outcomes and help a company to identify and control external risks (James, 2003). It can also form the basis for future collaboration and partnerships. For stakeholders, a company's consultation process is an opportunity to get information, as well as to educate company staff about the local context in which a project will take place, to raise issues and concerns, ask questions, and potentially help shape the project by making suggestions for the company to consider and respond to.

Dean (1999) affirmed that involving stakeholders helps make agreements more enduring, facilitates the development of ownership and increases support for a particular action. Stakeholder involvement can be features of risk management, quality assurance and sustainable development that should be at the core of every policy agenda.

Engaging stakeholder is important and has an impact in all stages of the policy cycle:

- In the agenda setting stage, stakeholders can be important drivers to help a subject gain momentum and push it forward on the political agenda;
- In the process of developing a strategy, stakeholders are vital partners to define the broad concept and the actions connected to the strategy and make it more representative;
- In the implementation phase, stakeholders are important to lend actions robustness and to facilitate acceptance among relevant interest and target groups;

- In the evaluation stage, they can grant access to important sources of information; and
- In the review stage, their experiences and opinions are valuable to help improve strategies and actions.

In other words, policy makers benefit from stakeholder engagement ‘as a means to improve communications, obtain wider community support or buy-in for projects, gather useful data and ideas, enhance public sector or corporate reputation, and provide for more sustainable decision-making.’

Dolby (1998) also affirmed that Stakeholder involvement should be at the heart of any “sustainable development” agenda. Without involving stakeholders, there can be no common enduring agreement, ownership or support for a particular project or programme. A venture is more likely to succeed, especially in the long-term, if it takes into consideration the environment in which it operates and endeavours to meet the needs of the stakeholders affected by it. Stakeholder involvement could be viewed as a form of risk management. Many projects, but not necessarily all, will need to engage with a wide range of stakeholder groups, each with their own concerns, needs, conflicts of interest and levels of influence. In order for the pieces of the project plan to be effective, planners and project managers need to understand who the stakeholder groups are, what their issues are, and what motivates them.

Dolby (1998) further affirms that effectively involving the full range of stakeholders in the search for solutions is crucial. Involvement is most important when the active participation and cooperation of citizens is required as part of the solution. ‘To be successful in addressing whole of government issues, especially where the challenges are complex and longstanding, requires the substantial involvement of the people and communities affected. Because policy problems are often imperfectly understood it is important that they are widely discussed by all relevant stakeholders in order to ensure a full understanding of their complexity. If a resolution of a policy issue requires changes in the way people behave, these changes cannot readily be imposed on people. Behaviours are more conducive to change if issues are widely understood, discussed and owned by the people whose behaviour is being targeted for change.

2.11 Selected case studies of education policy reforms around the world.

Peru: A case of comprehensive/revolutionary approach: Peru provides a case where a government undertook policy reform in the, comprehensive model. The reform embraced the entire education system, from primary school all the way through to the university. It aimed at integrating practical and academic subjects in ways that would provide the country with the intellectual power and the complete range of skills to achieve sustained economic and social development. It aimed equally at resolving issues of equity and external efficiency. This policy was well calculated and comprehensive, and was developed through a systematic process of diagnosis, response and action within a carefully planned programme. The reform, however, was considered a failure.

Lessons/findings from Peru education policy reform: The Peruvian reform clearly demonstrates a case of a highly calculated, systematic, internally consistent, and comprehensive mode of policy making. The case pivoted on a 'unitary, rational' revolutionary actor, the military government, who through a systematic and technical process of diagnosis, response and action went about finding the 'correct' solutions to educational problems, and radically reforming the system. Educational policies were formulated on the basis of a serious diagnosis of the economic, social and educational situation. They were conceived within a carefully planned programme of action for reforming the whole national structure. Plans for the education sector itself were characterized by a high degree of internal logical deduction and comprehensive coverage.

Among the flaws identified of the Peruvian education policy reform was the manner in which policy options had been generated by the military planners and their civilian advisors. Due to the influence by the top-down discipline of the military hierarchy, the government acted as if, once it had identified the best option for Peru, the citizenry would listen and respond to the new orders. Missing was an understanding of the difficulty of rapidly altering basic cultural values and the profound link in the family between these values and parents' aspirations for their children. While the egalitarian revolutionary objectives of the new regime were applauded in principle by Peru's citizens, they clashed sharply with deeply held individualist aspirations for securing social mobility. And rather than recognizing the importance of these values for its citizens and developing policy

options which took them into account, the military regime concentrated on plans fitting with their deductively generated view of the needs of Peru as a collectivity.

Despite elaborate efforts at consultation and public education, the Velasco regime could not convince enough Peruvian citizens that they and their families could, as individuals, actively participate in the government's revolutionary reform.

The process of making the policy decision was, itself, a mixture of strengths and weaknesses. The strengths largely derived from the broad based and lengthy attempts at consultation carried out by the military regime as well as the clarity of the ultimate decision as articulated in the 1972 decree-law. The weakness was in the inability of the military to see, as a result of the undercurrent of dissatisfaction present from the beginning to the end of its consultations that the reform was too revolutionary to be accepted by its citizens, at least in the short run. In addition, to make matters worse, to the extent that the government was aware of the improbability of success, it decided on a process of staged implementation. This allowed citizens and communities who preferred Peru's traditional educational system to the regime's revolutionary reform to exercise their opposition.

Goals were set and committed reformers moved full steam ahead to make plans to implement them. Reluctantly, they were slowed down by signs of popular nonsupport and erosion of foreign support. Foreign help was particularly crucial for the most experimental aspects of the reform such as the ESEP professional education schools. Doubts about the feasibility of the reform's objectives slowed down the flow of foreign technical and financial support which initially had hailed the Peruvian experiment as path breaking for its plans to implement diversified education full-scale. By 1980, only a ghostly skeleton of the 1972 reform had been implemented. All this points to the vital linkages between the educational system and the socio-politico-economic structure.

Any policy change, therefore, is not purely technical or unitarily rational. Different interest groups each have their own legitimate 'rationality' for understanding and

responding to an educational initiative. Rather than perfecting the 'correct' reform to be implemented by obedient managers, and converting the public to the unitary rationality, it is certainly more productive, in the long run, to seek to understand the processes through which trade-offs are accomplished among the interests underlying the various rationalities relevant to a given policy choice.

Jordan: A case of going from the incremental to the comprehensive: In the early 1970s, the government of Jordan introduced an educational policy of secondary school diversification to resolve issues of manpower supply and employment. Fifteen years later, prompted by a deteriorating economic situation, the government undertook another reform that included the expansion of diversified education, but with substantial curricular changes. These aimed to increase the attractiveness of diversification to consumers and its relevance to changing domestic and international economic demands. Whereas Peru, reforming education during the same period, had used the comprehensive approach, Jordan initially adopted the incremental path.

Lessons/findings from Jordan education policy reform: The Jordanian case illustrates how the policy-planning process itself and the actors involved can change over time. The process evolved from a limited incremental approach, essentially directed by the international community, to a comprehensive approach, with input from all of the relevant interest groups, domestic and international.

The approach to policy development proved advantageous in many respects: a) there was no need for long-term and elaborate planning at the national level - only at the project level; b) implementation would be relatively easy because no national or conceptual reform was involved; c) no political mobilization or intense bureaucratic negotiations were necessary; and d) no major institutional changes were needed to accommodate the policy modifications. In addition, little political opposition was anticipated; because of the limited risks involved, no group felt the need to present its case in terms of comparative advantages and disadvantages of the policies under consideration.

On the negative side, there were disadvantages to the incremental approach: because it was very 'low risk', the government was not as inclined to invest much in terms of political capital or other resources to carry it off successfully. This resulted in poor planning which impeded implementation. Further, because it was an 'isolated' response to the imbalance between the needs of the economy and the output of the education system, apparently affecting only a sub-sector of the system, implications for the rest of the system were not drawn. In comparison to the three policy cycles, the second cycle demonstrated a more highly calculated, systematic and comprehensive mode of policy making. Its success depended on three things: First of all, it was reached after an exhaustive process of review, assessment, and analysis of the education system that included high level representatives from both the public and private sectors. Second, even though it was comprehensive and strategic, as in the first cycle, it also incorporated a phased implementation plan; experience in each phase was to be systematically monitored and evaluated and the results used as feedback for modifications of future phases. Finally, the process was driven by a combination of strong political will at the highest levels, and a sophisticated, technical machinery.

Thailand: A case of going from the specific to the strategic: Around 1966, the government of Thailand introduced a scheme to pilot a new policy for secondary school diversification. The aim was to resolve a specific issue: a perceived mismatch between general secondary education and the needs of a swiftly changing labour market. Initially, the policy was limited to that one issue and a few schools. About 10 years later, it was expanded on two levels; geographically, to cover the nation, and politically, to resolve strategic issues of equity, democratization and national unity. The broadened policy has since been well received and implemented, and has been relatively successful in meeting its main objectives.

Lessons/findings from Thailand education policy reform: As in the case of Jordan, the process of introducing diversified education into Thailand demonstrates an evolving approach to policy making. In the mid-1960s, the national objectives were rather narrow (concerning manpower needs), so the government adopted an 'issue-specific' policy. The

approach was incremental and conservative where the government wished to see how diversified education would be accepted, and viewed this as a pilot programme.

During the second policy cycle, when the government was reviewing whether to carry on with diversified education or to abandon the effort, it had several objectives to meet: manpower needs, national unity and educational equity. Therefore, the policy had to be 'strategic' in order to meet this diversity of objectives. Again as in Jordan, implementation throughout the two policy cycles was incremental.

Thailand education policy reform succeeded better with diversified education than in other countries where it was tried because diversified education was not taken as a second class education and did not trade access to education as quality, instead, the diploma of the diversified schools was fully equal to that of the college preparatory schools. In addition, diversified education was not a terminal programme, liable to be seen as a dead-end. There was a great deal of flexibility in the new curriculum which required students to take practical courses, but still enabled them to go on to university, if they chose.

Second, because the policy was initially narrow in scope, or incremental, it did not provoke the type of controversy or violent reaction that a more comprehensive approach might have had.

Third, the policy was considered at a national level, which is to say from a comprehensive approach, only after limited pilot projects had proved it to be successful. The incremental nature of the first policy cycle gave the Thais an opportunity to test the acceptance of the policy. The promise of financial support from the international community which was promoting diversified education at the time tipped the balance in favour of the policy, and limited the way in which other options were evaluated. However, the Thai education authorities did not just accept project loan money but experimented with pilot programmes, to see if they could build a demand for this type of education. When they achieved acceptance and demand, they built a consensus within the government and within the donor community, and eventually came up with a policy that had a definitive Thai character.

Fourth, the incremental nature of implementation allowed a 'learning by doing', and the Thais benefited from the opportunity of making changes based on feedback as the policy progressed.

Though not necessarily inherent to the incremental implementation approach, the implementation process in Thailand contributed greatly to the success of the policy. The decision to make diversified education the predominant mode of secondary schooling was made at the central level, by the reform committee; however, during implementation local providers and consumers of education were included in the process.

The policy makers placed much weight on the criterion of desirability than on the criteria of implementability and affordability in evaluating policy options, especially in the second policy cycle and hence success of diversified education in Thailand when it had failed in most other countries, clearly underscores the crucial role of the policy decision making and implementation process,

Burkina Faso: A case of an externally influenced comprehensive approach: At independence in 1960, the government of Upper Volta was faced with the need to expand primary education within the constraints of a severely limited national budget. In its first policy cycle, the government accepted advice to institute a system of rural nonformal education to provide primary education to its rural people, while the small urban populations would continue to have access to traditional primary schools. And its second policy cycle, in the early 1970s, the government chose to continue these parallel systems with some qualitative reforms of rural education. Finally, in its third policy cycle, in 1986, the government shifted away from rural education and made formal schooling the dominant mode of primary education.

