ACCESS OF FEMALE PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS TO IN-SERVICE TRAINING COLLEGES - THE CASE OF CHONGWE DISTRICT.

BY

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LUSAKA.

DECLARATION

I, Eulerius Moonga Muuka hereby declare that this dissertation represents my own work and that it has not been submitted for a degree in this university or any other university.

Signed

16/05/04

Date
APPROVAL

This dissertation of EULERIUS MOONGA MUUKA is approved as fulfilling part of the requirements for the award of the degree of Master of Education in Sociology of the University of Zambia.

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DEDICATION

To my 'little angels' Mafihlo and Munamoola, to whom I owe all my success.
ABSTRACT

This report brings out the findings of the study on how academic and professional qualifications, positively or negatively affected the social status of primary school teachers. The investigator specifically looked at the female primary school teachers who made up the larger population of the primary school teachers, and yet, were lesser represented, not only at educational management levels, but also, at retraining levels, that is, at in-service institutions. In this vein, the aim of the report was to show the extent to which the female primary school teachers were not able to access in-service training which was a vital stage of their academic and professional advancement. In order to come up with the much needed data that was to assist in high-lighting the access levels, qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection were used. The catchment area - Chongwe District, was divided into 6 (six) zones in which questionnaires and interviews were administered to a randomly sampled population of 120 female primary school teachers - 20 respondents per zone.

From the collected data, the causes of the gender imbalance in the in-service teachers' colleges (with the female teachers lesser represented) have been discussed. It will be noticed that some of the causes were a making of the government, through the Ministry of Education and its functionaries. The other causes emanated from the general beliefs of the Zambian society and in particular those of the immediate communities that were visited. Others were from the peer groups, the spouses and their relatives, the financial handicap of teachers, on to ignorance and negative attitude by the female primary school teachers themselves.

Having discussed the inhibiting factors on the access to in-service training of female primary school teachers, the author presented some recommendations to counter the above factors. The report brings out deliberate indications that the Ministry of Education should, from its national headquarters, closely monitor and supervise its functionaries so that the laid down policies are efficiently and effectively implemented.
Apart from society in general, the individual female primary school teachers themselves should adjust to suit social change, part of which, are the modern education trends. In the report, the researcher indicated that change of attitude at national, community and individual levels towards women in general and primary school teachers in particular, could enhance the realization of co-equal access and participation in education.

The report concludes with a view that access to in-service training by female primary school teachers would promote academic achievement by the pupils, offer professional motivation to these teachers; and widen their acceptability and social status in the societies they are found.
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CHAPTER 1

BACKGROUND

Introduction.

It was a world-wide phenomenon that individual and collective access to education was no more an optional requirement but one that was obligatory on every government. In Africa, the post-colonial era had seen a rapid move towards a general access to education by the general citizenry (Albrecht and Ziderman; 1992). This became a necessity because education did not just make people aware of the variety of human behaviour, but also provided intellectual competence and awareness of problems and solutions (Psacharopoulos; 1980). The above intent was backed by Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights; and the Convention and Recommendations against discrimination in education under UNESCO which affirmed that every human being had the right to education (Chabaund; 1974). In Zambia, the Educational Policy of the First National Development plan focused on, among other priorities, equality of educational opportunity for all the citizens and development of human resource (MOE; 1965, MOE; 1967). Furthermore, the works done by Kelly (1991) and Lungwangwa (1994) indicated that even in Zambia’s Third Republic era there was increasing desire to develop an egalitarian society and human resource, and the need to create equal educational
opportunity, quality and access to education. The provision of education to all would bring about social change. This was important as observed by Chinoy (1964: 71):

... no society is absolutely static, nor fully integrated, this equilibrium can be described as dynamic or moving... As changes occur, and their repercussions are felt, adjustments are made...

Mooted by social scientists of the 1960s and the later years, among them Chinoy (1964), Lenski (1970), Medley and Conveyers (1972), Inkeles and Smith (1974), Parelus and Parelus (1978) and Schaefer (1983) social change was meant to foster an awareness to policy makers, educators and politicians on the important role education played in any given society.

It had been observed that education did not just change the whole structure and working modes of society, but, it also enabled individuals upgrade their academic and professional qualifications; and raised their status in the same society. One unequivocally vital segment of education in the world at that time was the provision of in-service training to serving teachers. Greenland (1983:1) in looking at the new educational strategies and concepts said;

In view of the continuous renovation and development of general pedagogical knowledge, and the constant changes taking place in the education system and the increasing creative character of pedagogical activities, it does not seem possible to equip the teacher with knowledge and skills which would be sufficient for his whole professional life...

Vivian (1977) had made an earlier observation that while teachers received training at pre-service colleges, there was additional demand for large scale effort to provide re-training and further training for the mass of serving teachers who would continue to set
the educational standards for a good number of years ahead. This would counter the daily challenges and act as an effective tool towards the speedy growth and changes in the educational systems world over.

In Zambia, through the ambitious programme of “Educating Our Future - National Policy on Education”, the government policy demanded the provision of education to every child from grades 1 to 9 without any discrimination. The success of such a vast programme also called for the retraining of primary school trained teachers. These were teachers who were seconded to teach upper basic classes, Grades 8 and 9 (MOE; 1996). So, the main aim of in-service training was to familiarise the primary school trained teachers with the new or revised curriculum content and methodologies in order to upgrade both their understanding and knowledge; and their instructional skills (MOE; 1992). While the above expressed view was from a government policy implementation perspective, the general populace of teachers attached an extra view to it, and that was of a degree of status upgrading. It is, however, envisaged that at whatever level and for whatever reason in-service training was undertaken, it was an important aspect for a qualified teacher’s working life.

While it was known that in-service education at upgrading levels was taking place at colleges like Copperbelt Secondary Teachers’ College (COSETCO), National In-service Teachers’ College (NISTCOL – Chalimbana) and Nkrumah Teachers’ College for primary trained teachers who wanted to teach Grades 8 and 9, it was compelling to look
at accessibility to this kind of education. Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) observed that the accessibility view was very important because the continuous development of all teachers was the corner-stone for meaning, improvement and reform. The 1970 research on Asia and the Middle East, showed that 50% of the primary teachers were women (King and Hill; 1993). In Zambia the scenario was different as the female primary school teachers constituted about two-thirds of the primary teachers’ population. An example of such statistics was that which was collected from the Provincial Education Officer’s office – Lusaka Region for 1996 and reaffirmed by MOE (1999), indicating that Lusaka Urban District in Lusaka province had a ratio of about 1 : 3 male - female primary school teachers, while Kitwe District in the Copperbelt during the same year showed a 1 : 2 male – female primary school teachers ( MOE; 1999:87 ). Such was part of the picture in Zambia where the government policy aimed at promoting equality of access, participation and equity to education ( MOE; 1999).

Although the necessity for in-service training had been brought to the fore, it became necessary to find out whether or not the female – male primary school teachers’ ratio that were found in primary schools existed at in-service training level. Access of Female Primary School Teachers to In-service Training Colleges, was an endeavour to look at the accessibility of female primary school teachers in general to the colleges for in-service training. The specifics were on female primary school teachers in Chongwe District and were done in order to find out whether UNESCO’s view of equality of access to education for women ( Chabaud; 1974 ), was a reality in Zambia according to the
already mentioned existing ratio. If not, could the observation made by Legatt in 1970 that the bureaucratic nature of work context was compatible for women’s traditional characteristics which included submissiveness, acceptance of authority, lack of ambition and nurturance, be true? (Walker and Barton; 1983). Or, could it be true to say that in many educational systems women were deliberately under-represented, especially, in higher education? (Acker, Megarry, Nisbet and Hoyle, 1984). Or, could the observation that some men were sometimes afraid of marrying women who were well educated, be valid? (Fullan and Stiegelbauer; 1991). Or, was it that female teachers did not appreciate further education as a basis of high status in society? The study was an attempt to answer the questions raised above. This was with a view that the female teachers in these schools needed not only to receive information on in-service education, but, consistently and adequately participate in these in-service programmes for their own good and that of the nation.

**Statement of the Problem.**

A research carried out by Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991), revealed that women did not enjoy all the educational opportunities that they should have had, and that nearly everywhere in the world women were given less education than men. In Zambia, it had been observed in ‘The Educational Reforms: Proposals and Recommendations of 1977’, that both male and female teachers would want to use in-service training to upgrade their professional qualifications and improve on their academic qualifications.
It was viewed by society that such educational enhancement could culminate into the raising of an individual’s social status. The above sentiment could be a reality, if we went by the 'Ministry of Education ESIP Draft Report: Investing in Our People' (1996a), that alluded to the fact that the general government policy was that every person in Zambia regardless of place of residence, gender or disability could participate fully and without hindrance in education and training.

