

**PREPARATION OF TEACHERS FOR LEARNER-CENTRED INSTRUCTIONAL PRACTICE IN
PRIMARY COLLEGES OF EDUCATION IN ZAMBIA: THE CONSTRUCTIONS OF SOCIAL
STUDIES LECTURERS AND PRE-SERVICE FINAL YEAR STUDENT TEACHERS**

by

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**A thesis submitted to the University of Zambia in fulfilment of the
requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Social Studies
Education**

THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA

LUSAKA

2020

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DECLARATION

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

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APPROVAL

This thesis of **Robinson Mambwe** is hereby approved as fulfilling the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Social Studies Education by the University of Zambia.

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ABSTRACT

Guided by Social and Cognitive Constructivism, and by Bandura's Social Learning Theory as well as the theoretical construct of Self-efficacy, the study examined classroom instructional preparedness of lecturers and student teachers and how their classroom instructional practices related to implementation of Learner-Centred Education (LCE) as advocated in educational policy documents and curriculum. A descriptive survey design was adopted to collect both qualitative and quantitative data. The study population included Social Studies lecturers and Final Year Pre-Service Student Teachers in six Primary Colleges of Education that included Public, Grant-Aided, and Private. Descriptive statistics and Kruskal-Wallis H test were used to analyse quantitative data using SPSS version 23, while Content Analysis using Nvivo version 10 and 12, was used to analyse qualitative data.

The study established that Social Studies lecturers' choice of instructional strategies and activities did not reflect adoption and implementation of LCE. Student teachers were also rarely engaged in instructional activities and strategies that promote higher-order thinking skills; 48.0% of student teachers disagreed to being given adequate opportunities for pedagogical practice of different learner-centred methods (LCM), 22.5% were undecided, and 29.6% agreed. Kruskal-Wallis H test also revealed a no statistically significant difference between Private, Grant-aided and Public Colleges regarding in pre-service student teachers' views on opportunities to practice learner-centred methods, $\chi^2(2) = 0.370$, $p = 0.831$, mean rank opportunity score of 287.51 for private colleges, 276.42 for grant-aided college and 280.74 for public colleges. Statistically, there was also no significant difference in student teachers' sense of self-efficacy in inductive related methods; inquiry $\chi^2(2) = 5.028$, $p = 0.081$, with a mean rank inquiry score of 276.91 for private colleges, 303.51 for grant-aided college and 270.63 for public colleges and problem based method $\chi^2(2) = 5.139$, $p = .077$, with a mean rank problem based score of 253.62 for private colleges, 286.41 for grant-aided college and 289.55 for public colleges. Student teachers generally expressed a low sense of efficacy in inductive related methods.

Peer and macro teaching was also not effectively administered due to First-Second Order Barriers and in some colleges, macro teaching was not done. Dissatisfaction among student teachers with the pedagogical practicing opportunities was also linked to teacher educators' focus on theory, as opposed to demonstrating or modelling to student teachers. Discourse analysis of student teachers' video-recorded lessons in Social Studies, also revealed persistent teacher-initiated interactions.

Since teachers' choice and construction of classroom instructions reflect the ways they plan, implement, and evaluate the curriculum (Hancock & Gallard, 2004), the study concluded that Social Studies lecturers' choice of instructional strategies and activities during teacher preparation did not reflect adoption and effective implementation and preparation of student teachers for LCE as advocated in Education Policy Documents and Curriculum and therefore was not effective. Adequate modelling opportunities of learner-centred related instructional strategies and activities during teacher preparation; more capacity building opportunities on LCE to teacher educators; addressing the first-second orders barriers to LCE; and addressing existing perceptions and beliefs on LCE in teacher preparation curriculum would help the problem. The study proposes a Learner-Centred Instructional Practice, Implementation and Monitoring Framework (LCIM Model) to help in monitoring the implementation of learner-centred instructions in teacher education.

Key words: Learner-Centred Education, Teacher Preparation, Social Studies, Classroom Instructional Practice, Self-efficacy, Constructivism, Bandura's Social Learning Theory.

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to the loving memory of my late parents; my mother, *Alice Katwishi Chungu* and my father, *Robinson Mambwe Snr* whose parental love, wise counsel, sacrifice and life values made me who I am today. I also wish to dedicate this to my children, Faith Musonda Mambwe, Viloet Kabo Mambwe, Alice Chungu Mambwe, and Robinson Malama Mambwe. My wish is that through this work, they get inspired and encouraged to pursue the corridors of education to the later.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This study was made possible by a different number of people through their valuable assistance, good advice and friendly support which helped me to complete this work. First and foremost, I would like to give my sincere appreciation to the Almighty God for the gift of life and for making it possible for me to undertake this study successfully.