Lessons/findings from Burkina Faso education policy reform: The introduction of rural non-formal education into Upper Volta in the first and second policy cycles clearly demonstrates a case of a comprehensive approach to policy making with a twist: one driven by external forces. The international actors were working within a mindset which

assumed that (1) there are universal concepts, or an internationally collected wisdom, which applies to any given situation, and (2) that this wisdom can be transferred into any country. In essence, they felt that, once one had a clear idea of the problem, the appropriate solution could simply be taken off the shelf, so to speak. Afterwards, all that was necessary would be to provide technical assistance and funding - with little attention paid to the country's demands and constraints. On the surface, it appeared that such a system of education would provide a more relevant form of basic education at a cost that the new government could afford. This policy had all the elements of success: international respectability, financial backing and a good chance for implementation because of the support of several large international organizations. In addition, the comprehensive approach employed in the policy-making process provided some advantages. First, the comprehensive nature of the reform helped create a critical mass which is necessary to any successful policy implementation. Second, the reform placed special emphasis on institutional development.

However, there were several fatal weaknesses in the policy-making process which made the policy led to the failure of the policy. The major flaw was that demand factors were totally ignored. The decision revolved around the experts' detailed examination of the situation. Though they briefly entertained ideas concerning alternative policy options, their biases predisposed them to favouring rural non formal education as the 'correct and only' solution to the problem. Therefore, they assumed that consumers of education would embrace it.

In the decision-making process, the government did not draw the proper implications from this option, overlooking the fact that it might be rejected by parents and students, because denying them access to the formal educational system would close off the only door to escape from their difficult subsistence existence.

Parents used the only means at their disposal to interfere with the reform (passive resistance). Rural teachers made up another interest group that was ignored in the decision-making process. These teachers subsequently demanded that they be treated like

primary teachers, accorded the same status and salary, which made the reform financially unviable.

Neither donors nor decision-makers in Burkina Faso saw the importance of bringing interest groups into the original decision-making process. Particularly after the first policy cycle, when they could see that rural education was not widely accepted, they identified the 'salesman' as the problem instead of the 'product': instead of recognizing that rural education was not being accepted in the countryside, because people did not want it, the decision-makers identified the Ministry of Education as the problem.

Second, the introduction and reform of rural non formal education were led by the international donor community; in this respect, the government was a 'follower' in the policy-making process. Once the donors entered the policy-making process, the scales were tilted. In effect, the international community's intervention in the policy process stifled it. The Voltaic government did not bother to analyze the implications of the reform, since aid organisations were going to fund it.

The fact that the policy was a creation of external players meant that the country itself was not necessarily committed to it - Upper Volta had no feeling of 'owning' this policy.

Third, the introduction of rural non formal education was so far-reaching that it was beyond the analytical and managerial capabilities of the voltaic authorities to design and to implement. Their third cycle demonstrates a departure from the earlier model of policy making. The government of Burkina Faso came to recognize the importance of the interaction among different interest groups, the many dimensions of policy making (the social, political, and financial aspects), and the importance of both providers and consumers of education instead. The process of the analytical evaluation of the different policy scenarios was greatly aided by a Computer Simulation Model. It was too early, to assess the degree of sustainability of this approach in generating a policy that was socially and politically desirable, financially affordable, and nationally implementable and sustainable.

Education policy change in Malawi: A review of policy change projects in Malawi shows that regular and effective involvement among stakeholders can strengthen education quality improvement efforts. Collaborative policy and programming approaches were built into the earliest problem assessment stage of projects and remained central throughout the implementation and evaluation stages. Stakeholder interaction was instrumental in the widespread perception of success and the long-term sustainability of improvement efforts. Collaborative design and measures in Malawi helped fuel and capture the diversity of local innovations and provided space for communities and government personnel to collectively define and evaluate improvements to education quality.

Lessons/findings in Malawi education policy change: Lessons learned from Malawi show that ongoing consultation in the definition, implementation, measurement, and evaluation at every stage of an education quality improvement effort leads to greater effectiveness and increases the likelihood that the project or policy will meet the various stakeholders' needs. Effective involvement requires regularised discussions and feedback loops between stakeholders, relying on early development of data collection, management, and dissemination tools. Consensus building, rather than top-down directives, forms the basis of communications between stakeholders, with no single group being perceived as elite or exclusive (Allison, 1971). Project design must be flexible enough to respond to stakeholders' differing perspectives, changing needs, and varied expectations. Stakeholder interaction during planning and implementation also prevents unintended outcomes, promotes sustainability, and results in the project being judged a success by a wider audience.

Improving the effects of reform efforts is particularly important in resource-poor settings where failed development programs represent a particularly onerous burden on education systems. These findings from Malawi show that education quality improvement efforts are more effective when stakeholders collaborate on all aspects of the reform. Although including stakeholders from all levels in a single collective effort is not easy, the time and energy required to create and support ongoing collaboration will help ensure more effective, efficient, and sustainable education reform

2.12 Summary.

The chapter has reviewed related literature to the topic under study. From the literature reviewed there appear to be a gap on the views of stakeholders on the process of policy shift, consultation and implementation in the education sector in Zambia. This study therefore focusses on the Stakeholder's perspectives on the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure in Zambia in Solwezi district of the north-western province.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

3.0 Overview

This section describes the methods used in collecting data and how the data was analysed. It also outlines the research design employed, the target population, sample size and sampling method. Data collection procedure and analysis as well as the instruments used and the reason for choosing the stated instruments are also discussed.

3.1 Study Area

The study was done in Solwezi District of the North-Western Province covering twelve (12) schools out of one hundred seventy eight (178) basic schools in the district. All schools sampled were basic schools and were of rural, peri-urban and urban setting.

Figure 1. Location map of Solwezi District in North-Western Province



Source: Government of the Republic of Zambia, 2004b

3.2 Research design

This study was a descriptive survey on the stakeholder's perspectives on the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure. A mixed approach was used with greater focus on the qualitative strand. The reason for choosing a descriptive survey design was to allow for a full description of the state of affairs on the stated topic in the district. The description was based on the views collected from Headteachers, Teachers, Pupils, Parents, District Education Board Secretary (DEBS), Non-Governmental Organisations involved in education (NGO's) and Eminent educationists and retired officers who served in the Ministry of Education domiciled in Solwezi.

The strength of the descriptive survey is that it seeks to describe the state of affairs as it exists and can be used when collecting information about peoples' attitudes, opinions, habits or any of the variety of education or social issues (Orodho and Kombo, 2002). The study was conducted in twelve (12) basic schools involving rural, peri-urban and urban setting of the District.

3.3 Target Population

In this study, the target population involved all headteachers, teachers, pupils and parents in general. Others were workers of NGOs involved in education, the DEBS and officials from the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education headquarters. All the participants in the target population represented the sources from which the sample was drawn

3.4 Sample Size

A total of 248 respondents made a sample size for this study. The breakdown was as follows: 12 headteachers, 36 parents, 124 teachers, 72 pupils, 2 NGO representatives, 1 DEBS and 1 official from headquarters.

3.4.1 Demographic Profile and Geographical Location of Teachers.

This study took place between January and February 2013 when the first term became operational under the new educational policy change. The 124 teachers were drawn from schools in Solwezi district of North Western Province. In this sample, there were slightly more females $n = 69$ (55.6%) as compared to $n = 55$ (44.4%) males. A diverse range of marital status and education backgrounds was observed in the sample. Sixty seven (just

over fifty percent or 54%) were diploma holders, n = 48 (38.7%) were certificate holders, n = 8 (6.5%) were bachelor's degree holders and only 1 (n = 0.8%) had a master's degree. In relation to the respondents marital status, far more than half n = 80 (64.5%) were married and n = (35.5%) were single, widowed or separated (Table 1).

Table 1: Demographic profile of teachers

<i>Sex</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>
Male	55	44.4
Female	69	55.6
<i>Total</i>	<i>124</i>	<i>100</i>
<i>Highest academic qualification attained</i>		
Certificate	48	38.7
Diploma	67	54.0
Bachelors	8	6.5
Masters	1	.8
<i>Total</i>	<i>124</i>	<i>100.0</i>
<i>Marital status</i>		
Married	80	64.5
Single	41	33.1
Widowed	1	.8
Separated	2	1.6
<i>Total</i>	<i>124</i>	<i>100.0</i>

3.4.2 Geographic Location of teachers

At the time of the study, the mean years of service within the sample was 12.09. The mode was 5 years of service. The longest and shortest periods of service were 2 and 24 years giving a wide range difference of 22 years. Majority of the teachers (but less than half) in the sample were drawn from rural schools n = 55 (44.4%) n = 39 (31.5%) were drawn from urban schools and n = 30 (24.2%) were drawn from peri-urban schools as shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Geographical location of teachers

Geographic location	Frequency	Percent
Urban	39	31.5
Peri-urban	30	24.2
Rural	55	44.4
<i>Total</i>	<i>124</i>	<i>100.0</i>

3.5 Research Sample and Sampling Procedure

The sample was both purposively and stratified randomly drawn to ensure that specific groups were represented according to the researcher's discretion. These methods help target a group which is suitable to bring out rich information related to the central issue being studied for in-depth analysis (Black, 1999; Kombo and Tromp, 2009). The participants of this study comprised 248 respondents from respective basic schools, NGOs involved in education, parents in general and the DEBS' Office. The DEBS, parents, NGO representatives and head teachers were purposively selected because of their obvious influence in the implementation of the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure. On the other, teachers and pupils were selected using stratified random sampling so as to get proportionate figures of informants from rural, peri-urban and urban schools. The selection was based on the researcher's discretion and knowledge. All the aforementioned participants were targets because they are key in the implementation of the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure.

3.6 Research instruments

Since the study was intended to be a descriptive survey, both quantitative and qualitative data were collected and three instruments were employed in data collection for the study. These included: the survey questionnaires, interview guides and focus group meetings. Key informants such as headteachers and officials from the Ministry of Education were subjected to in-depth interviews.

3.6.1 Questionnaire

The questionnaire (Appendix C) was used as one of the instruments for data collection and contained closed-ended questions throughout. The questionnaire was divided into

Section A and B. Section A collected data on the demographic features of the participants such as gender, age years in service. The purpose of section B was to collect data on the participants' views on the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure.

At every school, the researcher worked hand in hand with either the school administration or one of the respondents who assisted in distribution and collection of the completed questionnaires. The researcher finally collected the filled in questionnaires on an appointed date. 39 questionnaires were distributed to teachers in urban schools, 30 in peri-urban and 55 in rural schools, giving a total of 124.

The justification for using questionnaires is that they are cheap, do not require as much effort from the questioner as verbal or telephone surveys and often have standardized answers that make it simple to compile data. Creswell (2008) holds that an open-ended question asks the respondent to formulate his own answer, where as a closed-ended question has the respondent pick an answer from a given number of options. The response options for a closed-ended question should be exhaustive and mutually exclusive. However, he further argues that questionnaires are sharply limited by the fact that respondents must be able to read the questions and respond to them (Creswell, 2008).

3.6.2 Interview Guides.

For this study, one-on-one interview method was employed. The researcher asked questions and recorded answers from the ideal for respondents in the study one at a time. This enabled the respondents not to be hesitant to speak and enabled a comfortable environment in which the respondents could share ideas comfortably. The interviews usually took thirty (30) to forty five (45) minutes.

The researcher used semi-structured interview questions with the headteachers, parents, NGO representatives, and the DEBS. According to Bell (1993) semi-structured interviews allowed the respondents considerable degree of latitude. Although certain questions were asked, the respondents were given freedom to talk about the topic and give their views in their own time, unlike structured interviews where the respondent is limited to a range of responses previously developed by the researcher.

The justification to use in-depth interviews was in line with Dexter's position. Dexter (1970) reckons that interviews provide access to the content of a situation and make the researcher reach deeper meaning about the reality being studied. The use of interview guide was seen as an important tool in order to be sure that the same categories of information were obtained from a number of people about the phenomenon being studied (Patton, 1990). It is further argued that the interview guide provides topics or subjects areas within which the interviewer is free to explore, probe, and ask questions that will elucidate and illuminate that particular subject. Thus the interviewer remains free to build conversation within a particular area, to word questions spontaneously and to establish conversation style but with focus on a particular subject that has been predetermined.

3.6.3 Focus Group Discussions.

In this study, Focus Group Discussions were also conducted with pupils using a guide with questions based on the study (stakeholders' perspectives on the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure in Zambia). According to Patton (1990), focus group discussions are seen as important in order to assure that the same categories of information are obtained from a number of people about the phenomenon being studied.