In most of the third world countries, Zambia inclusive, women continued to constitute about two-thirds of the teaching force at primary school level (King and Hill; 1993), and some concern had arisen to find out whether or not the workforce ratio that existed in the schools was also existent in the in-service colleges. The problem was that it was not known why there was such an imbalance of male-female primary school teachers in terms of access into full-time in-service colleges as per existing ratio of 3:1. This study was conducted in order to establish the reasons for the imbalance.

The Research Questions.

The study questions were:

(i) How much were female primary school teachers aware of full-time in-service training?

(ii) To what extent had female primary school teachers utilized in-service training?
(iii) What were the factors that hindered female primary school teachers from accessing in-service training?

The Objectives of the Study.

The objectives of this study were to;

(i) Establish the degree to which female primary school teachers were able to access training in in-service colleges on full-time basis.

(ii) Identify the constraints that hindered female primary school teachers from accessing in-service training.

(iii) Come up with recommendations to the government, through the Ministry of Education and its functionaries, on how best to assist female primary school teachers access in-service training.

The Significance of the Study.

The findings from this study were expected to assist teachers in general and female primary school teachers in particular to realize that education at all levels was a global conventional right and that it was basic for national development and the raising of an individual’s status in life (Chabaud; 1974). The findings were also expected to show the need for policy makers and implementers, that is, the Ministry of Education and in-service teachers colleges’ management, the importance of reviewing the current and
future male-female teachers enrolment ratios and see how they could help more female primary school teachers access in-service training on full-time basis.

The Limitations of the Study.

In carrying out the research, the process of data collection had some flaws. The catchment area had some schools that were not easily accessible. Due to irregular movement of vehicles, it was difficult to keep to appointments, resulting in no direct contact with some of the respondents apart from the questionnaires that were sent to them and they had to fill them in. In this case more time was spent on trying to move from one place to another than was necessary. During the scheduled interviews, the researcher discovered that there was a degree of ‘fear’ by the female teachers for their supervisors. So, some teachers left some parts of the questionnaires they thought were sensitive in relation to their relationship with their supervisors unanswered. In order to carry out the research effectively, a tape recorder was going to be the most ideal, but was not available prompting the researcher to jot down the responses. The information from the D.E.O.’s office, too, was not easy to collect. The funding aspect by the sponsors was a problem as inadequate funds were availed for the research.

The Delimitation of the Study.

The study was restricted to female primary school teachers who qualified to undergo full-time training leading to higher qualification attainment, that is, certificate and diploma courses. The study covered only confirmed female primary school teachers in the zones of Chongwe District – six (6) in number.
Figure A. Map of Chongwe District showing the Zones in which the research was carried out.
Conceptual Framework.

The ideals of social change were manifestations of the social scientists of the 1960s. Many a scholar, among them Chinoy (1964), Lenski (1970), Medley and Conveyers (1972), Inkeles and Smith (1974), Parelius and Parelius (1978) and Schaefer (1983) indicate that this was a great era of awareness to policy makers, educators and politicians on the important role education plays in social change. The writings of Karabel and Halsey (1977) have been magnified by Lungwangwa (1987) as he observes that the 1960s period was characterised by the development of various theoretical works, concepts and methodologies that afforded different scholars and researchers to examine more critically the nature of education globally.

To a larger extent, these ideas have given rise to sociological theories out of which sociology of education theoretical perspectives emanate. For educational phenomenon to be researched on, some of the sociological theories that were utilised were the social stratification theory propagated by Karl Max, Max Weber and Gerhard Lenski, the conflict theory of Karl Marx, Samuel Bowles and Willard Waller and the theory of power of distributive system of Gerhard Lenski.

These theories when applied to the study of society, bring to the fore the ideals of social change. The ideals of social change underpin the fundamental alterations of what Zanden (1988: 613) called, "patterns of culture, structure and social behaviour over a period of time." Chinoy (1964:71), observed that:

Since no society is absolutely static, nor fully integrated, this equilibrium can be described as dynamic or moving ... as changes occur and their repercussions are felt, adjustments are made ...
With the above notion, it is clear that societies contain within themselves an element of change. For social change to take place, a given society should be alerted of a 'lack' that exists within it. The social change phenomenon is better understood through theories.

Karl Marx looked at the social stratification levels of human beings based on economic determinism (Parelius and Parelius; 1978). His school of thought became an indicator that institutions are segmented into layers, called social classes. It is these structures that Karl Marx says are not static, but dynamic. This is in line with the other consensus theorists who recognise that at least some social change is inevitable (Parelius and Parelius; 1978:5). However, Karl Marx knew that workers might experience “false consciousness” instead of the “correct” awareness of their class position.

The social stratification theory can be used to assess the level of job satisfaction, that is, to locate differences in the incidence and intensity of work satisfaction among those in diverse occupations and work settings (Goode citing Blauner; 1965). Max Weber questioned Karl Marx’s emphasis on linking social stratification to the economic setting. Max Weber’s view was that the person’s position in society was not only determined by one characteristic. He used the term “class” to refer to persons who shared a similar level of wealth and income. In looking at other factors that stratify society, Weber mentioned class, status and power (Schaefer, 1983, Chinoy; 1961).

The conflict theorists focus on the coercive nature of society and the pervasiveness of social change. To the conflict theorists, power struggle is the main catalyst to the dynamism of social life. This is because the conflict theorists’ view is that social systems are divided into dominant and subordinate groups (Parelius and Parelius; 1978). Willard Waller’s conflict theory gives a view that conflict in society can be reduced when the social groups realise and accept each other’s potential. The conflict model has its emphasis on social change through “radical” and “activist” views but accepts redistribution of resources among the members of society as a way of minimising conflict.
This study adopted Lenski and Weber’s theory of “social stratification.” Lenski looks at
the social stratification theory by using certain elements of the functionalist and conflict
approaches (Schaefer 1983). He looks at power, privileges and prestige as sources of
social stratification. Using the two approaches, Lenski agrees that:

...the key resources of a society are allocated as rewards for persons
who occupy important roles. However, as a society advances ... it
becomes capable of producing a considerable surplus of goods. These
surplus resources are disproportionately distributed to those with the
greatest influence, power and status. Such unequal allocation of
resources leads to the societal tension and conflict. (Schaefer, 1983:194).

Max Weber, unlike Karl Marx, describes social stratification from three dimensions and
these are: “... class, status and party. These cover aspects like wealth, goods, living
conditions, occupation, income, life chances, the chance to live a long and rewarding life,
education, a good income, interesting experiences...” (Stewart; 1981:164).

The ideas propagated by Max Weber on the social stratification theory are ideally not
very different from those of Gerhard Lenski as he also uses elements of the functionalist
and conflict approaches.

The theory has been adopted for the following reasons:

(i) The theory deals with status in society which human beings strive to have
with education as one of the contributors towards enhancement to status. It is
the status of the female primary school trained teachers and their access to
further education that is of concern.

(ii) The theory shows that society in general and teaching as an occupation in
particular, is made up of stratified structures. The concern is to relate the
theory to access to the tools of empowerment by female primary school
trained teachers in order to bridge the existing gap with their men folk.

(iii) Lenski and Weber’s theory brings together two schools of sociological
thought i.e. the functionalist and the conflict.
The social stratification theory might not have fully helped to solve the issue under study, or should it be viewed as the best theory to solve educational problems in Zambia. Other theories like the functionalist and conflict theories, contain in their operations elements that could have been applied to help solve the existing problem and many other problems pertaining to education in this country.

**Definitions of Concepts.**

A capable teaching staff: Refers to teachers with the necessary skills and strategies; usually self assertive and high motivated and very keen to achieve their goals.

Access: Refers to the ability to enter, approach, use or admit into a place or institution.

Class: Refers to a number of persons sharing a common position in society's social order.

Education: Refers to the process of training and developing the knowledge, skill, mind, character, especially by formal schooling.

Empowerment: Refers to the giving of power or authority, i.e. to enable or equip somebody with abilities.

Equality: Refers to the state or quality of being equal e.g. character and perception.

Equity: Means the quality of being fair, impartial and just.

Gender: Refers to male and female primary school teachers.

Income: Refers to salaries and wages.
In-service: Refers to a way of retraining a worker to update him/her with up-to-date information and techniques through seminars, workshops and long term courses.

Perception: Means the way of seeing and understanding issues which may be personal or collective; hence, the possibility of their being right or wrong.

Professionalism: Refers to the attempt by occupational groups to upgrade themselves through higher requirements.

Quality Refers to the degree to which something is excellent or the standard of goodness.

Ratio: Refers to the relationship between two similar magnitude in respect to the number of times first contains the second.

Social Change: Means significant alterations over time in behaviour patterns and culture, including norms and values.

Social Inequality: Refers to a condition in which societal members have unequal amounts of wealth, prestige or power.

Status (i) Refers to the ranking of social positions; i.e. the hierarchy of prestige (Chinoy; 1961 : 134).

(ii) Also refers to esteem and recognition, which take different forms in different societies (Stewart;1981:126).
Stratification: (i) Refers to a structural ranking of entire groups of people that perpetuates unequal economic rewards and power in society (Schaefer; 198:190).