Further, I would like to express my sincere and deepest appreciation and gratitude to Prof C. P. Chishimba (late) my principal supervisor and Professor A.M. Cheyeka the co-supervisor for providing me with guidance, encouragement, wisdom and thoughtful criticism throughout this academic journey. Without these scholars, my PhD study would have been a lonely journey.

I would also wish to thank Dr. Jasson Mwanza from the department of Sociology, Dr Simeon Mbewe from the department of Science and Mathematics Education, and Mr. Samson Njovu for their mentorship and guidance regarding statistics that informed my study. I am equally grateful to Dr. Denis Banda, and Dr. Peter Manchishi for being available whenever I needed to consult on issues that related to my study. Their spirit of mentorship for young academics is something I live to appreciate. I am equally grateful to the University of Zambia Management for sponsoring me on this project and thus giving me the opportunity to pursue my doctoral studies.

Special gratitude goes to my late mother, Alice Katwishi Chungu who despite being a primary teacher with a primary teacher certificate, ensured and sometimes went out of her way by brewing Kachasu (local beer) just to ensure she raised extra money to pay for my school fees and that of my siblings. I remember how she travelled with me from Nchelenge to Samfya when I had passed to grade 10. This was all in an effort to ensure that she provided all what was required by the school for me to remain boarding. How I wished she had lived to see her first born son complete his PhD study. To my late father, Robinson Mambwe Snr., I wish to acknowledge your wise counsel, encouragement and support throughout my academic life right from primary to tertiary level. I am who I am today because you always led the way in advising me on life choices. To my wife and friend Sapphira Mutambo, I wish to thank you for being supportive and a source of help and encouragement, and the intelligent ideas and advice on my work. I would also like to acknowledge the constant encouragement and support received from Dr Oswell Chakulimba, Dr. Kalisto Kalimaposo, Dr Innocent Mulenga, Dr Gift Masaiti, Dr S Mwanza, Mr. Benson S. Mkhandawire, Mrs. Katongo Bwalya-Moonga, Mrs Esther Malama – Mutti and all my members of the

Department. Special thanks go to Dr. Bentry Nkhata (The Dean School of Education) who took it upon himself to secure external examiners to examine my PhD work. I remain grateful.

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Acronyms and Abbreviations

CDC	Curriculum Development Centre
DEBS	District Education Board Secretary
DLSC	District Level System Change
ECE	Early Childhood Education
EDC	The Education Development Centre, Inc.
EGRA	Early Grade Reading Assessment
LCM	Learner-centred Method
MoE	Ministry of Education
MoGE	Ministry of General Education
NELP	National Early Literacy Panel
NMEF	Nellie Mae Education Foundation
PBL	Problem-Based Learning
PhD	Doctor of Philosophy
SACMEQ	Southern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Quality Education
SCL	Student-Centred Learning
SSRS	Social Skills Rating System
UNZA	The University of Zambia
WB	World Bank
ZATEC	Zambia Teacher Education Course
ZBEC	Zambia Basic Education Course
NMEF	Nellie Mae Education Foundation
NCSS	The National Council for the Social Studies
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
EFA	Education for All
UNESCO	United Nations Education and Scientific Culture Organisation

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overview

This chapter presents the general context and background to the study. A general description of the general pedagogical renewal of learner-centred methods especially with regard to teacher education is presented. Policy Initiatives and efforts to address quality of teacher training in colleges of education are also discussed in brief. The chapter also presents the statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, research objectives and questions. In addition, the chapter presents the significance of the study, its delimitation and limitation, definition of key terms, and ethical considerations.

1.2 Background

The quest for learner-centred approaches to instruction links well with the fundamental curriculum goal of teaching Social Studies in schools; “to help students become responsible, critical, reflective, and active citizens who can make informed and reasoned decisions about the societal issues confronting the local, state, and global community respectively” (The National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS), 1993, cited in Yilmaz, 2008, p.3). According to the NCSS (1993), students are expected to develop a positive disposition toward participatory democracy and to actively engage in the public issues for the common good. Therefore, in order for students to be active and participatory citizens, they need to have the kinds of opportunities that allow them to actively engage in thinking, reasoning, and questioning. Since learner-centred instruction urges students to actively construct meaning and understanding during every phase of the learning process, it can serve as an invaluable tool to help realise the vital goal of Social Studies education. The educational reform movement in Social Studies therefore, has focused on constructivist and inquiry-oriented approaches to teaching (Crocco & Marino, 2017). This quest for learner-centred approaches to instruction is also in line with the progressivism learning theory which urges teachers to always encourage creative thinking, problem solving skills as well as analytic thinking in learners.