Focus Group Discussions were conducted with each group having 6 participants. Just like the interviews were done, the focus group discussions with pupils were conducted after knocking off hours. This was done with a view of not disturbing and depriving the pupils of their learning hours. In all the 12 schools, the FGD with pupils were done successfully and interviews were sound recorded for further transcribing.

3.7 Validity and reliability.

An equally important aspect of the main study was reliability and validity. Validity is the extent to which a measurement measures what it is supposed to measure (Carmines and Zeller, 1979 and Gay, 1996).

Reliability is the extent to which a measurement procedure yields the same results on repeated trials in a qualitative study (Carmines and Zeller, 1972). According to Yin (1994), the main objective of reliability in research was to ensure that, if a later

investigator followed exactly the same procedures as described by an earlier investigator and conducted the same study all over again, the later should arrive at the same findings and conclusions. He concludes that validity subsumes reliability.

In order to ensure reliability of the findings, the data collected was verified using triangulation and respondent validation. Triangulation was done by comparing different kinds of data from different instruments to ascertain whether or not they collaborated. On the other hand, respondent validation was done by relating the findings with evidence from the available literature. And in order to ensure that the findings were valid, both triangulation and respondent validation was used. For instance, data collected from interviews was cross-checked with data collected from focus group discussions.

3.8 Data Collection Procedure.

Before conducting the main study, the researcher conducted a pilot study at two schools in Mwinilunga district immediately after the departmental proposal presentation in November, 2013. Mwinilunga district was selected conveniently because it had typical cultural features like Solwezi.

The importance of this pilot study did not just aim at conferring the dependability of the instruments but also rested on the need to assess the cost, feasibility, and methodology and data analysis for the main study (Nunan, 1992; and Polit and Beck, 2004). Following the pilot test, some questions were removed, others were reworded.

Data collection process for the main study commenced in the second week of the first term school calendar in in January, 2014. Primary data were collected through face to face interviews with the key informants. During the in-depth interviews with the headteachers, parents and NGO representatives and during the focus group discussions with pupils, the researcher recorded the conversation between the researcher and the respondents using a sound recorder equipment. The interviews and focus group discussions were used to get opinions from the stated respondents on the education policy of transforming of basic schools to primary schools by the Ministry of Education. The questionnaire was also administered to get data from teachers on the state of affairs. A Ministry of Education official from headquarters was also interviewed

3.9 Data Analysis.

The data were analysed qualitatively. Qualitative data which were gathered using open-ended questions in the interview guide were analysed using thematic analysis that is themes that emerged from the data. The data which were collected from closed-ended items in the questionnaire were analysed by the use of descriptive statistics in form of percentages and frequencies using Microsoft Excel 2013.

3.10 Reflections on Ethical Issues.

In order to adhere to Research principles, aspects related to ethical issues were taken into account during data collection. It was expected that the researcher would uphold the research ethics. When the researcher arrived at every site of study, he sought permission from site authorities to conduct research there. He further briefed them on the value of the research and the procedures to be used. The researcher also assured the school headteachers that participation by teachers, pupils, and parents was voluntary, hence the requirement for filling in Informed Consent Forms. The same assurance was given to the DEBS and the NGO representatives upon visitation of their sites. Participants were not coerced if unwilling to participate in this study. As a way of maintaining privacy and confidentiality, no authentic names have been mentioned but rather pseudo names where necessary. Furthermore, participants were assured that the data to be obtained would not be disclosed to any other persons. In respecting the research site, the researcher ensured minimum disruption of the smooth running of the sites. Finally, the researcher took full responsibility for the conduct of the study and as far as foreseeable, its consequences.

3.11 Summary of chapter three.

This chapter focused on the methodology that was used to generate data from the respondents. It discussed methodological aspects that were key factor to the collection and processing of data of this study. Aspects concerning reliability, validity and research ethics for this study were also discussed.

The next chapter will present the salient key findings of the study. Tabulations of tables where presented to illustrate the views of respondents on certain variables.

CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS.

4.0 Overview.

This chapter presents the findings of the study. The findings obtained for each of the variables that were investigated are presented separately in tables. Questionnaires, interview guides and focus group interviews were used with stakeholders. The stakeholders targeted included the following:

- Headteachers
- Teachers
- Pupils
- Parents
- District Education Board Secretary (DEBS)
- Non-Governmental Organisations involved in education (NGO's)
- Senior MoE officials

The study collected views from the above respondents pertaining to stakeholder's perspectives on the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure in Zambia. The questionnaire mainly utilized a Likert scale response format. The Likert format requested respondents to show whether they Strongly Agreed, Agreed, Disagreed or Strongly Disagreed with the statement posed in the questionnaire item or interview guide. This format was selected because of its ease of understanding to audiences with minimal familiarity with survey research. Neutral choices were eliminated on the basis of the pilot study as they tended to be over used by respondents. In order to compensate for the removal of the neutral choices, every effort was made to focus on topics about which the respondents could reasonably be expected to have an opinion. The statements posed in the questionnaire are shown above the tables showing the levels of agreement or disagreement

4.1 Objective one.

With respect to the first objective and the first research question, the table below was aimed at finding out views of the stakeholders on the consultation process on the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure.

Table 3: Views of stakeholders on the consultation process.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
7 (6%)	5 (4%)	56 (45%)	56 (45%)	124 (100%)

A total of 112 (90%) of the respondents generally disagreed with the assertion that stakeholders were consulted on the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure. Of these 56 (45%) strongly disagreed while 56 (45%) agreed. On the other hand, 12(10%) agreed with the assertion that stakeholders were consulted on the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure.

During the focus group discussions with pupils, some pupils observed that they were taken by surprise by the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure as it was quite abrupt. Some pupils hinted that their families may not be able to support them if grades 8 and 9 classes were taken to secondary schools in the township.

Some of the headteachers interviewed reported that they were only briefed by the District Education Office about the change but were never involved in the consultative process. It was observed that very few Headteachers were handpicked to attend orientation meetings for the change in the education structure at the District Education Office. Some headteachers complained that the change was just imposed on them.

Mr Shaman, Headteacher of a peri-urban school had this to say:

“The whole issue started as a rumour. We thought it was one of those things people discuss when they have nothing serious to talk about, but it is real. This change has come very strange indeed.”

One officer of a Non-Governmental Organisation (NGO) involved in education projects in Solwezi was interviewed and commented as follows:

“The Ministry of Education has a tendency of imposing changes on schools even when they know that GRZ cannot sustain some of the changes without technical and financial support. They should learn to consult”.

The teachers interviewed hinted that they were only informed about the change by their headteachers and some of them only heard about the pronouncements made by the Minister of Education from the electronic or print media. Some teachers complained that they were disappointed with the change because it did not add any value to the education system in their opinion. Grade 8 and 9 classes appended to primary schools helped a lot in providing access to junior secondary school education as in the past some pupils could not progress to grade 8 due to limited space in secondary schools.

A teacher at one of the rural school said the following:

“This change has taken us many years backwards. We shall have a situation in our schools where some pupils will be repeating grade seven many times due to limited space in secondary schools”.

Another teacher from the same school complained that:

“We shall go back to weekly boarding in some schools. When grade 8 and 9 classes are removed from our schools, our children will have to become weekly boarders in schools where grade 8 and 9 classes will be taken. Some children will end up stopping school especially the girl child”.

An in-depth interview with an officer at the District Education Office revealed that most of the teachers and headteachers were unhappy with the changes announced. It was noted

that schools had very little time to adapt to the changes as the changes were quite abrupt. It was further noted that some of the teachers were to be transferred to other schools especially for the schools that will be required to phase out grade 8 and 9 classes. Similarly, schools that would be upgraded to secondary schools will have to transfer all the teachers teaching in the primary section to other schools.

Some parents interviewed argued that before the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure, the government should have built secondary schools near basic schools to allow their children access secondary school education. It was observed that basic schools were cheaper in terms of fees and were more accessible than secondary schools. One parent complained that their children will end up stopping school with the phasing out of basic classes in schools.

“Our children especially girls will have a lot of problems in getting to secondary schools due to long distances and costs, government should have constructed secondary schools near basic schools if they are to help our children”, one parent complained.

Table 4: Management of the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
8 (33%)	10(42%)	4 (17%)	2 (8%)	24(100%)

During in-depth interviews with some headteachers and teachers, a total of 18 out of 24 of the respondents generally agreed that they faced problems in managing the transformation of basic schools to primary school. Of these 8 (33%) Strongly Agreed while 10 (42%) Agreed. On the other hand, 4(17%) Disagreed and 2(8%) Strongly Disagreed that schools had problems in managing the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure. Generally, it was reported that most schools had a lot of challenges during the initial stages of the transformation as the policy direction was not clear due to conflicting statements on the change. Some headteachers were advised to surrender all primary school teachers to the DEBS's Office for schools that were to be transformed into secondary schools and vice-versa. The conflicting messages in the schools caused a lot of divisions among teachers as the grade 8 and 9 teachers felt that they were more superior to primary school teachers in schools that were to be transformed into secondary schools. In some cases Headteachers and teachers who were transferred initially had to be brought back to their schools in some schools due to the quick response in the implementation by the District Education Office.

For some basic schools that have been transformed into secondary schools, primary school teachers have been transferred to other schools. One headteacher of an urban basic school turned into a secondary school commented:

“Though our school has been declared a secondary school, we have nothing to show and support pupils in senior grades due to lack of facilities. Our store rooms have text books for primary education. It will take time for us to become a secondary school”.

During Focus Group Discussions with pupils at an urban basic school turned into a secondary school, some pupils wondered why the changes came so quickly without adequate preparation to support the transformation. It was observed that primary school pupils who were asked to leave the school could not find space in the neighboring schools in the township. This caused a lot of anxiety as pupils who could not find space in the township schools were asked to attend school in the peri-urban area of Solwezi, some of which were not easily accessible. Some pupils complained that their siblings in lower grades had problems in getting to their new schools.

Table 5: Teacher satisfaction of the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Non Response	Total
52 (42%)	40 (32%)	16 (13%)	14 (11%)	2(2%)	124(100%)

A total of 92 (74%) of the respondents generally agreed with the assertion that most of the teachers were unhappy with the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure. Of these 52 (42%) Strongly Agreed while 40 (32%) Agreed. On the other hand, a total of 30 (24%) of the respondents Disagreed with the assertion that most teachers were unhappy with the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure. Of these 16 (13%) Disagreed while 14 (11%) Strongly Disagreed with the statement. Non-Response recorded on this question was only 2 (2%).

During focus group discussions with teachers, it was reported that teachers did not see rationale for the change. It was further noted that the change had affected parents and pupils as some pupils will end up stopping school due to long distances to secondary schools.

Some teachers with secondary school teaching diplomas complained that they did not know their fate with the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure. The phasing out of grade 8 and 9 classes meant that they would be transferred to secondary schools as they were not trained to handle primary school grades.

Mr. Kalikeka, a secondary school diploma holding teacher commented this:

“For us teachers with secondary school teaching diplomas we do not know what will happen once grade 8 and 9 classes are closed at this school. We are likely to move anytime. This change has brought a lot of anxiety for us”.

During an in-depth interview with Mrs Kani a female Headteacher at one peri-urban school in Solwezi, she observed that schools were likely to face serious shortages of teachers in schools as teachers with secondary school teaching diplomas were likely to be re-deployed to secondary schools and vice-versa.

Mrs Kani commented this:

“We do not know what will happen to the 19 teachers handling the upper basic when the grades 8 and 9 are completely phased out at this school. Teachers who were initially trained as primary school teachers may have a choice to either move to a secondary school or remain at the school, but am sure most teachers may opt to go to secondary schools. The future is uncertain”.

Most of the teachers expressed dissatisfaction on the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure. 92 (74%) expressed discontent. The areas of dissatisfaction bordered on fear that there would be high levels of drop-outs at grade 7 and 9 in the new structure. It was argued that the policy change was not progressive as it would take the children back to the 1970s and 1980s where some grade seven pupils had to repeat grade 7 many times due to lack of classroom space in secondary schools.

Some teachers argued that there was little expansion of secondary school infrastructure and facilities in most parts of the country, therefore the policy shift would disadvantage pupils in most parts of the country where secondary schools were concentrated in urban areas. Pupils would be subjected to walking long distances to attend day secondary schools.