(ii) Is considered as a process, a problem, a structure; it may be seen as one aspect of differentiation of roles and statuses in society, as division of society into social groups or quasi-groups .... (Chinoy; 1961:131).

Teachers' Knowledge: Refers to the wide range of experience and information a teacher is familiar with.
CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

All over the world, education had been cited as the core to national development and individual advancement. In the United States of America, one of the most persistent challenges of citizens was the ethic that one had to be successful (Medley and Conyers; 1972). The afore emphasized success, it was believed, was a product of a well planned and run educational system in any given country of the world. There was a notion that organizational ability from a theoretical base alone was not enough because, as had been observed in developing countries, one other major concern hinged on accessibility to this education by the majority citizenry (King and Hill; 1993).

Although Vivian (1977:1) had from the study carried out on 'Developing Countries of the Commonwealth', revealed that educational facilities in these countries had at all levels remarkably and rapidly expanded with the change mainly in secondary and higher education. The findings could not be taken as global, as;

Both the rapid growth of educational systems and at the same time the need to devise and implement a more suitable kind of education have thus, presented those concerned with a major challenge.

In Zambia, the 'New National Policy on Education' re-affirmed the fact that the quality and effectiveness of an educational system depended on the quality of teachers (MOE;
1996). This idea was manifested in the country's policy documents on education, namely; Educational Reforms of 1977, Focus on Learning of 1992 and Educating Our Future (MOE; 1996), that had emphasis on personal and national development; and the mobilization of resources for the development of education, respectively. In fact, the Ministry of Education Mission Statement of 1996, which has not changed up to the time of writing this report indicated that, it was there to:

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

The above Mission Statement was one of the many indicators that the principal foundations on which the educational system in Zambia rested, hinged on the promotion of access, participation and benefit of education for all (MOE; 1999:1). When we look at the stated policy, there was positive indication that the government recognised the basic right of every Zambian to access good and quality education.

While the government policy on education for all appeared good and workable, need arose to address the pertinent issues concerning the main provider of this education, that is, the teacher. The Zambian teachers of the period under review needed to further their education if the then newly introduced Basic Education Sub-Sector Investment Programme (BESSIP) was to succeed.

So, it was clear that the administration and management of teacher education was to be one of the priority segments of education of the country (McCarty and Associates; 1973) or else, the argument by Koener, cited in McCarty (1973: 100-101), when he wrote, "Let me state at once my fear that no genuine new directions are possible in teacher education," will be taken to be true.
In his ‘Master of Education’ dissertation, Muyangana (1982), views Koener’s idea as being somehow naïve as:

Education in Zambia like other countries, is always on the move so that the whole education system once in a while finds itself in the throes of reformation. When reforms in education are decreed, that follows elaborate in-service training for teachers. As many old ideas disappear, educators require a better understanding of the past events to help them map out the future.

In fact, research on ‘School Development’ based on the ‘Meaning of Educational Change’ (Fullan and Stiegelbauer; 1991:289), revealed that “Teacher development and school development must go hand in hand.” Furthermore, “You cannot have one without the other.” (Vivian; 1977:1).

The Zambian people, working hand in hand with the government had at that time tried to expand many primary and secondary schools in terms of infrastructure. This was to fulfil the national aspiration of turning primary schools into basic schools that were to run from grades 1 to 9. In the same vein secondary schools were meant to run from grades 10 to 12 as High Schools. While the above programme was well intended, in the quest by government to afford education to the majority of its citizens, the sourcing of quality teachers to provide quality education was a major problem which had forced government to recruit expatriate teachers to teach, not only in secondary schools, but also in colleges and universities. In certain cases primary school trained teachers were recruited on secondment to teach in secondary schools, and at times in pre-service teachers’ training colleges. At the basic education level, primary school trained teachers continued being seconded to teach grades 8 and 9. So, it became necessary to indicate that the Ministry of Education in Zambia identified the shortfall in the supply of trained teachers, necessitating the recruitment of untrained teachers in a bid to try to meet the national educational aspirations, as a way of “Educating Our Future” (MOE; 1996:1). Side by side with the ‘suffering’ educational system are seconded/untrained teachers whose future
academically and professionally was not guaranteed. The status and trust in them by the society remained questionable. In the institutions where they were seconded, the qualified members of staff tended to have neither respect nor sympathy for them. For the majority of such teachers (seconded), the above behavior towards them culminated into a social, academic and professional problem that needed an urgent solution by the authorities concerned, in that case, the government through the Ministry of Education. Vivian (1977:1) concurred with the above notion by stating that:

This is an indication that both rapid growth of the educational system and at the time, the need to devise and implement a more suitable kind of education have presented those concerned with a major challenge.

It was envisaged that this challenge would be met with the formulation and implementation of an educational policy that realised that the state of the teaching profession was crucial as it was dependent on the general level of the teachers' education and training. Furthermore, the policy needed to address among other things, the teachers' capacity for improvement, their status in the society, their morale, their stability within the profession and their continuity of service within the schools (Vivian; 1977). Ultimately, it was to be born in mind that, having worked for so many years, every teacher needed retraining. It had been observed that, "Teacher development is the nexus for so many issues of meaning, change and improvement and as such is absolutely fundamental to any long lasting solution to the educational ills" (Fullan and Stiegegbauer; 1991: 290). Furthermore, in one of the Zambian government's policy documents 'Educating Our Future - National Policy on Education' (1996:115), it had been observed that:

Teacher education is a continuous process that must be extended throughout the individual's years of actual teaching as the foundation laid by the pre-service programmes may be sound and adequate as a start, but it is not sufficient. In this case, teachers have to deepen their knowledge, extend their professional skills and keep themselves up-to-date on the major developments affecting their profession. Teaching is a learned and learning profession. Ideally, every teacher needs to be learned and a learner.
The above statement called for an urgent and committed move, that was, access teachers to retraining centers, part of which were in-service colleges, for short or long term programmes. A research conducted by Vivian (1977:17), revealed that:

A number of countries have now set up full time in-service colleges or centres for this purpose with appropriate staffing, an example is the National In-service Teachers’ College, (NISTCOL) near Lusaka, Zambia; another is the In-service Training Centre at Kano, Nigeria.

Recently, in ‘Educating Our Future -National Policy on Education’ (MOE ; 1996:11), it was stated that the University of Zambia (UNZA) undertook the role of offering diploma programmes through NISTCOL, adding to the number of in-service programmes in the country in general, and at the college in particular since 1995.

Even with such positive developments, there was at that time a general view that the standards of education in Zambia had fallen. Evidently, that raised the failing levels among the learners which, to a large extent, society attributed to the teachers rather than to itself (society) and the learners. Fullan and Stiegebauer (1991:117), made a similar observation, “The conditions of teaching appear to have deteriorated and it is in fact that teachers have become devalued by the community and by the public.” In this vain, the retraining of the teachers would not only uplift their professional and academic performance, but also change society’s perception on teachers’ status. After all, society admitted that, “They are the serving teachers who remain in the system, the ministry (and society at large) is going to rely upon for the quality of education to be offered to the pupils” (Brophy and Dudley ;1982:58 ).
In discussing the issue of education and access to in-service training by serving primary school teachers, there also arose the need for research on gender equity in accessing in-service training. With data indicating a ratio of 1 : 3 of male-female population of primary school teachers, the study on, ‘Access of Female Primary School Teachers to In-service Training Colleges’, was ideal.

The data on the Zambian educational scenario did not seem to be unique as, Megarry (1984:14), observed that:

All over the world, women encounter special problems as consumers and providers of education. By comparison with their male counterparts, they under-participate in formal education, ... and are under-represented in senior and promoted posts in the education service, whose policy-making bodies tend to suffer from the ‘man-as-the-norm’ syndrome.

Part of the data that elucidated the disparities in the seniority and promotions of female primary school teachers as compared to the male teachers, was one that was carried out by the Ministry of Education, and brought to the fore the examples below:

**Teachers in Posts of Responsibility : 1996.**

**Table 1. EASTERN PROVINCE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Town</th>
<th>School Heads</th>
<th>Deputy Heads</th>
<th>Senior Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chipata</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>08</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Petauke</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>02</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Katete</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>07</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lundazi</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>05</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mambwe</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>00</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chadidza</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>01</td>
<td>09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chama</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>03</td>
<td>07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nyimba</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>01</td>
<td>07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTALS</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>215</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(94.9%) (5.1%) (89.2%) (10.8%) (74.9%) (25.1%)

(MOE; 1996:124).
Table 2. LUSAKA PROVINCE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Town</th>
<th>School Heads</th>
<th>Deputy Heads</th>
<th>Senior Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lusaka</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chongwe</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>06</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kafue</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>05</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luangwa</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>00</td>
<td>03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTALS</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(78%)</td>
<td>(22%)</td>
<td>(57%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(MOE; 1996: 185).