Against this background, learner-centred education (LCE) and related specific methods such as activity-based, inquiry-based and problem-based learning are widely promoted internationally as examples of ‘best practice’ pedagogy (Schweisfurth, 2013). While it can be a slippery term with different understandings and associated practices, a widely-used and simple definition of LCE describes it as “... a pedagogical approach which gives learners, and demands from them, a

relatively high level of active control over the content and process of learning. What is learnt, and how, are therefore shaped by learners' needs, capacities and interests." (Schweisfurth, 2013, cited in Schweisfurth, 2019, p. 1). More recently, LCE has been described as a 'policy panacea' in the Global South because it is believed to contribute to development in several ways (Sriprakash, 2010). Based on this promise, international development organisations and agencies, including the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF) have been active in promoting LCE in the Global South (Schweisfurth, & Michele, 2019). As a result of the widespread faith in LCE and the enthusiasm for it, a 2008 analysis of Sub-Saharan African national education policies demonstrated that since the 1990s, LCE has appeared virtually everywhere, at least at the rhetorical level (Chisholm & Leyendecker, 2008).

In Zambia, The Ministry of General Education (MOGE) in 2013 revised the education curriculum at all levels; Early Childhood Education (ECE), Primary Education, Secondary Education and at Teacher Education level. Largely, this was a response to the problem experienced in the post Education for All (EFA) of quality and relevance of education. It was noted that Education for all which emphasised increased access to education leading to more expansion of school enrolments, had come with the challenge of poor quality of education. It was also observed that the education curriculum lacked alignment between the levels of education and also between the school curricula and Teacher Education curricula. But more importantly, the revised 2013 curriculum was redesigned to conform to the adopted Outcomes-Based Education. The Teacher Education curriculum was also revised as teachers were an important factor for student achievement. In this regard, teachers being the most valuable human resource at all levels of education are expected to be comprehensively and adequately developed so that they are effective in implementing any educational reform (Jegede et al., 2000).

The revised 2013 curriculum, which is still in its implementation phase emphasises adequate knowledge in all areas (in an integrated form) with a focus on practice and outcomes. The teachers are expected to be mediators and applicators of knowledge at all levels and should understand not just the curricula but also the learners in a comprehensive way. The revised 2013 curriculum framework also focused on outcomes and quality of teachers to come out of the institutions with a renewed emphasis on the need for quality and relevant education attainment through appropriate pedagogies. The emphasis of The Education and Training Policy of Zambia over the years has also been on teacher education and training packages which are strongly practice-oriented at all levels of training so that graduating teachers attain the necessary skills and a positive attitude in the

application of a variety of methods. The focus has been on what the learner would do after acquiring the knowledge, skills, values and positive attitudes offered in the learning area. This position is also enshrined in a number of education documents. For instance, the Educating Our Future Policy Document of 1996 states that:

Through the inspectorate, teacher training colleges, resource centres and school-based activities, the Ministry of Education (MoE), will promote a variety of teaching strategies with focus on stimulating learning through inquiry, guided-discovery, problem solving, application, and similar activity-based teaching and learning methods (MoE, 1996, p.47).

The same document further emphasises that the child should be at the centre of the entire education process which exists specially for the sake of the child:

Each learner is unique with their own individuality and personality, fashioned in unique family and community backgrounds that are themselves unique. As such this contributes a rich diversity to the entire education enterprise which should seek to cultivate the qualities and potentialities of each learner, without trying to mould all children according to the same pattern (MoE, 1996, p.28).