The testimonies below shows how dissatisfied the teachers were with the policy change. Mr Kamas, a teacher at an urban school in Solwezi had this to say:

“The reality on the ground is that under this programme, basic schools have been expanded with more classroom blocks. That is the truth. Basic schools also resulted in the freeing up of classroom space in secondary schools which became high schools. Meaning that, the high schools accommodated more pupils from grade 10 – 12 and hence increased access to senior secondary education. The pass marks of previous years were arbitrary and not a measure of a student’s capability. Rather they reflected lack of space in Secondary schools. Now that access to high schools has improved, we want to deprive our children? Personally I am not satisfied of this change”.

Mr Kalikeka 35, a senior teacher and nineteen years of service also gave these remarks:

“Well, I would say that, I am not very much satisfied because you see, whenever you are making any change, the first thing to do is that you must do extensive consultation”.

Mr Kalyati 29, a deputy headteacher and nine years of service also observed this:

“I spoke so much about consultation; there is also need for home work. This must be done because as at now, we do not have infrastructure which would accommodate pupils that would be in secondary school”.

However, the Senior Teacher, Mr Datsun agreed and disagreed at the same time:

“As for me, I am somehow happy although dissatisfied in certain aspects. Or Let me simply say that every system has its own merits and demerits. One of the merits of the basic school system was that the basic school system was enabling more pupils to reach grade 9 regardless of lower marks they got at grade 7. On the other hand

the demerit of the basic school system was that, it encouraged a high rate of drop outs at grade 10. Now we do not know whether we are going back or not. Someone must really come to us and explain”.

Interviews with parents also showed levels of dissatisfaction with the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure. Some executive members of the Parents Teachers Association (PTA) were interviewed. One parent had this to say in Kiikaonde language:

“First before bakyangekuchinja aye ma basic schools to primary schools, bafwainwakwamba first babikeko ma secondary schools. Bavujheko before kubamba aye ma basic schools yekale ma primary schools mambo banabajiku ma basic schools bavulasana. Ma basic schools yabena kutukwashako namambo yama distance, mambo apopaikalila ma secondary schools palepa. Tubenakukeba balete ma secondary schools kubwipi nema basic schools pobakyange kuchinja mwane.....Kuma school fees nako, ma basic schools yachipako mambo tuba afford ateba bansemi. Ketwakonsha kuba manage ngeujinebana kampe four kubamba ube manage ninshi yakosako kabiji ninshi nebana bakonsha kuleka nema sukulu”.

Translation of the above narrative into English language goes like this;

“Before transforming these basic schools to primary schools, the government should have first built secondary schools. They should build more secondary schools because the children in basic schools are many. The basic schools are helping us in terms of long distances. Our children are not covering long distances because of going to basic schools. We want the government to build more secondary schools near the basic schools before changing the basic schools to primary schools. Coming to school fees, the basic schools are cheaper in that we are at least affording

to pay as parents. In secondary schools, for instance if you have four children, we cannot manage to pay and that will mean our children stopping school”.

Consultation with stakeholders in policy change.

In order to establish how the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure was being implemented, school headteachers were asked to comment first. On the consultative process prior to the policy change.

Most of the headteachers who were interviewed (9 out of 12) observed that government through the Ministry of Education did not involve or consult them on the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure. They stated that only the District Education Board Secretary’s Office (DEBS) seemed to be in the know. They argued that for any educational policy change to be effective, there was absolute need for wider consultation and sensitization.

The Headteacher, Mr Chemo, from a peri-urban school said this:

“As stakeholders we were not consulted, neither were we sensitized. It was just a surprise instruction from the DEBS office that the school should immediately be changed into a primary school. I say so because, last term before the schools closed, all the grade 8 classes were given transfer letters to go to the new Solwezi urban secondary school (former Solwezi basic school) together with their teachers upon commencement of this term. But because of the way it was done, that is, not consulting us as teachers and parents, the same people who issued instructions again came back to us that they had rescinded their decision. So you can see what it means when you ignore the people on the ground. This change was done abruptly and had they consulted, some parents and teachers ideas would have been of help to the transformation process”.

A deputy headteacher, Mr Fwalanga, from another peri-urban basic school said this:

“What surely is wrong with the current system? The problem with our government is that they want to change everything they have found without even consulting or considering implications it may have”.

With regard to the awareness by the DEBS Office about the policy change the ESO found at the station and interviewed due the absence of the DEBS said this:

“As per protocol any information from headquarters passes through the provincial education office before we receive it. After getting verbal information from the provincial office, the DEBS also further relays the information to our office. Otherwise, we did not actually receive any formal document about the change. I am sure; it’s all about what is contained in the PF manifesto”.

Views from Non-Governmental Organisations working in education.

Non-Governmental Organisation (NGOs) working in education were also consulted on the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure. A representative from an NGO working in education in Solwezi had this to say on the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure:

“Our Organisation mainly sponsors the orphaned and vulnerable children. This policy shift will affect our operations in that, we will have a bigger number of vulnerable children than before. The situation will go back to the time when we had weekly boarders and the girls in the weekly boarding schools will be vulnerable. The government should first have built more secondary schools before implementing the policy shift. The government should have consulted us as we are also stakeholders in education”.

4.2 Objective two.

The second objective of the study was to establish how the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure was being implemented.

Headteachers, teachers and officers at the District Education Office were asked to comment on how the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure was being implemented.

During in-depth interviews with some headteachers, it was reported that some schools that were phasing out grade 8 and 9 classes were earmarked for Early Childhood Education (ECE) introduced by the Ministry of Education.

One headteacher from an urban school revealed that their school had been directed to open an Early Childhood Centre using the classes that were occupied by the grade 8 and 9 pupils. The headteacher commented as follows:

“We have been directed by the DEBS office to establish an Early Childhood Centre (ECE) using the classrooms that were used by the grade 8 and 9 pupils. The idea is welcome but the classroom facilities such as desks and chairs are not appropriate for such children. If the Ministry was serious about their plans, they should have brought facilities appropriate for pre-school education”.

On the question of infrastructure, for the schools that were to phase out grade 8 and 9 classes, some headteachers had plans of increasing enrolment for grade 1-7. Some headteachers reported that the implementation of the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure appeared to have been hurried without adequate preparations on the ground. It was reported that some schools which were directed to surrender secondary school trained teachers to the DEBS had again been told to retain them. A headteacher at an urban basic school commented:

“It is very strange for us to be moving back and forth. We were directed to surrender secondary school trained teachers to the DEBS Office because the school was to be transformed into a primary school. The teachers left upon opening of this first term but we have once again been asked to recall them.”.

It was reported that some schools had even written new bill boards showing their changed status but were asked to replace them with the previous ones.

Some teachers stated in the focus group discussions that the Ministry of Education brought a lot of confusion in schools because of the misdirected policy change. There were camps in schools as teachers trained in primary and secondary were not working in harmony.

4.3 Objective three.

The third study objective and research question focused on the establishment of the challenges of the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure.

Respondents were asked to comment on the assertion that the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure had improved the school system in Zambia.

Table 6 shows the levels of agreement and disagreement.

Table 6: Levels of agreement and disagreement on the improvement of the school system in Zambia due to the policy shift.

Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Non Response	Total
0 (0%)	20 (16.4%)	66 (52.8%)	38 (30.7%)	0 (0%)	124(100%)

A total of 20 (16.4%) of the respondents generally agreed with the assertion that the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure had improved the school system in Zambia.

On the contrary, a total of 104 (83.5%) of the respondents generally disagreed with the assertion that the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure had improved

the school system in Zambia. Of these 66 (52.8%) disagreed while 38 (30.7%) strongly disagreed with the statement.

During focus group discussion with teachers, it was widely held that the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure had caused a lot of anxiety among teachers, pupils and parents. It was reported at one basic school that school pupils (grade 1-6) were to be transferred to other schools including their teachers as the urban school was to be transformed into a secondary school. It was reported that some teachers were disturbed by rumours of mass transfers and had stopped working hard.

During in-depth interviews with some parents who were executive members of the Parent Teachers Association (PTA), it was observed that parents were also disturbed about the transfer of all pupils (grade 1-7) at an urban basic school that was to be transformed into a secondary school. Parents expressed worry about finding places for their children in neighboring schools. Parents feared that their children would be subjected to covering long distances to get to other schools. A parent at an urban school in Solwezi that was earmarked for secondary school had this to say:

“This change has disturbed everybody, teachers, pupils and parents. We are not sure which school will be available for our children once displaced from the urban school. Who ever thought about this change did not think about the consequences”

What would you like to see with regard to changes in the school system?

Headteachers, teachers, pupils and parents were asked to comment on what they wanted to see with regard to the school system. Some headteachers expressed the need for the government to maintain the status quo. They felt that the basic school structure served the school system better than the current structure. The automatic progression from grade 1-9 served the children better than the new structure. For instance, one headteacher interviewed commented this:

“With the low expansion of secondary schools in the country, we are likely to have a challenge of pupils repeating grade seven several times due to lack of spaces in secondary schools”.

Some senior teachers observed that schools in the rural areas especially were likely to commence weekly boarding for pupils who may not have secondary schools within their villages. Basic schools catered for such children as schools were located within walking distances. Girls would be more disadvantaged than boys.

During the focus group discussions with some teachers, it was noted that, teachers were uncomfortable with the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure without adequate consultation. For most of them, the basic school structure worked very well and they did not see any need for such a change. One teacher lamented this:

“The Ministry of Education has brought a lot of confusion in schools by this change. If they want us to cooperate with them, they should revert to the former school structure”

Some pupils interviewed during focus group discussions lamented that they did not see anything wrong with the previous structure of the school system. They were more comfortable with the previous structure than the current one.

But some pupils expressed worry that they may not afford to attend secondary education due to the high costs involved. The day secondary schools in Solwezi town had no boarding facilities

“It is better for us to go to secondary schools in grade 10 rather than in grade 8 because our parents will not be able to pay the fees”, said a grade nine pupil.

Parents expressed their displeasure with the new school structure. Most parents stated that they did not see any problem with the previous school structure. It worked for them very well. They argued that the government should rescind its decision as the people were not consulted. One parent said:

“We are in a democracy, how does the government make decisions without consulting the people. Democracy is a government of the people, for the people and by the people. This change has disturbed us”.

Officials at the District Education Office were also asked to comment on the change, some of them reserved their comments while others said they were waiting for guidelines from the Ministry of Education Headquarters in Lusaka. A retired educationist interviewed on the change of the schools structure commented this:

“The change is not necessary as infrastructure is already a big challenge especially in high schools. If they wanted this policy change to be smoothly successful, the government should first have thought of adding more infrastructure to the already existing ones in high schools. And thereafter, they should have embarked on building more separate secondary schools near the basic schools earmarked for transformation into primary schools. Building secondary schools near to the earmarked basic schools to be turned into primary schools would have cushioned the long distances to be covered by pupils from their homes to secondary schools. I don’t know why the government did not think of this before pronouncing the policy. All this is a problem of not consulting the implementers”

A deputy headteacher interviewed, from one rural school emphasised the issue of teaching and learning materials in relation to the policy shift and had this to say;

Teaching and learning materials in the schools are already posing a big challenge. For instance in some schools, the pupil-book ratio is high already to an extent that a subject may only have a copy. Why not first solve this issue of the teaching and learning materials before effecting this change?

One of the NGO representative saw the transformation as posing a challenge on the transfers of teachers from where they are to schools matching their qualifications and lamented the following words

In education there is already a problem of transferring teachers to places where their spouses are. I fore see a situation where some teachers will separate with their husbands and wives when

transferred to some other schools. Why didn't the government think of this? This is a challenging time of the HIV and AIDS transmission. So if husbands and wives will be made to stay away from each other due to the transfers, it will not be good"

4.3 Summary of chapter four.

The chapter presented findings of the study regarding Stakeholders, perspectives on the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure in Solwezi District of North-Western Province of Zambia. The little quantitative findings were presented in form of frequency tables while qualitative data were coded and themes were generated.