Table 3. SOUTHERN PROVINCE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Town</th>
<th>School Heads</th>
<th>Deputy Heads</th>
<th>Senior Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Choma</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>09</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kalomo</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mazabuka</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monze</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>08</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Livingstone</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>07</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gwembe</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>05</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sinazongwe</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Namwala</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>09</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Siavonga</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>07</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTALS</td>
<td>634</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>599</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(88.8%)</td>
<td>(11.2%)</td>
<td>(84.1%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(MOE; 1996: 283).

In the samples above, the figures given, also translated as percentages, revealed a picture almost unacceptable in a country where government policy towards access to education...
to all, should have been equal. It could also be noticed that a strong gender bias manifested itself in the distribution of posts of responsibility, with female primary school teachers very poorly represented (MOE; 1996: 123). The above data in a way confirmed Sutherland’s feeling that, “In many educational systems women are still under-represented in higher education (1984: 10). More scholars had made more observations on the disparities on the provision and access to education, as Hamilton and Leo-Rhynie, cited in Megarry (1984: 23), lamented:

Education delivery systems have largely been devised by men; it is hardly surprising that they suit male patterns of education and working life fairly well, and typically female patterns rather poorly.

The same author (p. 26) furthers his argument by saying:

In Western countries, for instance, concern is often expressed about the scarcity of women in academic life. In countries like India, … the problem is much more basic; there are over 200 million illiterate adult women…. In Islamic countries the basic question of whether education is as necessary for women as for men is controversially entangled with the traditional Islamic concept of women’s status.

As had been revealed in the tables above, in Zambia, like in many other third world countries, even in areas where there were many women in teaching, very few rose in positions and subsequently in status (MOE; 1995: 11. MOE; 1999: 1). A lot more had been said about this discrepancy as noticed in Walker and Barton’s (1983: 11) view that:

The education opportunities for girls and women … remain distinctly below of those of boys and men. It is not true only in quantitative terms but also in qualitative terms. Women do not enjoy all educational opportunities they should have…. Nearly everywhere in the world, they are given less education than men ….

In his study on ‘The Education and Advancement of Women’, Chabaud (1974) noted that the under-representation of women in the access and management of the world’s
educational systems had inevitably prevented their personal achievement and also impeded the progress of society.

Like in many other sectors and societies, Mongella (1995:31) observed that:

If you have educated a woman, definitely the family will change
If you have educated a woman, her family is bound to improve faster than when a man is educated. The more you will educate the girls (women), the more you will change the family and the more you will create a new society. It is revolutionary, and also evolutionary.

The discussion above revealed the extent to which women at large and the female primary school teachers in particular, had been and were still deprived of full access to education and active participation in the educational systems in Zambia. Even with such revelation, the study at hand was still of value and importance because the country’s national policy on education re-affirmed the fact that the quality and effectiveness of an education system depended on the quality of its teachers (MOE; 1996). If the BESSIP aspirations were to be met, there was need to find out the extent to which female primary school teachers, who made up the largest portion of primary school teachers, were able to upgrade both their academic and professional status. This was most possible through in-service training programmes that were under-written and certified by universities. The necessity of the study was also to investigate the factors that deterred the female primary school teachers from fully participating in in-service education as per the ratio that was found in the primary school sector.

The researcher also found out whether or not the assertions attributed to women’s mediocre participation in educational systems could be valid, as in Coleman, cited in Walker and Barton (1983), in his study on, ‘Gender, Class and Education’ indicated that, “Women are accused of lack of drive towards intellectual mastery.” Simpson, in the same edition, in discussing, ‘Career Discontinuities and Commitments’ alludes to the fact that, “A woman’s family situation makes it improbable that she will develop a strong professional commitment ... that she will be able to maintain it.”
Leggart in the same publication, concurred with Simpson’s view:

Women are unconcerned with collegial affiliations because the family activities are less compatible. Furthermore, the bureaucratic nature of work context are compatible with women’s traditional characteristics which include submissiveness, acceptance of authority, lack of ambition and nurturance.

However, Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1992:22), defended the women by stating that:

Men are sometimes afraid of marrying women who are too well educated, and it is this fear that often impedes the access of girls (women) to higher education and scientific studies.

In that age of civilization, could these women, considered by some people as hard-working, have been victims of a system which condemned them to inferior status or should society and they themselves have shouldered the blame? (Fullan and Stiegelbauer; 1991). Furthermore, Chabaud (1974:11), intimated that:

Whether considered in regard to the future of the nations, the problem of equal access of women to education calls for an answer.

Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991:14), reiterated that:

Even today millions of women, veiled or not, live in a state of withdrawal from the world, deprived of their identity as women. Education will be the essential instrument of their emancipation and self-fulfilment.

“So, there is need to in-service many teachers in the field whose teaching needs some new blood.” (MOE; 1964:32). This is why it was important to carry out a study on the ‘Access of Female Primary School Teachers to In-service Training Colleges’. The researcher’s intent was to establish the factors that hindered these women’s participation in in-service programmes.
CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY.

Type of Study

A social survey design type of study was applied. In order for the researcher to gather the necessary data, both the qualitative and quantitative approaches were used.

Study Population.

The target group in this research were all the trained and confirmed female primary school teachers in Chongwe District.

Study Sample.

To carry out the study, 20 female primary school teachers were sampled from each of the six (6) zones that made up Chongwe District, bringing the total number of respondents to 120. This was done by the use of the 'Simple Random Sampling' procedure. Under this type of sampling, all the female primary school teachers who qualified in the 'Study Population' were given equal opportunity of being selected. At any given school and also depending on the number of female teachers, those that picked positive numbers from a box were given chance to fill in the questionnaires and answer the oral questions. This was a way of being objective and free from personal prejudice by the researcher on who to involve in the research.
Data Collection and Data Collection Techniques.

This study applied a dual mode of gathering information, which was the use of the quantitative and qualitative methods. The quantitative research paradigm was carried out through the use of structured questionnaires. In this case the respondents observed anonymity and confidentiality as they were making statements about their employer, more so their immediate supervisors and about their conditions of service. It should be noted that this method of data collection was considered appropriate for this particular research as it helped to reveal values, attitudes and convictions of individuals. A separate questionnaire was prepared and administered to the District Education Officer’s office. To solicit for more information on the study, the researcher also applied the qualitative research method. In this type of method, data was gathered by the use of in-depth interviews. The idea was to stimulate open and frank discussions leading to free and objective exchange of views on the issue under review. By using this procedure, a lot of information that could have been left out through the use of questionnaires only, was gathered, especially after the groups realized that they were facing almost the same problems in as far as retraining opportunities were concerned. The researcher also got information from the statistics on the periodical enrolments from the college management at the National In-service Teachers’ College (NISTCOL – Chalimbana).

Data Analysis.

The data were collected by the use of the structured questionnaires and were analysed through the use of the Statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS). The data from the use of scheduled interviews were categorized into their specific areas, coded and analysed manually.
CHAPTER 4.

THE FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS.

Introduction.

A number of researchers in the world had at the time of this research observed that for any educational system to succeed, several factors had to intertwine. Among many a scholar were Southhall (1965), Parelius and Parelius (1978), Brophy and Dudley (1982), Acker (1984), Chakulimba (1986), Fullan and Steigebauer (1991) and MOE (1996). One of the major parties to this bond was the teacher; among them the primary school trained teachers. In Zambia, the ‘New Policy on Education’ re-affirmed that the quality and effectiveness of an education system depended on the quality of its teachers (MOE; 1996). The researcher agreed with this assertion and also with that of Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991) who stated that:

The teacher education continuum must be a reality since the continuous development of all the teachers is the cornerstone for meaning, improvement and reform of not only the education system but society as a whole.

This research, based on the already stated objectives, brought out and discussed the degree to which female teachers who were trained to teach at primary school level were availed the opportunities to upgrade their qualifications from certificate to diploma level. The findings which hinged on the constraints, were based on Chongwe District.
The Findings.

The research, carried out in Chongwe District revealed the following data about the primary school trained teachers.

Table 4. Chongwe Primary School Trained Teachers from 1996 to 2000.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Male Teachers</th>
<th>Female Teachers</th>
<th>Totals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>214</td>
<td>465</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>252</td>
<td>180</td>
<td>432</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>254</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>444</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>312</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>499</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>298</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>488</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTALS</td>
<td>1367</td>
<td>961</td>
<td>2328</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(DEO - Chongwe District; 2000).