In addition, both the 2015 Primary Teacher Education Syllabus and the revised 2013 Education Curriculum puts strong emphasis on learner centred, outcomes based and continuous assessment oriented education that provides for active involvement and participation of learners in the learning process and encourage teachers to structure their classes to facilitate this active learner role. It is therefore clear that at all levels of education, the education curriculum documents focuses on what the learner would do after acquiring the knowledge, skills, values and positive attitudes offered in the learning area. In general, adoption of learner-centred approaches implies organising learners in smaller or larger groups, or pairs, or working with them individually, (Rodgers & Richards, 1992). It also means using teaching techniques that fit the purpose and content of the lesson and at the same time encourage active learner participation through explaining, demonstrating, posing questions, checking for understanding, helping, providing for active practice, and problem solving (MOE, 1992). The emphasis is also on teaching being eclectic and to include various approaches such as question and answer, class discussions, individual work, pair work, group work, role playing of different situations and class presentations among other learner-centred methods other

than teacher-centred methods which focus just on the learning and teaching process without taking into consideration the potentialities and capabilities of individual learners (MOE, 2012).

In supporting the need for better classroom pedagogical practices in teacher education and for reorientation in education curriculum focus, UNESCO Education for All Global Monitoring Report (2005) also reports that among the barriers that learners face in realising their education rights and achieving their full potential is the inappropriate teaching methods or materials and the poorly trained teachers; policy and curriculum issues. The report identifies classroom pedagogy used by teachers as consistently “the crucial variable for improving learning outcomes’ and critical in any reform to improve quality” (UNESCO, 2005, P. 152).

To this effect, a wide range of teaching and learning strategies that promote active pupil participation and class interaction, in particular methods which stimulate learning through discussions, brainstorming, research, drama, role play, theatre, reflection, debate, investigation, experiment, project work, field work, demonstration, inquiry, problem-solving, application and activity-based teaching and learning methods in line with learner-centred approaches to teaching and learning have been encouraged at all levels of education in Zambia rather than merely reproducing from memory. For social studies, the educational reform movement has also focused on constructivist and inquiry-oriented approaches to teaching (Crocco & Marino, 2017). However, even though the policy advocates the learner-centred approaches both in teacher preparation and classroom practice, what has been missing is the knowledge on how teacher education (lecturers) model classroom teaching skills and methods that reflect and go in line with the aspirations of learner-centred education.

According to Ozmon and Craver (1999) Signs of learner-centred education began appearing with the dawning of formal education and can be traced back to the Sumerians and the development of written language (around 3500 B.C.). Within 500 years, the Chinese had also established formal schools. These early teachers emphasised individual character development and good citizenship. Perhaps the earliest individual teachers to have a profound, direct effect on learner-centred education was the Chinese philosopher Confucius (551 B.C.-479 B.C.) and the Greek philosopher Socrates (469-399 B.C.). Both Confucius and Socrates stressed character development and good citizenship. Confucius believed that every person should strive for the continual development of self until excellence is achieved.

The earliest known formal teaching method was the tutorial method. For five thousand years, the tutorial method continued to dominate. Although the English philosopher John Locke (1632-1704) recommended its use, he introduced the concept of tabula rasa or blank slate, proposing that at birth the mind is a blank slate, and the only way to fill it is through having experiences, feeling these experiences, and reflecting on them. Locke's experience-based educational philosophy gave birth to a concept called experiential education (Garforth, 1964).

Influenced by Rousseau's writings, a European neighbour in Switzerland designed a learner-centred school. In Switzerland, Johann Pestalozzi (1746-1827) opened a school with a learner-centred curriculum. Pestalozzi believed that the whole child should be educated physically, mentally, and emotionally and that children should be nourished like a plant while they learnt by doing. Pestalozzi believed that teachers must respect children and base their discipline on love. He pointed out that the school should be like a good home and the teacher should be like a good parent. Pestalozzi's school succeeded educationally but failed financially. In Germany, Friedrich Froebel used the learner centred, child-centred, experience-based ideas to develop the world's first kindergarten, a school for young children (Campbell, 1967).

John Dewey (1859-1952) used his very long life (92 years) to exert more influence on education and philosophy than any other American scholar. Dewey was influenced by Locke's tabula rasa, Bacon's scientific method, Immanuel Kant's pragmatism, Charles Peirce's (1839-1914) insistence on the clarification of ideas and his belief that one's mental grasp of any idea depends on the unification of the idea in actual experience, and William Faith' (1842-1910) beliefs that truth is inseparable from experience and that experience, like life itself, is a stream of sequential events (Good & Brophy, 1997).