The study revealed that the teachers, parents, pupils and NGOs as stakeholders' in education were not consulted or sensitised on the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure. And due to this change, the parents, the teachers, the pupils and NGOs as stakeholders were faced with a lot of challenges. For instance, increase in the number of drop outs, covering of long distances to secondary schools and many more.

The next chapter discusses the findings presented in chapter four.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS.

5.0 Overview.

This chapter discusses the findings of the study. This study investigated stakeholders' perspectives on the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure in Solwezi district of Northwestern Zambia. The presentation is organised in three broad themes based on the research objectives as follows:

- Views of stakeholders on the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure.
- How the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure is being implemented.
- Challenges of the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure.

The broad categories were preferred because of the nature of qualitative data that involved huge amounts of raw data or information. The broad categories were used in data analysis process to sub-divide the huge amounts of raw information. However, the data analysis was done to answer all the research objectives.

5.1 Answers to the Research objectives.

It is expected that, at the end of an inquiry, answers to the research objectives and research questions that guided the inquiry are presented and the argument is that research objectives and research questions reflect the problem the researcher wants to investigate and they also serve as signposts for the reader. More specifically, research questions are interrogative statements that represent an extension of the statement of the purpose of the study in that it specifies exactly the question that the researcher will attempt to answer (Mertler and Vannatta, 2001; Creswell, 2005; Yin, 2008). In addition, Maxwell (2005:69) observes, "research questions state what you want to learn." This is not what one gets from research objectives. Therefore, the answers to the three research questions are presented below.

5.2 Objective one.

Considering objective 1: **Views of stakeholders on consultation process regarding the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure.**

With regard to stakeholder consultation on the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure by the policy makers, this study revealed that nearly every respondent (112 out of 124 teachers) representing 90 % disagreed with the assertion that stakeholders were consulted on the policy change of the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure. Similarly the headteachers were dissatisfied with the policy change, for instance one headteacher from an urban school said: “Well, I would say that, I am not very much satisfied because you see, whenever you are making any change, the first thing to do is that you must do extensive consultation”.

Additionally, one headteacher subjected to an in-depth interview from a peri-urban school said that they were only briefed by the District Education Officer about the change but were not involved in the consultative process and that only few of them were hand-picked to attend the orientation meeting for the change in the change in the education structure and he said: “The whole issue started as a rumour. We thought it was one of those things people discuss when they have nothing serious to talk about, but it is real. This change has come very strange indeed.”

Gatawa (1999) asserts that educational change is not a neat and easy process. There is always the question of cost. Therefore, it is important to weigh the cost of educational change against other legitimate claims on the national economy. Sometimes, educational change tends to be expensive than the programmes they replace, because of the cost of research, development of materials and re-education of personnel.

Educational change is also constrained by the variable of time. Immediate change is sometimes impossible because of the need for long term planning. Bishop (1985) contends that it takes about fifty years for a good idea in education to be generally accepted and another fifty years for it to be implemented, by which time it is obsolete, or it has vanished in a cloud of good intentions. For a example, the concept of

comprehensive school was suggested in Sweden in the 1880's. But it was not until the 1930's that the educational change was finally put into practice.

It is therefore true to say that the teachers and headteachers as stakeholders were dissatisfied with policy change because they were not consulted or involved in the consultative process. From the literature reviewed, this finding is in agreement with Sarason (1995:7) who pointed out that: "When you are going to be affected, directly or indirectly, by a decision, you should stand in some relationship to the decision making process. Asking parents to be a part of decision-making in a change process is clearly a step toward helping parents not only to get involved, but also to take ownership of the change process".

In the same vein, Rajan (2002) also states that consulting people in a change process entails an implicit "promise" that, at a minimum, their views will be considered during the decision-making process and that this does not mean that every issue or request must be acted upon, but it does mean being clear with people about which aspects of the project are still open to modification based on their input, and which are not. Rajan further says that consulting people in a change process means taking feedback received during the consultation process seriously and making best efforts to address issues raised through changes to project design, proposed mitigation measures, or development benefits and opportunities.

This finding is however opposite with Martins (1992) study on the perceptions of different educational stakeholders on the change in education in Minnesota and New York where change was favoured. Martins study looked at change in education within a transformational framework and, its focus was not only on goals, but also on the beliefs and expectations of the stakeholders in the educational system and surrounding community.

During in-depth interviews with some NGOs involved in education, it was observed that the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure lacked consultation and hence came as a surprise. It was noted that this abrupt change would affect children

negatively in terms of school progression. In support of the NGOs involved in education, Appelstrand (2002) affirm that the role of NGOs is particularly important, since their active involvement in specific topics has promoted transparency, and enabled consensus-building in policy implementation. Similar to the affirmation above, one officer subjected to an in-depth interview from an NGO working in education shared the following words:

“The Ministry of Education has a tendency of imposing changes on schools even when they know that GRZ cannot sustain some of the changes without especially technical and financial support from donor agencies. Such changes do not last, they eventually die a natural death”.

From an in-depth interview with one of the officers from the District Education Office, it was revealed that most of the teachers were unhappy with the pronouncement because schools were caught napping and had very little time to adapt to the changes as they were quite abrupt. Setijack (1989) shares similar views in his study on educational planning in Indonesia, where he observed that policy changes without sufficient time for preparation often proved more harmful than useful in educational institutions. She further said that policy change without adequate time is like using slogans and changing names without actually changing substances. Correspondingly, Hawes (1979) notes that, trying to achieve too much, too fast can have the opposite results. He describes “The New Primary Approach to English Teaching in Kenya” as a case in point. This initiative resulted into pseudo-literacy in schools because it was hurried. McNamara (1999: 1) also asserted that the best approaches to address resistance are through increased and sustained communication and education. She further argued that, the frontrunner (policy makers) should meet all the stakeholders to explain reason for the change, and how it generally would be carried out. This argument was equally, supported by pupils who also illuminated that they heard about the change on educational structure on news and from their teachers and friends and that the change would affect them negatively than positively in many ways.

Further, the study also reveals that, there was no much consultation on the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure because even the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education official from headquarters agreed during an interview that there was no position paper about the change in education .It was just a press statement and a ministerial directive to transform basic schools to primary schools and high schools to secondary schools.

However, a small number of parents interviewed (4 out of 12) representing 33 % elaborated that they had not seen anything wrong in transforming basic schools to primary schools in that it would encourage pupils to work extra hard to reach the high cut –off point at grade seven level as it is evident in one of the parents comments:

“This basic school thing has never been supported by me from its inception because it has dropped the standards. In our time, we used to read hard to reach the usually high cut-off points at grade seven. Myself I obtained 754 marks to go to Mkushi Secondary School and not these 300 or 400s that they getting and admitted to grade 8. This basic school system is full of leakages and end up producing half-baked pupils. For me this re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure is welcome”.

The above comment, show that not all the stakeholders were against the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure.

5.3 Objective two.

Considering objective 2.**Implementation of the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure.**

This study revealed that the policy shift of transforming basic schools to primary schools is being implemented in a top-down approach (through directives) with very little consultation and involvement of stakeholders. Some headteachers interviewed explained that some schools were directed to open Early Childhood Education classes using the classes which were occupied by the grades 8 and 9. For instance, one headteacher from an urban school commented this:

“We have been directed by the District Education Office to establish an Early Childhood Centre (ECE) using the classrooms that were used by the grade 8 and 9 pupils. The idea is welcome but the classroom facilities such as desks and chairs are not appropriate for such children.....”

In relation to the issue of classroom facilities and infrastructure for Early Childhood Education highlighted in the comment above from one headteacher, the Educating our Future (1996) clearly states that provision of desirable education involves prescribing specifications for furniture, equipment, aids and infrastructure. If not quickly checked, the undesirable infrastructure may hinder access and full participation by children below the age of seven in the already existing government primary schools. And according to Bowman et.al (2001, p. 7), a good ECE program should be provided in a physical space that is safe and one that has certain specialized facilities. From the interviews with headteachers, it was found out that the directive by the MoE to use classes previously occupied by grades 8 and 9 for ECE was inappropriate. For instance, most headteachers thought of increasing the enrolment for grade ones and hence increase access.

On the issue of planning and preparation, some NGOs commented that the implementation of transforming basic schools to primary schools appeared to have been hurried without adequate preparations on the ground. For instance, one NGO representative interviewed elaborated that, it was surprising to get information of educational policy shift of transforming basic schools to primary schools on radio and TV and that the implementation was being done in a dictatorial way. It was observed that the abrupt change could affect the number of pupils they usually sponsored. In the same vein, one headteacher revealed that the inadequate preparation led to the rescinding of the earlier directive of transferring some primary school teachers to primary schools from the schools to be transformed into secondary schools.

Griffiths (1978) notes that implementation of an educational policy change is a long drawn out process which begins in the minds of the people and it is an innovation that is at odds with existing values and practice and certainly encounters initial difficulties.

A total of 92 (74%) of the teachers interviewed expressed discontent of the way the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure was being implemented. They argued that educational change could only succeed if teachers were fully involved in the innovations and sufficiently impressed by the validity of the new changes announced. They further stated that educational change could only be meaningful if teachers were incorporated in the innovation process.

In support of teacher involvement in the implementation process, Bishop (1985) contends that the teacher is the key to educational innovation. Whether an innovation succeeds or takes root, in the long run, it depends on the teachers. Specialists and experts may select the objectives and plan the general advances, but it is the teachers in the class who are the implementers. Similarly, Hawes (1986) reports that implementation of educational change cannot be scored without the full cooperation of teachers. The teacher's skills and attitudes are vital in any meaningful educational change implementation.

Due to the linear approach type of implementation, it was also found that many schools had changed the writings on their bill boards from reading 'basic schools' to 'primary schools' while the situation inside was that the 8 and 9 graders were still part of the school structure. This finding is in conformity with Hawes (1990) who noted that, trying to achieve too much, too fast can have the opposite results. It is obvious that the phasing out of grades 8 and 9 classes from the basic schools may result in lack of classroom accommodation in secondary schools because of the migration of pupils from basic schools as noted by one parent interviewed who stated this:

“What does this really mean? How do they deal with pupils in basic schools because already secondary schools are faced with huge challenges to accommodate all pupils qualifying to grade ten.”

This type of implementation can be likened to the linear model of change where change is described as an event and assumed that change would simply happen. The top-down

model of implementation was also used in Peru during their educational policy reform. In Peru, the government acted as if, once it had identified the best option for Peru, the citizenry would listen and respond to the new orders. In this Peruvian educational reform, missing was the understanding of the difficulty altering basic cultural values and the profound link in most families aspirations for Peruvian children.

In other words, the linear view propagates abrupt change while the overlapping view has some elements of transition. This consideration is preferable because whenever change occurs so does transition (Mitchell and Bridges, 2000). It is suggested that if the Peruvian government used the overlapping model, that is, that, of considering the civilian views as potential stakeholders, this change could have been received well.

5.4 Objective three.

Considering objective 3: **Challenges of the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure.**

From the questionnaires distributed to teachers, it was revealed that a total of 104 (83.5%) of the respondents disagreed with the assertion that the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure had improved the schools system. During the in-depth interviews with headteachers and parents, it was revealed that there was a lot of anxiety among the stakeholders. For instance, teachers were quite apprehensive about of mass transfers to unknown schools (primary trained to primary schools and secondary trained to secondary schools),parents were equally anxious about their children being transferred to unknown schools (grade 1-7 to newly transformed primary schools and grades 8 and 9 to newly transformed secondary schools). Parents were worried about finding school places for their children in the neighbouring schools in case their children were sent to schools quite distant from their homes. One parent commented as follows:

“This change has disturbed everybody, teachers, pupils and parents. We are not sure which school will be available for our children once displaced from the urban school. Some schools may be far for our children”.

One NGO representative interviewed also showed a deep concern on the issue of long distances to be covered between homes and the secondary schools. He lamented that the number of the Orphaned and Vulnerable Children (OVC) they sponsored, especially girls may reduce, in that they may dropout due to fear of being raped on their way to far schools. He said that the basic schools were within reach and that this enabled most children to attend school.