The above data on the teacher population in Chongwe district did not portray the 3:1 ratio under discussion. The ratio provided was 2:1 in favour of the male teachers. There were some reasons leading to the above observation, some of which were the fact that, unlike urban areas where a number of female primary school teachers found themselves there (urban areas) due to marriage Chongwe by its nature had a small urban population, Chongwe district was mainly rural with few executives (husbands) working in government, mines and/or other private organizations. Most unmarried female primary school teachers worked more in urban areas where they could access ‘more comfortable life’ than in rural places like Chongwe district which had neither large government departments nor renowned private industries.
However, there were urban towns and cities that were representative of the ratios under discussion, such as, in 1996, Chingola had a ratio of 438 females : 146 males (3:1) primary school teachers, Kitwe, 1,090 females : 458 males (3:1) and Mufulira 595 females : 300 males (3:1), all in the Copperbelt province (MOE:1999). Other examples during the same year were; Kabwe in Central province, 716 females : 297 males (3:1); Lusaka in Lusaka province, 1,970 females : 769 males (3:1); and Livingstone in the Southern province had 410 females : 147 males (3:1), in 1999. From the above statistics, the research on Chongwe district on the female primary school teachers was still valid as the district possessed the imbalances at promotional / posts of responsibility levels.

Having got the general statistics, the researcher went on to the specific data on the female trained teachers who had undergone in-service training leading to the attainment of a university recognized diploma.

**Table 5. Female Primary School Teachers who Underwent Diploma Level In-service Training in Chongwe District from different Universities and Colleges – 1996 to 2000.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Male Teachers</th>
<th>Female Teachers</th>
<th>Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3 : 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>4 : 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>1 : 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2 : 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>6 : 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTALS</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>79</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(DEO. - Chongwe District; 2001).

The figures above showed an imbalance between the male and female primary school teachers in terms of their being allowed to attend in-service training. The fact that the male teacher population was slightly bigger than the female one as indicated in the data
above, it could be noticed that the male teachers had also due advantage over the female teachers which led the male teachers getting more promotions than their female counterparts (see Table 7). However, mention could be made from the observations in Tables 6 and 7 that the proportions of imbalance out played the original differences in a far much wider favour of the male teachers above female teachers.

**NISTCOL - Chalimbana Student Intakes**

The National In-service Teachers’ College (NISTCOL), situated in Chalimbana area in Chongwe district was at the time of the research Zambia’s biggest in-service college for primary school trained teachers and was government run and controlled. The other colleges that were providing in-service training to primary school teachers and were also government run and controlled were Copperbelt Secondary Teachers’ College (COSETCO) and Kwame Nkrumah Teachers’ College. These two colleges, had records that indicated that their intakes of primary school trained teachers who underwent in-service training each year constituted about 3% of each college’s total number of students. Another college, George Benson Christian Teachers’ College, which was privately run and controlled, was small in size and too expensive for the majority of the ordinary primary school teachers and so, had an insignificant figure to be included in such a research. In this vein, the researcher discovered that the findings from NISTCOL were more representative. The statistics that were used were from the year 1996 to 2001.

The researcher had found it worthwhile to begin the findings from 1996 because that was the year when the college (NISTCOL) got officially affiliated to The University of Zambia (UNZA) which took the responsibility of underwriting the teachers’ diploma qualification. The given data below showed both male and female primary teachers’ intakes. This was to bring out the differences between the male and female teachers in terms of raw figures and then translated to ratios.
Table 6. The Number of Primary School Teachers at NISTCOL - 1996 to 2001.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Totals</th>
<th>Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>2 : 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>2 : 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>236</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>352</td>
<td>2 : 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>336</td>
<td>2 : 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>264</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>470</td>
<td>2 : 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>235</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>441</td>
<td>2 : 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTALS</td>
<td>1268</td>
<td>847</td>
<td>2115</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(NISTCOL - Chalimbana; 2001).

The figures above showed differences, not just between the male and female raw numbers, but also, in terms of ratios. The researcher discovered that there were a number of basic reasons why there appeared to be differences in the intake figures.

The researcher, for convenience in the discussions, called the reasons ‘factors’. It were these ‘factors’ that brought out the disparities on why female teachers who were primary trained found it difficult to improve their academic and professional standards. The reasons were placed under major subheadings, that is, administrative, cultural, peer pressure and personal ‘factors’.

Administrative Factors.

The document on the ‘National Policy on Education’ in Zambia (1995), indicated that there was in the country at that time gender imbalance in the provision of and access to education by female citizens in general. The research carried out in Chongwe District among the trained female primary school teachers, revealed that the degree of perpetuation to the gender imbalance was partially due to some inconsistencies in the operations of the Ministry of Education and its functionaries. The Ministry of Education up to the time of the research had an obligation to retrain all the trained teachers, among
them, the primary school trained teachers. While such a move could have benefited the nation as a whole, there were some hurdles that inhibited the female teachers from attending in-service training part of which were linked to the Ministry of Education.

In Chongwe District, there was revelation that the head teachers denied the female teachers the chances of going for in-service training. It was noticed that 53 (44.1%) of the respondents had an opinion that the school managers were retrogressive officers in the education process. The few female head teachers in the district, six (6) in number (refer to Table 7) were said to be worse than their male-folk, as they neither encouraged female teachers to study nor recommended them for promotion even after having undergone in-service training. The above was an almost confirmation to the adage that ‘The worst enemy of a woman is another woman’. The female teachers also lamented that those who were accepted to colleges, were not allowed by their head teachers to go on paid study leave (53, which was 44.1% of the respondents who indicated this) and those that managed to go through the head teachers, found themselves blocked by the District Education Officer (brought out by 17 interviewees, making 20.2%). One of the major reasons given by the District Education Officer and the head teachers was that of acute shortage of teachers in schools. There was, too, resentment by the female teachers who felt that even the few of their colleagues who underwent in-service training were not adequately rewarded in terms of promotions - 81 (67.9%) of the respondents indicated this. The sentiment above is further illustrated by the table below;

Table 7. **Retrained Male and Female Teachers in Posts of Responsibility in Chongwe District Primary Schools from 1996 to 2000.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attended INSERT</th>
<th>Heads</th>
<th>Deputy Heads</th>
<th>Senior Teachers.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Male</strong></td>
<td><strong>Female</strong></td>
<td><strong>Male</strong></td>
<td><strong>Female</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>88</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>06</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

( DEO. - Chongwe District; 2000 ).
The figures above showed a wide disparity between those female primary trained teachers who attended in-service training and those who were given posts of responsibility (refer to Tables 5 and 7, respectively). There was also evidence of an imbalance of those male and female primary school teachers who held posts of responsibility. From the above figures (Table 7), it could be noticed that out of 88 male teachers who underwent in-service training, 73 of them got posts of responsibility leaving out 15, unlike their female counterparts whose in-service trained figure was 79 and only a paltry 20 were promoted leaving out 59.

The sensitisation levels on in-service training to the teachers in the district were quite adequate, as 106 out of the 120 respondents (representing 88.1% of the female primary school teachers), had ideas about in-service training provisions. The sensitisation was carried out by the head teachers in the schools - 47 (39.3%) of the female teachers indicated this, while 41 (34.5%) were sensitised by the District Resource Co-ordinators and the District Education Officer only sensitised 18 (21.3%). Although the sensitisation programme could be said to have been successful to a high degree, some of the teachers’ conditions of service prevailing in the ‘General Orders’ document, seemed not to have been known by the teachers nor were they availed to the same teachers. Such ‘deprivation’ of vital information to the female teachers tended to create ‘fear’ among these teachers. Some examples of these ‘fears’ were discussed below:

(i) The female teachers were afraid of being transferred to ‘bad’ schools. These were teachers who were teaching in the urban or some peri-urban areas who enjoyed facilities, such as electricity, piped water, access to main roads and easy access to information. 48 (39.9%) of the female teachers found themselves in this dilemma, as they considered this as a downward change in terms of social status and more comfortable life.

(ii) The female teachers did not want to lose the accommodation that they already had - 40 (33.3%) of these teachers had this ‘fear’. The reason was that some head teachers felt that a teacher who went for in-service training was not ‘actively’
teaching, so, had to surrender the house she/he was occupying to those that were ‘actively’ teaching.

(iii) As these women reported back to their respective schools after in-service training, they felt unwanted, dehumanised and downgraded in status as they were made to share accommodation or occupy offices as homes. However, the ‘General Orders’ document (1995:32), on ‘Retention of government quarters during paid study leave’ clearly stated that:

An officer who is granted paid study leave to attend a course of study away from his usual place of residence and who occupies government quarters will be permitted to retain these quarters.

Furthermore, the ‘General Orders’ document protected the teacher who was on paid study leave by ordering that:

An officer who is permitted to retain government quarters while on paid study leave will continue to pay rent at the rate applicable to the type of accommodation he retains. An officer who is required to vacate his quarters, or does so on his own choice, will receive the appropriate housing allowance (p. 32).

(iv) The researcher discovered that the female teachers, once promoted, did not want to risk losing either their administrative or/and professional posts. In this vein, 24 (20.2%) of the female teachers ‘feared’ losing their posts during in-service training.

The post protectionist attitude by primary school head teachers, deputy head teachers and senior teachers was not peculiar to female teachers of Chongwe District only, because Kunkhuli (1988:156), made a general observation that:

Since the promotion ladder in teaching is limited, teachers do not seem to have such incentive in their work other than their monthly salaries.