It came out clearly throughout the interviews with parents and NGO representatives that distance to be covered from the primary schools to secondary would be a big challenge especially for a girl child as one of the challenges of the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure. This finding is in consistence with the findings of Lockeed and Verspoor (1991) who pointed out that schools must be located as close as possible to children's homes, preferably within the village and that, the closer the school is to home, the more likely parents are to send their children to school and to do so at the appropriate age. Similarly, Kane (2004) indicated that long distances to school does not only increase the opportunity cost of attending the school, but also tax the stamina of children and can place them in vulnerable situations. Studies done by World Bank (2005) in Ghana, Zambia and Lesotho also revealed a similar situation. The study revealed that long distances between home and school caused parents to postpone schooling until their children were older, which increased the probability of dropping out.

Most of the pupils interviewed that is sixty (60) out of seventy two (72) were worried of the high school fees which secondary schools charge. Their concern and fear was that they may drop out of school for non-failure of their parents to pay the school fees which are usually on the high side in secondary schools than in basic schools. For instance, one pupil commented:

“It is better for us to go to secondary schools in grade 10 rather than in grade 8 because our parents will not be able to pay the high fees charged in high schools”.

The pupils concern on higher side of school fees in secondary schools compared to those in basic schools is in agreement with the Indian government's policy of free and affordable education policy from grades 1-7. Naik (1996) states that the Indian government adopted to free basic education from grades 1-7 in order to reduce the cost of education for the child and to allow as many learners as possible to receive education. The current National Educational Policy document, *Educating Our Future* (MoE, 1996) in one of its strategies to increase access also emphasised that no tuition fees will be charged in basic schools that are operated by the Ministry of Education, local councils and Education Boards.

5.5 Summary of chapter five.

This chapter discussed the findings regarding the stakeholders' perspectives on the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure.

The findings of the study revealed that the government did not engage the stakeholders in the planning stage of the change and that the effects of the change may affect them as key stakeholders' in education.

The next chapter presents the summary of the study findings and the conclusion drawn from the results. It also suggests some recommendations and an area of future research.

CHAPTER SIX: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

6.0 Overview.

This chapter presents a summary of the study and conclusion drawn from the results. It also presents the recommendations made for the present study and suggestions for future research based on the findings.

6.1 Conclusion.

The aim of this study was to investigate the stakeholders' perspectives on the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure in Solwezi district of the north-west part of Zambia. The objectives of the study were as follows:

1. To determine the views of stakeholders on the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure.
2. To establish how the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure is being implemented in schools.
3. To establish the challenges of the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure.

With regards to the views of stakeholders on the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure, the study revealed that a large proportion of teachers were dissatisfied with the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure. Most headteachers interviewed hinted that as stakeholders, they were not consulted or sensitised on the change process. Similarly, the NGOs and some parents interviewed also observed that the change in education lacked consultation and expressed fear that it would affect their children negatively in terms of school progression. Some pupils interviewed during the focus group discussions also indicated that they had fears of dropping out from school due to inadequate secondary schools. The high fees charged in secondary schools was another source of concern. An officer from the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocation Training and Early Education, elaborated that the educational policy shift was not accompanied with a concept paper. It was also pointed out that, the change in the education structure was in line with the Patriotic Front (PF) party manifesto.

Referring to how the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure was being implemented in schools, the findings of the study revealed that the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure was being implemented using the top-down approach.

Referring to the challenges of the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure, stakeholders identified a number of challenges; ranging from long distances to be created between home and secondary schools, fear of many drop outs due to high fees charged in secondary schools as compared to what was charged in basic schools, fear of high cut-off points at grade seven composite examinations and above all the challenge of government managing the transformation in the face of inadequate financial resources. Similarly NGOs stressed on the availability of space at secondary schools to absorb all the pupils from the primary schools and what would happen to the instructional materials which were used by 8 and 9 graders in the former basic schools.

6.2 Recommendations.

In view of the findings of this study, the researcher made the following recommendations:

1. Government should extensively consult stakeholders before embarking on policy change in the education sector preferably through public debates, consultative meetings with the Parents and Teachers Associations (PTAs) and other forms of communication
2. Government should ensure that teachers as implementers of education policy should be consulted throughout the change process.
3. Government should adequately plan and mobilise financial resources, well in advance before embarking on the process of implementation.

6.3 Suggestion for future research.

Since this study was purely an academic research conducted on the perspectives of stakeholders' on the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure, in Solwezi district only, it would be important for future studies to conduct a country wide survey in order to have a national perspective.

REFERENCES.

- Ahmed, M, Kai Ming, C, Jalaluddin, A.K and Ramachandran, K. (1991). *Basic Education and National Development*, New York: UNICEF Programme Division.
- Allison, G. T. (1971). *Essence of decision*. Boston: Little, Brown and Company.
- Appelstrand. (2002). *Assessing the relevance of stakeholder analysis for national ecological network governance: The case of the Green Network in Estonia*. Estonia: Estonia University.
- Banathy, B. H. (1996). *Designing social systems in a changing world*. New York: Plenum Press.
- Bates, D.L. & Eldredge, D. L., (1980). *Strategy and Policy Analysis Formulation, and Implementation*. Wm. C. Brown Company Publishers.
- Bishop. (1985). *The Politics of the School Curriculum: An Introduction*. Harare: College Press.
- Chisholm, L., G. L. T. Makwati, P. T. M. Marope, and S. D. Dumba-Safuli (1998). *SADC initiatives in education policy management*. Report of a needs assessment study. Harare: UNESCO and SADC Human Resource Sector.
- Cleaves, P. (1980). "Implementation Amidst Scarcity and Apathy: Political Power and Policy Design", In M. Gindle, ed., *Politics and Policy Implementation in Third World*. Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton Press
- Cloete, F. & Wissink, H., (2000), *Improving Public Policy*. Pretoria: Van Schalk Academic.
- Clinton, H. R. (1996). *It takes a village and other lessons children teach us*. New York: Simon & Schuster.
- Creswell, J. W. (2005). *Educational research: Planning, conduction, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research (2nd Ed)*. Upper Saddle River, NJ Pearson.
- David. (1965). *A Framework for Political Analysis*. Englewood Cliffs: N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc.
- Dean, M (1999). *Roles of Stakeholders in Strategic Decision-Making of Microfinance Organizations*. International Business & Economics Research Journal, Vol. 9, No. 7, pp 51-64, 2010.
- Dolby (1998). *Stakeholder management and front office user engagement*. London: Pearson Publishers.
- ECZ, (2007). *The Role of National Assessment in Evaluating the Attainment of Educational Goals*. Lusaka: MoE.

- European Commission (2001). *Public consultation on the possible revision of the Tobacco Products Directive 2001/37/EC*. Norway: Norwegian Public Health.
- Fine, M. (1993). *Parent involvement - reflections on parents, power, and urban public schools*. Teachers College Record, 94(4), 682-710
- Freeman, R. Edward (1984). *Strategic Management: A stakeholder approach*. Boston: Pitman. [ISBN 0-273-01913-9](#)
- Fullan, M.G. (1982). *The Meaning of Change in education*, New York: Teachers College Press.
- Fullan, M.G. (1993). *Change Forces, Probing the Depths of Educational Reform*, London: Falmer Press.
- Fullan, M.G. (1994). *Co-ordinating Top-Down and Bottom-up Strategies for Educational Reform*, Available: [http://www.ed.gov/pubs/Ed Reform studies/sysReforms/fullan.html](http://www.ed.gov/pubs/Ed_Reform_studies/sysReforms/fullan.html) [26th May1999].
- Fullan, M.G and Hargreaves, A. (1991). *What's worth fighting for, working together for your School*, Toronto: Ontario Public School Teachers' federation.
- Fullan, M.G with Stiegelbauer (2000). *The new meaning of change in education*, 2nd ed. London: Cassell Educational Limited.
- Gatawa, B.S.M. (1999). *Curriculum Development*. London: Macmillan.
- Gay, L.R. (1996). *Educational Research: Competencies of Analysis and Application*. 5th ed. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Goodlad, J. I. (2002). *Kudzu, rabbits, and school reform*. Phi Delta Kappan, 84(1), 16-23.
- GRZ/MoE. (1964). *Annual Report*. Lusaka: Government Printers.
- GRZ/MoE (1976). *Education for Development: Draft Statement on Educational Reform*. Lusaka: Government Printers.
- GRZ/MoE (1977). *Educational Reform: Proposals and Recommendations*. Lusaka: Government Printers.
- GRZ (2011). *Patriotic Front Manifesto*. Lusaka: Government Printers.
- GRZ (1978). *Financial Report*. Lusaka: Government Printers.
- GRZ/MoE (1970). *First National Educational Conference*. Lusaka: Government Printers.
- Haddad.D and Demsky, T., (1974). *The Dynamics of Educational Policy Making: Case studies of Burkina Faso, Jordan, Peru and Thailand*. Washington, DC: The World Bank.

- Hanekom, S.X., (1987). *Public Policy: Framework and instrument for Action*. Johannesburg: Macmillan.
- Hawes, H. (1986). *Curriculum and Reality in African Primary Schools*. London: Longman.
- James, A (2005). *A Stakeholder Approach to Marketing Management*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Kelly, M.J (1999). *Education in the Declining Economy*. Washington D.C: The WorldBank.
- Kremer, M. (1990). *Good Policy or Good Luck? Country Growth Performance Journal of Monetary Economics*, New York.
- Lindblom, C E., (1968). *Policy making Process*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Lindblom, C.; Cohen D. K. (1979). *Usable knowledge: social science and social problem solving*. New Haven: Yale University.
- Lowi, T. J. (1995). *Distribution, Regulation, Redistribution: The Functions of Government*. In: Theodoulou, S. Z. & Cahn, M.A. (Ed)
- Lungwangwa (1992). *Basic Education in Zambia: A Study in Educational Policy Development*. Urbana: University of Illinois.
- Martin, K (1992). *Perceptions of different Stakeholders Regarding the World Schools and Change in education*. USA: Book power.
- Maxwell, J. A. (2005). *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach (2nd ed.)*. Thousand Okas, CA: Sage Publication.
- McNamara, C. (1999). *Basic Context for Organizational Change*. London: Macmillan house.
- Mertler, C. A., & Vannatta, R. A. (2001). *Advanced and multivariate statistical methods: Practical application and interpretation*. Los Angeles, CAPyrczakPublishing.
- Mitchell, S and Bridges, W. (2000). *Leading Transition: A new model for change*, New York: *Leader to Leader Institute*, Available: <http://www.pfdf.org/leaderbooks/121/spring2000/bridges.html> [3rd Apr 2005].
- MoE (1977). *Educational reform: Proposals and Recommendations*. Lusaka: government Printers.