It was observed that to a primary school teacher, the rank held by an individual raised not only his/her place in the authority hierarchy in a school, but also, the degree of social
status in the community around. A lot more female teachers had the ‘fear’ of losing chances for promotion during their attendance of in-service training.

Although the majority admitted knowing that their names still appeared on the staffing lists at their various schools, 24 (20.2%) respondents ‘feared’ that the head teachers of their schools would not recommend them for promotions. In the Ministry of Education, however, the ‘fear’ was uncalled for since the ‘General Orders’ document (p.33) stipulated that, ‘An officer on paid study leave will remain legible for promotion and, provided his (her) work and conduct are satisfactory ....’

(v) During the time in which this research was carried out, the government in Zambia had come up with the policy of cost sharing to try to meet the individual student’s educational needs. In teacher training colleges, this payment by the students was known by different names, for example, it could be called ‘User fee’ or ‘Boarding supplement’. These fees ranged from One Hundred Thousand Kwacha to Two Hundred Thousand Kwacha. For a primary school teacher, whose average monthly salary was One Hundred and Fifty Thousand Kwacha, such an amount was too high. 107 respondents (89.3%) indicated that these payments were too high, more so that it was from the same low salary that their families, both nuclear and extended, relied on for survival.

(vi) During the period in which the research was carried out, Zambia as a country was undergoing some educational transformation. The government, the donor nations and agencies were working side by side in order to promote the ideals of the BESSIP programmes.

Among the sectors that needed immediate overhaul were: the schools’ infrastructure, supply of teaching and learning materials; and teacher education. In order to promote quality education using quality teachers, upgrading programmes in form of workshops and seminars were organized by the functionaries of the Ministry of Education and funded by the donors. Of the total number of respondents, 23 (19%) of them felt that the heads of schools and the District Education Officer would leave them out of future lists
for the above functions if they (teachers) went for in-service training. For these teachers, being left out from such important programmes meant losing not only the sensitization on BESSIP, but also, the much needed allowances which, to a certain extent, uplifted their standard of living. The administrative observations left the female primary school teachers with a feeling that their employer, the Ministry of Education, had left them vulnerable to administrative intimidation and manipulation by its functionaries leading to their professional and academic stagnation. This in turn, led to the continued low participation in in-service training programmes by the female primary school teachers.

**Cultural Factors.**

Another factor that was discovered to be hindering female primary teachers from advancing academically and professionally was society’s lack of acceptance of social change. At the time of the research, some sectors of the Chongwe society overlooked the fact that all societies contain within themselves an element of change. Moore (1967: 3 ), observed that a research problem as the one at hand would lead social change to be viewed as, “... the significant alteration over time in behaviour patterns and culture, including norms and values.” The aspect of culture appeared to be a prominent bottleneck as it was embedded in the everyday thoughts and activities of the people. At that time, there existed in the Chongwe society what Karl Marx once called, “Class exploitation and domination ” (Bilton, Bonnet, et al.; 1984: 42). To further the ideals of culture, in their study, Elkin and Handel (1984: 78), described it as:

... a way of life developed by a people in adaptation to the physical and social circumstances in which they find themselves. It tends to be passed on from generation to generation, but it changes as circumstances change. It includes some elements that are highly valued by the people themselves and other elements that are accepted as necessary or ‘realistic’ adaptations but are not specially valued.

Part of the society in Chongwe District did not feel it was ‘realistic’ for the married female teachers to leave their husbands and children for the reason of going for in-service
training. In her study on ‘Sex, Gender and Education’, Megarry (1984:26), observed that:

Many of the women’s problems stem from traditional patterns of working days and years, which means that too often they are forced to choose between building a satisfying career, and to raise a family ...

By this traditional practice, some female primary school teachers ended up abandoning the idea of attending in-service training, giving in to the retrogressive demands of the society they found themselves in. The same society did not favour the idea of expectant mothers or those that had babies to live away from their husbands. To the Chongwe society, such a move would have been considered untraditional and uncalled for as it could have denied the husband an opportunity of looking after his expecting wife, or his wife and baby. It was noticed that the men’s relatives were the worse culprits against the idea discussed above. Among the Zambian communities, women were usually accused of lack of drive towards intellectual mastery, but this study, partially dispels this notion because some husbands were responsible for their wives’ academic and professional stagnation. This observation made by the researcher was not only true in general terms, but very true of Chongwe District communities where husbands who were teachers or those that were non-teachers often denied their primary school trained teacher wives the chances of attending in-service training. It also came to the researcher’s attention that this was either out of mere jealousy or the fear of marrying women who were more educated. From the discussion it was envisaged that:

A woman’s family situation makes it improbable that she will develop a strong professional commitment, or in an unlikely event that she had one to begin with, that she will be able to maintain it (Walker and Barton, eds.; 1983:125).

The Chongwe situation was not very different from the Ugandan one where, “Women still confront traditional problems of the rights of women. Men pay dowry and then the woman is the man’s property.” (Gellen; 1995:28). The Ugandan and Zambian kind of traditional behaviour in the societies was echoed in the Zimbabwe situation, “... cultural and social patterns continue to inhibit women from access to education, status and other means of realizing full potential.” (Mugabe; 1989).
As though the already made observations were not enough, the researcher, further discovered that some husbands, be it teachers or non-teachers, would go for retraining programmes themselves without giving room to their wives. The women further indicated that if or when a wife insisted on attending retraining programmes, some husbands would ‘deliberately’ make their wives pregnant before departure for training or during the training itself. Moreover, Fullan and Stiegelbauer (1991: 22), concluded that, “... men sometimes are afraid of marrying women who are too well educated, and it is this fear that impedes the access of women to higher education ... .” With the cultural norms engraved so much in the African women, female primary school trained teachers inclusive, they would give up the efforts and ambitions of personal success and concentrated on looking after their families, while their husbands continuously enjoyed the benefits of education. A further reason was that some of the female teachers ‘feared’ that when a woman went for in-service training, her husband would begin flirting around with other women and eventually divorce her (the female teacher). Such were the cultural observations that had kept some of the female primary school teachers in Chongwe District low in terms of education and social status.

The cultural beliefs and operations among the people of Chongwe District, (which could have been the situation in other parts of Zambia), especially among the husbands and their relatives had suppressed the advancement of women in general, and the female primary school teachers in particular. This kind of behaviour seemed to have been retrogressive in line with an earlier observation by Harambos (1985: 387) during his research on ‘Men, Women and Marriage’ that:

... the wife rather than the husband makes the judgements, conforms to his wishes and increasingly comes to resemble him. To some extent she becomes his reflection and such relatively passive, subordinate and helpless. Her self-image deteriorates as she accommodates to her husband rather than fulfilling herself as a person in her own right.
Peer Pressure Factors.

In Chongwe District, the peer pressure factor among the female primary school teachers on in-service training came out very strongly. The researcher found out that these teachers befriended women who had not gone beyond grade 12 academically or were also mere primary school teachers.

The women who were below grade 12 or were above grade 12 but not teachers, had different interests, hence, affecting the perceptions of the female teachers towards in-service training in a negative way. Even among some of the peer groups made up of female primary school teachers only, there was evidence of a negative trend. Due to peer pressure, part of the respondents felt that going into a business venture was more prestigious and had better prospects than teaching. There was a wide spread feeling that the teachers’ monthly salaries fell far too short in meeting the high standards of living in the country. Of the total number of respondents, 67 (56%) admitted that they had discussed the economic aspects versus the monthly remuneration with their peers and that they (female teachers) did not see the need to further their poverty by going for in-service training. Due to peer pressure, the female teachers intimated that investing in a business venture like the selling of salaula (second hand clothes) raised an individual’s financial status easier and faster than going for in-service training where a person spent so much money in payments for what they termed as ‘less returns’.

Personal Reasons.

Studies conducted earlier by Muyangana (1982: 58) indicated that the government in Zambia had been doing its best to retain the teachers in the service by improving the conditions of service and by stating that the teachers who remained in the service would be given all the chances to improve themselves academically and professionally. Although this was generally encouraging, some of the female primary school teachers were individually reluctant to take up in-service training. These teachers were
discouraged to apply for in-service training because of the few places available for the female teachers, which created unbearable competition. One third (40), which is 67% of the respondents, felt that they were too old to continue with education, instead opted to begin preparing for their retirement. The advocates of this school of thought were those from the age of 35 and above. Another personal reason the researcher noticed among the female teachers was that a group of them found it a problem to accept social change because they were satisfied with their positions and qualifications.

These were the same teachers who were complacent with the salaries they were receiving. Such a situation was more like confirming the assertion that, "Most women lack drive towards intellectual masterly" (Walker and Barton, eds. 1983:125). While the majority of the female teachers worked hard to improve themselves academically, it was also observed that a small group depended so much on their husbands’ ranks as though these ranks were theirs (female teachers). For the others, it was just the personal fear of learning and what would happen to them as, firstly married women (if they were) and secondly, as employees if at the end of the course they failed their examinations. Therefore, it could be said that it was partially the personal attitudes of these teachers towards in-service training that led to their academic and professional stagnation.

Summary

The findings of the research under discussion brought out the major constraints that were hindering the female primary school teachers in Chongwe District from accessing in-service training even when there was an In-service Teachers’ College within the same district. The researcher found out that in Chongwe District, an average of sixteen (16) female primary school teachers underwent diploma level in-service training yearly between 1996 and 2000 out of an average total of one hundred and ninety (190) female teachers in the primary schools. Another important finding was from the NISTCOL-Chalimbana data of the students' intake between 1996 and 2001, which showed that the in-service training ratio of male and female teachers was constantly at 2:1, respectively. The rest of the findings indicated that the restraining factors ranged from administrative, cultural, peer pressure on to personal reasons. The restricting factors that the researcher
found could have been true of other female primary school teachers in the other districts of the country (Zambia) or worse in the other districts, especially in the remotest rural parts. On the other hand, the situation might have been better in the urbanised districts of the country.

From the above findings, it could be observed that:

There are many expressions of hostilities towards ‘feminists’, a hostility based on misunderstanding of the feminist arguments and on ignorance of the problems which feminist movements are trying to solve (Sutherland; 1984: 10).

The factors that came out were indicators that a lot still needed to be done by concerned authorities in order to avoid completely diminishing the female teachers’ hopes of progressing as quality teachers vying to offer quality education.

Discussions.

The findings brought out in the research were manifestations of one of the most important elements that for a long time were amiss in Zambia’s educational system in general and of Chongwe district in particular. In fact, it is viewed that if further research was to be carried out in parts of Black Africa, the scenario could have been the same or even worse due to similarities in the economic, social, political and cultural trends in these countries. It could be appreciated that the problems the female primary school teachers were facing in as far as going for in-service training was concerned, were attracting both internal and external solutions by realistically dealing with inter and intra personal pressures. There was urgent need for society, the government and the female primary school teachers themselves to accept and utilize education as an effective tool for both order and progress in order to bring about social change.

The research findings indicated that the imbalances in the provision of in-service education in Zambia were a reality and very high. For so many years, these imbalances, mainly based on gender, had been perpetuated as confirmed by the collected data. The Zambian government had either not put up, or not effectively implemented and closely
supervised the deliberate policy that promoted gender equity between male and female primary school teachers in the dimensions of accessing in-service training. In Chongwe district, up to the end of the year 2001, the ratio still remained at 2 to 1 in favour of the male teachers as it was in 1996. The infrastructure and facilities at the country’s biggest in-service college – NISTCOL, were still biased towards the accommodation of more male teachers and their training. The other observation from the research was that staff development was either slowed down or stagnated by the functionaries of the Ministry of Education; in this case, the offices of the District Education Officer and/or the head teachers of varying schools. Unproductively, some of these officers, placed in very responsible positions either overlooked or ignored the rights and privileges of the female teachers although these were embedded in both the Republican Constitution and the ‘General Orders’ documents.

It was observed, too, that the sensitization of teachers on the need to go for in-service training that could have been carried out through school visitations and/or circulars, did not get to the remotest parts of the district. In this case, the teachers who were supposed to be the recipients, remained unaware of the availability of in-service facilities and more importantly, the need to attend in-service training. This meant that the female primary school teachers, were not only lagging behind in academic and professional work, but also, remained low in status. Such a trend lowers an individual’s zeal and will to work hard as one loses both the faith and trust in the whole education system. It was this necessary joint effort that was meant to stimulate the upward social mobility of the female primary school teachers in academic and professional work; and social status by utilizing in-service training.
CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

Conclusion.

The ideals of social change underpin the need for fundamental alterations of society's culture, its structure and social behavior of intertwining stakeholders. This promotes recognition and appreciation of individual members of society, as having equal potential of contributing positively towards the greater growth and prosperity of the same society as long as the opportunities are availed to all. In this respect, it is the government of the day's duty to organize all its efforts and resources in order to harness and distribute them to all the deserving citizens without gender negligence or biasness. Muyangana (1982) observed that, "In order to implement her reforms, Zambia will need the records of the past events and relevant in-service literature to avoid past errors." Some of the errors are based on what has been outlined in this research, that is, failing to make society aware that the situation of the female primary school teacher is complex since it has aspects to do with individual and societal issues. The Zambian society should observe and appreciate that the concept of gender equality and equity should not be:

Set out like market wares to be taken up or not, according to the tastes of the customer, but should thoroughly explore and discuss them, .... Work out of their implications and have them monitored into practice (Roberts; 1981).

While it is agreed that both male and female primary school teachers need to undergo in-service training, the Zambian society and government should ultimately ensure that 'Access of female primary school teachers to in-service training colleges' is a must.
As observed by Watkins (1973), in-service training for female primary school teachers, "... has become less a privilege and more of a right." The researcher's opinion is that, when this becomes a reality, it could contribute highly and genuinely to national development through quality education by using quality teachers.

Recommendations

For this study, the researcher came up with a number of recommendations to the various stakeholders that were cited as being involved in the academic, professional and status retrogression of female primary school teachers. The recommendations were discussed under the subheadings of administrative, cultural, and individual plans of action.

Recommendations for Administrators.

1. Although the Zambian government through the MOE already had a policy towards general retraining of teachers, there was a lot that still needed to be done to enable the female primary school teachers access the retraining programmes leading to the gaining of more knowledge, better teaching skills and the raising of these individual’s social statuses. There was urgent need for the Ministry of Education to improve on the flow of information from its headquarters through its functionaries down to the 'classroom' teacher in all the parts of the country. This information was not only meant to give the teachers their obligations over professional conduct and operations, but also, sensitize them (teachers) on the need for personal academic advancement.

2. The teachers, more so the female primary school teachers in the remotest parts of the country, needed to be sensitized on the existence of in-service training facilities and the importance of in-service training. The newly trained and appointed teachers required this kind of information.
3. The female primary school teachers in Chongwe district observed that some female teachers were just too lazy to participate in the in-service programmes. It recommended that the Ministry of Education should put a deliberate policy making it mandatory for all primary school teachers to undergo in-service training once they had taught for a given number of years.

4. As has already been observed, during the time of the research Zambia had only one college specifically meant to in-service the primary school trained teachers, this was NISTCOL - Chalimbana. This facility was inadequate for the 40 000 plus primary school teachers. So, the MOE would have maximized the in-servicing programme of these many teachers (with the female teachers constituting the majority) by building more colleges (about 3 to 4 ) since more teachers graduate from pre-service colleges every year. In order to have the same status as NISTCOL - Chalimbana, these colleges required to be affiliated to a university that would underwrite the teachers’ certificates.

5. There is need to cultivate and spread the concept and ideals of distance learning. Such a mode of gaining higher academic and professional qualifications could enable as many female primary school teachers as possible get an opportunity to learn.

6. Since the teachers’ salaries were very low, the Ministry of Education would do well to adequately sponsor teachers who go for in-service training as stipulated in the ‘General Orders’. Where a female teacher is granted permission to attend in-service training but had no sponsorship or bursary offered, the Ministry of Education should be obligated to offer loans to the permanent and pensionable female teachers to enable them go for in-service training. These loans could be paid back in installment without attracting any interest since the teachers’ salaries were low and the same teachers would be assisting the ministry in personnel development. Or where the female teacher was able to pay on her own, the Ministry of Education should be obligated by its own policy to refund all the expenditure incurred by the teacher during his / her course of training as long as genuine receipts were produced.
7. On the management of education and educational issues, the female primary school teachers of Chongwe district felt that the Ministry of Education should create and implement policies that would ‘reward’ female teachers upon completion of their in-service training by way of salary increment and/or promotions.

8. The MOE could revive the Educational Management Courses in order to rekindle efficiency and honesty among school managers. Such a step would reduce jealousy and unnecessary intimidation on the same teachers by the managers.

9. Although the Ministry of Education, through the government’s General Orders document had a good and comprehensive policy on accommodation for teachers who were out of their stations on paid study leave, the functionaries hardly followed the ‘orders’. There was need for these functionaries, more so, the school head teachers to follow the ‘orders’ as these teachers were deemed to be on official leave which was as good as ‘actively’ teaching. The teachers should retain their accommodation.

**Recommendations for Practitioners.**

10. During the research there was evidence of society’s cultural naivety to allow women in general, and female teachers in particular to advance to and/or beyond the level of men. Even when that was the case, the dynamism of society through modern trends demanded for social change. In this vein, female teachers should be allowed to advance according to their individual learning capabilities without the cultural conditions of ‘family first and occupational obligations last’.

11. Society should be sensitized on the role of women in national development. It (society) needed to be aware that when a female primary school teacher became educated, it served as an educational stimulant to the youths. The female teacher
could act as a role model to the female youths and as a challenge to the male youths in society.

12. The spouse’s families of the female primary school teachers required sensitization on the need to be positive about their in-laws going for further training. The African concept of the extended family could be used in order to make people realize that when a daughter or sister in-law invested in her education, that was more of family investment than individual.