- MoE (1989). *Zambia Annual School Census*. Lusaka: MoE.
- MoE (1992). *Focus on Learning*. Lusaka: Government printers.
- MoE (1993). *Strategic Plan*. Lusaka: UNZA.
- MoE (1996). *Educating Our Future: A National Policy on Education*. Lusaka: Zambia Education Publishing House (ZEPH).
- MoE (2005). *Educating The Nation: Strategic Framework of Education for All*. Lusaka: Government Printers.
- MoE. (1994). *Establishment of Basic Schools: Ministry of Education Circular No. 14 of 1994*. Lusaka: MoE Headquarter.
- Mokhaba, M. B., (2005). *Outcomes –Based Education in South Africa since 1994: Policy Objectives and Implementation Complexities*. Pretoria: University of Pretoria.printers.
- Nunan, D. (1992). *Research methods in language learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Patton, M.Q. (1990). *Qualitative Research and Evaluation Methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Peters, B.G., (1993). *American Public Policy: Promise and Performance*. Chatham: Chatham House Publishers.
- Phillips.H.M. (1975). *Basic Education-A World Challenge*. New York: John Wiley and Sons.
- Radaelli, C.M. (2005). *Regulatory Impact Assessment, Political Control and the Regulatory State*. UK: University of Exeter.
- Rajan (2002). *Citizen Participation and the Poor: A Participatory Approach to Achieving Political, Social and Economic Freedom*. USA: American Institute of Planners.
- Ranney, A. (1968). *Political Science and Public policy*. Chicago: Markham
- Reigeluth, C. M., & Stinson, D. (2007). *The Decatur story: Reinvention of a school corporation – Collaboration: Developing partners in education*. The Indiana School Boards Association Journal, 53(3), 13-15.
- Sarason, S. B. (1995). *Parental involvement and the political principle: Why the existing governance structure of schools should be abolished (1st ed.)*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

- Schick, A. (1996). *The Spirit of Reform: Managing the New Zealand State in the Time of Change*, Wellington: State Services Commission.
- Stiegelbauer, S.M. and Anderson, S. (1992). 'Seven years later: Revisiting a re-structured school in northern Ontario', Paper presented, America Educational Research Association Meeting, San Francisco.
- Stiegelbauer, S.M. (1994). *Change has changed: Implications for implementation of assessments from the organisational change literature: Educational Reform Studies*, New York, Available:<http://www.ed.gov/puts/EdReformsstudies/SyrReforms/Stiegel.html> [26th May 1999].
- Simposia, K.W (2000). *Education System in Zambia: How it developed since Independence on 24th October, 1964*. Lusaka: Government Printers.
- Subulwa, C. M., (2004), *Basic School Management Training of Head teachers (BSMTHT) series. Training Module on Education Policy Management (Module3)*. Lusaka: Zambia.
- Swat. V, (2000). *Integrating stakeholder values with multiple attributes*. Washington D.C: Washington.
- Theodoulou, S.Z. & Cahn M.A., (1995). *The Contemporary Language of Public Policy: a Starting Point*. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall.
- Truman, D .B. (1995). *The Governmental Process: Political Interests and Public Opinion*. New York Knopf.
- Turton, A.R. & Bernhardt, W., (1998), *Policy –making within an Oligarchy: The Case of South Africa under Apartheid Rule*.
- UNIP (1974). *National policies for the Next Decade, 1974-1984*. Lusaka: Government Printers.
- UNESCO (1963). *Education in Northern Rhodesia: A Report and Recommendations*. Lusaka: Government Printers
- UNESCO (1964). *Education in Northern Rhodesia*. Lusaka: Government Printers.
- UNESCO (1996). *Learning: The Treasure Within: A Report to UNESCO of International Commission on Education for the Twenty-First Century*. France: UNESCO.
- Van Melter, T. & Van Horn, P., (1977). *The Policy Implementation Process: A Concept Framework. Administration and Society Vol.6. No. 4*. Sage Publishers.

VSO. (2002). *Teacher Talking Time: A policy research report on Malawian teachers' attitudes to their own profession*. Lilongwe: Malawi.

World Bank (2005).*Education Sector Working Paper*. Washington, D.C.: The World Bank.

Yin, R. K. (2009).*Case study research: Design and methods (3 Ed.)*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Zambia Daily Mail, 22 January 1983

APPENDICES.

Appendix A: Authority to Conduct Educational Research.

The University of Zambia,

Directorate of Research and Graduate Studies,

P.O. Box 32379,

LUSAKA.

U.F.S. The Provincial Education Officer,

North Western Region,

Solwezi.

U.F.S. The District Education Board Secretary,

Solwezi District,

Solwezi.

TO: The Headteacher,

..... Basic School.

RE: FIELD WORK FOR MASTERS' STUDENT: KATENDE VACSTER.

The bearer of this letter, KATENDE VACSTER (Mr) computer number 512800201 is a duly registered student at the University of Zambia, School of Education.

He is taking a Masters of Education in Primary Education. The programme has a fieldwork component which he has to complete. He is seeking your authority to allow him carry out an educational research in the Schools within Solwezi District of North Western Province.

Yours faithfully,

Dr Simwimba

ASSISTANT DIRECTOR

Appendix B: Informed Consent Form.

Dear Respondent,

This serves to give you an understanding of the purpose of this research and procedures that will be followed. Further implications for your participation are explained below. Finally, you are being asked to sign this form to indicate that you have agreed to participate in this exercise.

Thank you in advance.

Description

This exercise is an educational research; the researcher is a student at the University of Zambia pursuing a Masters of Education in Primary Education. This research is a major requirement for the researcher to complete his programme. Therefore, this exercise is purely academic.

Purpose

The researcher wishes to find out the Perspectives of Headteachers, Teachers, Pupils, Parents and NGOs (Stakeholders) on the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure. The researcher is interested in Stakeholders' perceptions on the change. The researcher is also interested in finding out the similarities and differences among the stakeholder group's views on the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school structure. Additionally, the challenges faced due to the re-introduction of the primary-secondary school system.

Consent

Participation in this exercise is voluntary. You are free to decline to participate in this exercise.

Confidentiality

All data collected from this research is treated with utmost confidentiality. Participants are assured that they will remain anonymous and untraceable in this research.

Rights of Respondents

All effort will be taken to ensure that the rights of participants are protected and respected. Participants are assured that they shall suffer no harm as a result of participating in this exercise. Participants are free to ask for clarification at any point of the exercise and to inform the research if they feel uncomfortable about any procedure in the research.

Declaration of Consent

I have read and fully understood this document. I therefore agree to participate in this exercise.

Signature.....

.Date.....

Appendix C: Questionnaire for teachers.

THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.

INTRODUCTION.

I am a Postgraduate Student pursuing a Master's Programme (M.Ed.) at the University of Zambia.

I am conducting a study on the STAKEHOLDERS VIEWS ON THE RE-INTRODUCTION OF THE PRIMARY-SECONDARY SCHOOL STRUCTURE in Solwezi district of North- Western Province of Zambia. This study is part of my academic requirements.

This exercise is purely academic and there is no right or wrong answers to the questions in this paper and no one will judge your answers. In addition, the questions will be strictly confidential. No record or name of respondents will be kept. Finally, no one apart from the researcher and his supervisor will see the answers or pass them to anyone else.

You are therefore, kindly requested to answer this questionnaire without fear of your identity as your responses to this questionnaire will be highly appreciated.

SECTION A: BIODATA.

For how long have you served as a teacher: 0-5 years [], 6-10 years [], 11-15years [], 16-20 years [], 20 and above []

School Category-Urban [], Peri-urban [], Rural []

Sex	Male	Female
-----	------	--------

Marital status of respondents					
Married	Single	Widowed	Divorced	Separated	Cohabiting

Highest academic qualification attained				
Certificate	Diploma	Bachelors	Masters	Other
There was wide consultation before the change of the policy				
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree

To what extent are you satisfied with the change?				
Very Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Somewhat Satisfied	Satisfied	Very Satisfied

Please comment on the state of human resource use in the former basic schools? (Your school). Indicate by crossing out any one of the following possible options (0) for I do not know, (1) for Strongly Agree, (2) for Agree, (3) for Somewhat Agree, (4) for Disagree and (5) for Strongly Disagree.

	0	1	2	3	4	5
The teachers are being used to handle lower grades						
The teachers have been redeployed to handle the same grades in secondary schools						
The teachers are just dormant						
There are no policy directions regarding the use of teachers						

To what extent are you satisfied with the current use or none use of the human
--

resource?				
Very Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Somewhat Satisfied	Satisfied	Very Satisfied

Please comment on the uses of the created /expanded space or infrastructure in the former basic schools? (Your school). Indicate by crossing out any one of the following possible options (0) for I do not know, (1) for Strongly Agree, (2) for Agree, (3) for Somewhat Agree, (4) for Disagree and (5) for Strongly Disagree.

	0	1	2	3	4	5
The infrastructure is being used for teaching						
The infrastructure is being hired to prevent disuse						
The infrastructure is being used for demonstrations						
The infrastructure is dormant						
There are no policy directions regarding the use of this infrastructure						

To what extent are you satisfied with the manner the infrastructure is being used or planned to be used?				
Very Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Somewhat Satisfied	Satisfied	Very Satisfied

Please comment on the plans that the school managers and Parent Teachers of Basic Schools have for material resources that were meant for eight and nine graders in your

school. Indicate by crossing out any one of the following possible options (0) for I do not know, (1) for Strongly Agree, (2) for Agree, (3) for Somewhat Agree, (4) for Disagree and (5) for Strongly Disagree.

	0	1	2	3	4	5
The material resources are being used for teaching grades other grades (1-7)						
The material resources have been stored for future use						
The material resources have been relocated to secondary schools handling grades 8 and 9						
There are no policy directions regarding the use of material resources						
There are plans to auction or sell the material resources						

To what extent are you satisfied with the manner the material resources is being used or planned to be used?				
Very Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Somewhat Satisfied	Satisfied	Very Satisfied

Appendix D: Interview guide for Parents.

As you may well know that there is a policy shift by the government on basic education, we may discuss a few matters. I shall be pleased if you could be as free as you can to express your informed position.

1. Please describe for me the state of human resource in the school.

Probe for adequacy

Probe for teachers being used to handle lower grades

Probe for teachers being redeployed to handle the same grades in high schools

Probe for teachers being dormant and motives

Probe for policy directions regarding the use of the teachers who once handled grades 8 and 9

Probe for satisfaction of this change or state of affairs

2. Please describe for me the state of the created /expanded space or infrastructure in the school.

3. Describe for me the uses of the created /expanded space or infrastructure in the former basic schools

4. By the way, has there been an increase in enrolment? And if so, in which grades? (to fill up space)

5. Describe for me the plans that you teachers and school managers have for material resources that were meant for eight and nine graders?

6. What are the challenges of this policy shift?

Probe for personal challenges

Probe for group challenges

Probe for school based challenges

How can the impacts of policy change be mitigated in future?

Appendix E: In-depth interviews with headteachers.

As you may well know that there is a policy shift by the government on basic education, we may discuss a few matters. I shall be pleased if you could be as free as you can to express your informed position.

1. Theme I: Please tell me about yourself

2. Please describe for me the state of human resource in the school.

Probe for male to female staff ratio.

Probe for adequacy

Probe for teachers are being used to handle lower grades

Probe for teachers been redeployed to handle the same grades in high schools

Probe for teachers being dormant and motives

Probe for policy directions regarding the use of the teachers who once handled grades 8 and 9

Probe for satisfaction of this change or state of affairs

3. Please describe for me the state of the created /expanded space or infrastructure in the school.

4. Describe for me the uses of the created /expanded space or infrastructure in the former basic schools

5. By the way has there been an increase in enrolment and if so in which grades (to fill up space)

6. Describe for me the plans that you teachers and school managers have for material resources that were meant for eight and nine graders?

7. What are the challenges of this policy shift?

Probe for personal challenges

Probe for group challenges

Probe for school based challenges

8. How can the impacts of policy change be mitigated in future.

Appendix F: Budget.

S/N	Item	Details	Qty	Unit cost	Total ZMK
1	Stationery	Reams of paper	4	30.00	120.00
		Pens	6	3.00	18.00
		Box file	1	15.00	15.00
		Note book	1	20.00	20.00
2	Equipment	Printer Toner	1	860.00	860.00
		Digital camera	1	1, 500.00	1, 500.00
		Flash disc	1	50.00	50.00
		Rewritable CDs	2	10.00	20.00
3	Transports/ Allowances	Lusaka- Solwezi	1	1, 200.00	1, 200.00
		Visiting school sites	100 Ltrs	12.00	1, 200.00
		(Fuel/Allowances)	2	1, 400.00	1, 400.00
		Solwezi-Lusaka	1	1, 200.00	1, 200.00
4	Lunch allowance	Lunch meals during data collection	20	50.00	1,000.00
5	Production cost	Poster	1	180.00	180.00
		Typing/Printing	4	60.00	240.00
		Report Binding reports	4	150.00	600.00
6	Contingency	1000.00			
	Grand Total				10,623.00

Appendix G: Research work plan.

ACTIVITY	MONTH									
	Sep 2013	t	Nov 2013	Dec 2013	Jan 2014	Feb 2014	Feb 2014	Mar 2014	Mar 2014	May 2014
Topic identification										
Development of the Research Proposal (from problem statement to methodology)										
Development of research instruments (questionnaires and interview guides)										
Data collection (physical undertaking of research)										
Data Analysis (Editing, coding and data entry)										
Report writing										
Submission of Draft copy										
Submission of final report										

Appendix H: PF Manifesto on Education.