13. The husbands to the female primary school teachers could be sensitized that the education of their wives was for their own benefit and that of their children. There was an apparent need for the husbands to:

(i) Actively participate in their wives’ educational and professional advancement by allowing them (wives) to attend in-service training.

(ii) Give chance to their wives’ retraining needs rather than appreciating their own (husbands) retraining requirements only.

(iii) Agree to look after the children and dependants (if any) while the wives attended in-service training.

(iv) Be aware that they (husbands/fiancés/boy friends) are partners in family planning plans and processes rather than wait for a pregnancy and blame it on the woman for her inability to attend in-service training.

(v) Realize that in an event of their (husbands) dying earlier, their wives would use their acquired positions and status to look after the children.

(vi) Those spouses that could afford, to help their wives attend in-service training by paying for them, that is, where the female teacher manages to secure paid study leave but not the sponsorship from the employer.
14. The female primary school teachers themselves should:

(i) Be aware that government resources cannot suffice to build as many in-service colleges as would meet the demands of the teachers. This being the case, the individual female primary school teachers could take advantage of the existing in-service programmes by distance learning.

(ii) Realize that educational and professional advancement for every teacher is obligatory, making it mandatory for everybody to study hard.

(iii) Be aware that age is not a limiting factor towards academic advancement because it has been proved that senior citizens in their advanced age still go to school to learn.
BIBLIOGRAPHY


Appendix 1: Letter of request to conduct research.

National In-service Teachers' College,
P/B E 1,
LUSAKA.

The District Education Officer,
Ministry of Education,
CHONGWE.

Dear madam,

RE: REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH.

I am a lecturer at the above named college and currently pursuing a Master of Education degree in Sociology with UNZA. I am now doing the research part of the programme where I decided to take on the topic: Access of Female Primary School Teachers to In-service Training Colleges: The Case of Chongwe District. I have observed with keen interest the enrolment of female primary school teachers at NISTCOL – Chalimbana and other colleges that offer in-service training to teachers. My surface observation is that there seems to be less representation of female teachers from the whole country in general and from Chongwe District, particularly. Hypothetically, I assume that there could be a problem or problems that hinder these teachers from going for in-service training which in my view is very vital for all serving teachers. In order to discover who or what the stumbling block/s is/are, there is need to carry out an intensive research, so, I am requesting your office to:

i.  fill in the attached copy of the questionnaire

ii. permit me to administer 120 questionnaires to randomly selected female primary school teachers in the six zones of Chongwe District.

Madam, the findings of this research will be bound into a dissertation which will be an official document for the Ministry of Education and its functionaries and the University of Zambia. Your office will be availed a copy whose content you will be free to utilize for the development of the district.

Let me thank you in advance as we together struggle to educate the educated female primary school teacher to greater heights.

Yours faithfully,

[Signature]

Eularius Moonga Muuka.

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Appendix 2: A questionnaire for the D. E. O. - Chongwe District.

A QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICER FOR CHONGWE DISTRICT.

TOPIC: Access of Female Primary School Teachers to In-service Colleges: The Case of Chongwe District.

INSTRUCTIONS TO THE RESPONDENT.

Answer the questions below by being as brief as possible and to the best of your knowledge.
1. How many primary school trained teachers were in the district in each of the following years?

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<th>YEAR</th>
<th>NUMBER OF TEACHERS</th>
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<td>1999</td>
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<td>2000</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

2. Of the above teachers, how many males and females were there in each year?

<table>
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<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>MALE TEACHERS</th>
<th>FEMALE TEACHERS</th>
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<td>1996</td>
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</table>

3. How many of these teachers attained a University recognized in-service diploma?

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<th>YEAR</th>
<th>MALE TEACHERS</th>
<th>FEMALE TEACHERS</th>
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</table>
4. What are some of the problems that hinder female primary school teachers from attending in-service training leading to diploma attainment recognized by a University?

5. Does the district have co-ordinated in-service sensitisation programme?

6. Who is in-charge of conducting these programmes?
7. How much has your office appreciated/rewarded female primary school teachers who have attained a diploma on in-service basis?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>PROMOTED</th>
<th>TRANSFERRED TO BETTER SCHOOLS</th>
<th>MOVED TO TEACH AT SECONDARY/UPPER BASIC SCHOOL</th>
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</table>

8.(a). Has your office been involved in sourcing for sponsorship for female primary school teachers to in-service training colleges from:

(i) the government?

(ii) the Non-Governmental Organizations?

(b) If the answer to (a) is 'YES', how many of the female primary school teachers gained?

9. How much influence has your office had on the government and Non-Governmental Organizations in the provision of facilities (e.g. buildings and books) to foster in-service training for female primary school teachers at the in-service training college in your district?

10. Does your office find the retraining of female primary school teachers viable?
11. If the answer to the above is 'YES', how is it an asset to the district?

__________________________________________________________________________

__________________________________________________________________________

12. If the answer to (10) is 'NO', why is it not important?

__________________________________________________________________________

__________________________________________________________________________

13. What suggestions do you have to improve the situation?

__________________________________________________________________________

__________________________________________________________________________

__________________________________________________________________________

THANK YOU FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION AND PARTICIPATION
Appendix 3: A questionnaire for serving female primary school teachers in Chongwe District.

TOPIC: Access of Female Primary School Teachers to In-service Training Colleges – The Case of Chongwe District.

A QUESTIONNAIRE FOR SERVING FEMALE PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN CHONGWE DISTRICT.

INSTRUCTIONS TO THE RESPONDENTS.

There are options to each question/statement below. Put an [x] in the box before your preferred option.

N.B. This questionnaire and its responses are confidential, so feel free in giving your responses. Please do not write your name.
LOCALITY OF THE SCHOOL: Rural / Urban.

AGE OF RESPONDENT:

NUMBER OF YEARS IN SERVICE:

PRESENT POST HELD:

NUMBER OF YEARS ON THE PRESENT POST:

1. Have you ever been sensitized on in-service training?
   
   [  ] Yes [  ] No.

2. (i) If the answer to the above question is ‘Yes’, who sensitized you?
   
   [  ] D. E. O. [  ] Head teacher [  ] Insert co-ordinator.

(ii) If the answer to the question is ‘No’, why not?

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

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

3. If called upon, would you attend an in-service course leading to a higher qualification?

   [  ] Yes [  ] No.

4. Who are your peers?

   [  ] Teachers [  ] Non teachers.

5. Are your peers interested in up-grading themselves both academically and professionally?

   [  ] Yes [  ] No.

6. What is their ( peers ) general qualification?

   [  ] Below Grade 12 [  ] Grade 12 [  ] Above Grade 12.

7. (i) Given options, would you rather go into a business venture or attend in-service training?

   [  ] Business [  ] In-service training.
(ii) Please explain your answer to question 7i.

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8. Do you think that female teachers who successfully complete their in-service training are well rewarded by the Ministry of Education?

[  ] Yes  [  ] No.

9. Do you look at fees paid to the colleges during one’s training as a hinderance to female teachers’ going for in-service training?

[  ] Yes  [  ] No.

10. If you were accepted to a college and you discovered that the course/s you want is/are not offered, would you reject the offer?

[  ] Yes  [  ] No.

11. Who, in your view, denies female primary school teachers the chances of attending in-service training?

(i) The head teachers  [  ] Yes  [  ] No

(ii) The D. E. O.  [  ] Yes  [  ] No

(iii) The P. E. O.  [  ] Yes  [  ] No

(iv) The P. S.  [  ] Yes  [  ] No

12. What fear do you have to go for in-service training?

[  ] Losing my present accommodation.
[  ] Losing the post that I currently hold.
[  ] Being transferred to a ‘bad’ school.
[  ] Losing the chances for promotion.
[  ] Being left out on future seminar lists for the school/D. E. O.’s office.

*** Put an [ x ] in all those that are applicable to you.
13. What is your husband / man-friend’s highest academic qualifications?

[ ] Below Grade 12  [ ] Grade 12  [ ] Above Grade 12.

14. What job does your husband / man-friend do?

[ ] Teacher  [ ] Non teacher.

15. Would your husband / man-friend allow you to for in-service training if you were accepted?

[ ] Yes  [ ] No.

16. If you were pregnant / had a baby, would you attend in-service training if availed a chance?

[ ] Yes  [ ] No.

17. If you were accepted for in-service training and you decided to take up the offer, would your:

(i) relatives be in favour of the idea of you going?

[ ] Yes  [ ] No.

(ii) spouse’s relatives support your decision?

[ ] Yes  [ ] No.

18. What is the general attitude of the society around you working place towards female teachers who further their education?

[ ] Positive  [ ] Negative.

19. Are there any other reasons that you think hinder female primary school teachers from attending in-service training leading to the attainment of higher qualifications?

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20. What do you think needs to be done in order to minimise the problems you have stated above?


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Thank you for your co-operation and participation.