In order to raise the educational standards, the PF government shall:

- Re-introduce free and compulsory education for all (that is from grade one to grade twelve), taking care to control the “unofficial” fee collections that have proliferated under the MMD’s version of free education;
- Provide adequate budgetary allocation on education to make free education a reality and further to cater for an appropriate expansion and up-grading of infrastructure and teaching resources;
- Upgrade all primary schools providing grades 1 to 4 to full primary schools (i.e., grade 1 to grade 7);
- Upgrade community schools to fully fledged primary and secondary schools;
- Review the language of instruction policy so as to promote the teaching of local languages at primary level;
- Phase out basic education and re-introduce a conventional early childhood, primary, secondary and tertiary education system;
- Open two paths for grade eight pupils based on their grade seven performance to follow up to grade twelve. One will be for learners who will follow an academic path and the other for learners who will follow a technical path.
- Re-orient the curriculum for primary and secondary schools to put emphasis on life skills subjects to enable learners cope with the demands of self-employment and the labour market
- Review the Education Act of 1966 in order to harmonize it with the current demands in the education sector (PF Manifesto, 2011).

SED (8p.)

ME/101/1/125

Ministry of Education,
P.O. Box 50093,
LUSAKA.

22nd November, 1994.

CIRCULAR No. 14 OF 1994

TO ALL: Provincial Education Officers,
District Education Officers

ESTABLISHMENT OF BASIC SCHOOLS

This Circular serves to inform all Provincial Education Officers and District Education Officers that the Ministry of Education has now worked out policy guidelines for establishing basic schools in the country. The document titled Policy Guidelines for Establishing Basic schools is attached.

The contents of this policy document should be communicated to all those wishing to establish basic schools as well as to those who have already established these schools. It is expected that PEO's will channel this information through the DEO's without fail.

Sgd By: Sicalwe M. Kasanda (Dr)
PERMARENT SECRETARY
MINISTRY OF EDUCATION



See file on this
Council of both
departments and in Region.
A. S. Kasanda
3/4/97

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

POLICY GUIDELINES FOR ESTABLISHING BASIC SCHOOLS

Basic schools have become a permanent feature of our Zambian education system. In order to strengthen their operation, the following guidelines should be followed when establishing them.

1. BASIC REQUIREMENTS FOR ESTABLISHING A BASIC SCHOOL:

By definition, a basic school is a school which offers education from Grade 1 up to Grade 9. The process of establishing Basic schools so far has been confined to the up-grading of the existing primary schools, by introducing Grades 8 and 9 classes to their streams.

Whether established through up-grading a primary school or by building a new school, the basic requirements of a Basic school are given below.

1.1 POPULATION

A Basic school should be established in an area with a sufficient school-going population to meet the stipulated minimum enrolment requirements of 40 pupils per class for each of the Grades 1 to 9. The minimum number of classes a Basic school should therefore have is 9, One class for each of the Grades 1 to 9.

1.2 INFRASTRUCTURE

No Basic school should be allowed to open without building structures for the following facilities:

1.2.1. CLASSROOMS

Ideally, each of the Grades 1 to 9 classes should have a classroom. Otherwise, a clear rota system for the maximisation of the use of the existing insufficient classroom space should be shown. Such an arrangement must ensure that all the classes are provided with the stipulated minimum number of hours of instruction per week in each of the subjects offered at each Grade level.

1.2.2. SPECIALISED ROOMS

A Basic school should have a Science room or laboratory to begin with. In the course of time other specialist rooms such as a Library or Resource Centre, Home Economics and Industrial Arts rooms should be built.

1.2.3. Subject departmental rooms

Each head of a subject department must have an office from which to administer the department. The room should be secure and large enough to keep the teaching and learning materials and other records for the department. However, a large room can be used communally by two or more subject departments in the initial stages of establishing a Basic school, while efforts are made in the course of time to provide separate room facilities for each subject department.

1.2.4. Staffroom

A Basic school should have a staffroom large enough to accommodate all members of staff at the same time.

1.2.5. Administration offices

A Basic school should have at least two administrative offices, one for the Head and the other for the Deputy Head.

1.2.6. Sanitary facilities

A Basic school should have separate toilet facilities for boys and girls. Similarly, there should be separate toilet facilities for the male and female members of staff. Sanitary facilities should be in form of either water flushing toilets or pit latrines.

1.2.7. Sports grounds

A Basic school should have a football ground with a running track around it.

1.3. STAFFING

No Basic school should be allowed to open without evidence for the provision of an adequate number of teachers to teach the basic six subjects at upper Basic levels, that is Grade 8 and 9. These subjects should include English, Mathematics, Science and Social Studies. The teachers should meet the following requirements:

1.3.1. Qualifications

The minimum qualifications of teachers for the upper classes are:

- (1) A full school certificate.
- (ii) One or two year diploma in education.

The salary scale of a diploma teacher will be determined periodically according to qualifications by the established systems and organs of government machinery.

1.2.2. Seconded teachers

The provision for seconding primary school teachers to teach the upper Basic classes remains an official policy of the Ministry until such time that enough teachers will have been trained. The qualifications for primary school teachers to be seconded to teach upper Basic classes are:

- (i) Full school certificate with
- (ii) At least three credits, of which one should be in the subject(s) which the teacher has been seconded to teach.

Seconded teachers will continue to receive special responsibility allowance.

1.4. STAFF ACCOMMODATION

No Basic school should be allowed to open without evidence of the ability by the school to accommodate teachers.

1.5. BOOKS

It is futile to have teachers without books. Before a Basic school is allowed to open, there should be a guarantee for the provision of the text books in all the subjects to be offered. Initially, it may not be possible to have sufficient copies of the text books for all the pupils in the school, but as long as the teachers have copies of the books, the teaching and learning process can take place.

Ideally, a Basic school should have a library with a good collection of supplementary readers.

1.6. SUPPORT MATERIALS AND EQUIPMENT

A school cannot be administered effectively without support materials such as stationery. It should therefore be one of the pre-conditions for opening a Basic school that there should be evidence of the capacity by the school to provide the necessary stationery for the day-to-day administration of the school. Basic equipment such as a typewriter and a duplicating machine should be provided.

1.7. CURRICULUM

Before a Basic school is allowed to open, efforts should be made by the initiators of the idea to ensure that the syllabuses for all the subjects to be offered at the upper Basic school level are procured from the Curriculum Development Center.

1.8. WATER SUPPLY

A Basic school will not be allowed to open unless it has sufficient and constant water supply.

2. PROCEDURE FOR INITIATING THE OPENING OF A BASIC SCHOOL

The idea to open a basic school can be initiated by the community through the Parent Teachers Associations, the District Education Office, the Provincial Education Office, or the Ministry of Education Headquarters. Whichever party takes the initiative, the following procedure should be followed:

2.1. An application letter accompanied by an inspection report made by the Inspectorate at the District or Provincial Education Offices should be sent to the Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Education Headquarters. Two copies of this set of documents should be sent with one copy for the attention of the Director of the Planning Unit and the other copy for the attention of the Chief Inspector of Schools.

2.2. When the application letter and report are received by the Ministry Headquarters, the Permanent Secretary will despatch an Inspector of schools and a Planning Officer from the Headquarters to verify the validity of the report.

2.3. On the basis of the report by the Inspector and Planning Officer at the Headquarters, the Permanent Secretary will either approve or reject the application.

Once the application has been approved, the information will be communicated to the Provincial Education Officer to open the school. It will then accordingly be registered.

2.4. The inspection report will reflect, among other comments, the basic requirements for establishing a Basic school, as shown under 1.1. to 1.8.

3. OTHER POLICY GUIDELINES ON BASIC SCHOOLS

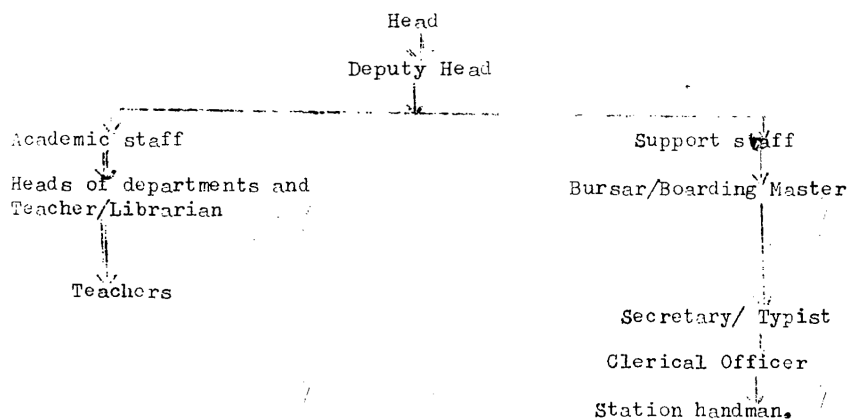
3.1. Classification of Basic schools

Since a Basic school should offer education from Grade 1 to 9, the minimum number of classes expected of a Basic school is 9. The following are the gradings of the Basic schools.

<u>Number of classes</u>	<u>Grade</u>
28+	1
19- 27	2
10- 18	3
9 classes	4

3.2. Administrative structure

The structure of the Basic school administration will be as follows:



The size and nature of the support staff will be determined by the size and nature of the Basic school.

3.3. Qualifications, Duties and Remunerations of Administrative Staff.

3.3.1. Qualifications

(i) Head of the school

He or she will be a person in possession of a minimum qualification of a Diploma in Education; Has a minimum of 5 years teaching experience, Has held the position of Deputy Head; Has a proven record of administrative ability.

The salary scales of Deputy Heads of Basic schools will continue as they are, and will be determined periodically by the established systems and organs of government machinery.

(iii) Head of Department

The posts of Heads of Departments have been created in Basic schools. These posts will carry the salary scale of Senior Teacher. Consequently, the post of Senior Teacher in a Basic school becomes superfluous and should therefore be phased out with time.

(iv) Support staff

The salary scales of support staff will continue to be as they are and be determined periodically by the established systems and organs of the government machinery.

3.4. Departments in Basic schools

Subject departments in Basic schools will be organised in such a way that each Subject Department will combine all the relevant subjects offered from Grade 1 up to Grade 9, as follows:

3.4.1 Mathematics Department

Will consist of all the Mathematical subjects from Grade 1 to 9.

3.4.2. Natural Sciences Department

Will consist of Environmental Science, Agricultural Science, Health Education and all other related science subjects taught from Grade 1 to 9.

3.4.3 Languages Department

Will consist of English, Zambian languages, and any other language subject which may be taught in Zambian schools from Grade 1 to 9.

3.4.4. Social Studies Department

Will consist of the following subjects: History, Civics, Geography, Social Studies, Spiritual and Moral Education, and any other related Social Studies subject which may be taught from Grade 1 to 9

3.4.5. Practical Subjects Department

Will consist of the following subjects: Wood work, Physical Education, Creative Arts, and any other related Practical subjects which may be taught from Grade 1 to 9.

3.4.6. Home Economics Department

Will consist of the following subjects: Home Management, Food and Nutrition, Needle work, Mother Craft, Health Education and any other related Home Economics subject which may be taught from Grade 1 to 9.

3.5. POSTS OF SPECIAL RESPONSIBILITY IN BASIC SCHOOLS

The post of Head of Department in a basic school will NO LONGER be a Post of Special Responsibility. It is now a salaried post carrying the salary scale of a Senior Teacher in a primary school.

The following responsibilities will however, carry a Special Responsibility allowance at the existing percentage rate of one's salary:

3.5.1. Primary Teacher seconded to teach Grades 8 and 9.

3.5.2. Sports Master/Mistress.

3.5.3. Production Unit Master/Mistress

3.5.4. Double Class teaching

3.5.5. Guidance Master/Mistress

3.5.6. Librarianship

The special responsibility allowance will be paid upon completion of the Post of Special Responsibility Allowance Form, known as Appendix E, by the officer and approved by the Head of the school, the Provincial Education Officer and the Chief Inspector of schools.

3.6. APPOINTMENTS TO SALARIED POSTS OF RESPONSIBILITY

There are two methods used by the Ministry of Education to appoint Officers to posts of responsibility. These are by internal recommendation or by advertisement.

For the appointment of Heads of Departments in a school, the following procedure will be followed:

(a) Headmaster/mistress will make internal recommendations for appointments of Heads of Departments in their respective schools. Each recommendation should consist of the following documents:

(i) A letter of recommendation to the Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Education, P.O. Box 50093, Lusaka. U.f.s. the Provincial Education Officer or District Education Officer.

(ii) The Annual Confidential Report.