Dewey's works were powerful in that he recognised that each child has both a psychological dimension and a social dimension. He maintained that to be effective, education must begin with understanding how the child's capacities, interests, and habits can be directed to help the child succeed in the community. In opposition to Rousseau, who wanted to protect children from society, Dewey believed that the only way a child would develop to its potential was in a social setting. He believed that the school should be a microcosm of its community and that education is living, not just a preparation for life. Dewey's view of learner-centred education embraced the idea that education should be both problem-based and fun. He pointed out that each experience should leave each student motivated and that the solving of each problem must lead to new, related questions

about the topic (Good & Brophy, 1997). Dewey further recognised that each child has both a psychological as well as a social dimension. Therefore, in opposition to Rousseau's idea of protecting children from the society, Dewey strongly believes that "the only way a child would develop to its potential was in a social setting" (Henson, 2003, p.3).

Adding to the philosophical insights from scholars discussed above, the 20th century, witnessed several psychological developments such as perceptual psychology, constructivism, and disposition (among others) that influenced the development of Learner-Centred Education (Henson, 2003, p.4). By the mid-twentieth century, psychologists concluded that perception has a great effect on behaviour and on the moulding of what type of people learners will become. Combs (1992) in the book entitled 'Perceiving, Behaving, Becoming', which stated that:

If students perceive themselves as good students and worthy individuals, they will work hard to protect these images; however, if they perceive themselves as poor students and people of little value, they will behave accordingly (Combs, 1992, cited in Henson, 2003, p.5).

1.3 Problem Statement

Recent trends in teacher policy and practices have promoted more learner-centred pedagogy and curricula. However, UNESCO found a lack of research evidence in this area and urged further investigation (Barrett et al., 2007, cited in Vavrus, Thomas, & Barelett, 2011). In Zambia, the actual effectiveness of colleges of education at preparing student teachers for constructivist-based learner-centred instructional practice through either explicit instruction or general exposure has not received adequate empirical research. Meanwhile, research on learner-centred education continues to reveal that problem-solving approach is still problematic among teachers in schools (Banda et al., 2014); as teachers in Zambia do not frequently use learner-centred methods (Namangolwa, 2013); and that teachers are also not interested in teaching using learner-centred techniques (Nyimbili et al., 2018). Since learners in schools and colleges attain higher rates of retention under learner-centred instruction and are better-prepared graduates than those trained under traditional instruction (Matlin, 2002; Sternberg, 2002; McCombs, 2001; McCombs & Quiat, 1999), lack of knowledge on the actual effectiveness of colleges of education at preparing student teachers for learner-centred instructional practice constitutes a problem of whether theory is being competently translated into practice during teacher preparation as desired in the education policy

documents. This is the problem this study interrogated through the constructions of Social Studies lecturers and pre-service final year student teachers.

1.4 Purpose of the Study

The study examined how Social Studies lecturers' instructional practice during teacher preparation in primary colleges (public, grant-aided, and Private) of education related to the implementation of learner-centred education advocated in educational policy documents and curriculum.

1.5 Research Objectives

Research objectives of this study were to;

- i. Examine Social Studies lecturers' preparedness to support student teachers in the use of learner-centered practices.
- ii. analyse the classroom instructional practices of Social Studies lecturers during teacher preparation.
- iii. Examine Social Studies lecturers and student teachers' sense of efficacy in the use of selected inductive, collaborative, and experiential learning strategies.
- iv. assess final year student teachers' lessons for aspects of teacher-learner-initiated interactions during school experience.
- v. Describe barriers to the implementation of learner-centred instructional practices in primary schools.

1.6 Research Questions

The following were the research questions of the study;

- i. How prepared were Social Studies lecturers to support student teachers in the use of collaborative, inductive, and experiential learning methods?
- ii. How did the teaching instruction practices of Social Studies lecturers relate to the implementation of learner-centred education in primary colleges of education?
- iii. What were the Social Studies lecturers and student teachers' sense of efficacy in the use of selected collaborative, inductive, and experiential learning strategies?
- iv. How did final year student teachers provide for teacher-learner—initiated interactions during school experience?

- v. What were the barriers to the implementation of learner-centred instructional practices in primary schools?

1.7 Significance of the Study

Earnner-centred approaches to teaching have been identified by educational thinkers as having great potential for improving the attainment of learning outcomes by learners. It is for this reason that the government of the Republic of Zambia through the Ministry of General Education has emphasised through the revised 2013 Curriculum Framework the need for the Earnner-centred approaches in the teaching learning process. The significance of this study therefore lies in the fact that there are limited prior empirical and theoretical studies that have examined teacher preparation for learner-centred instructional practice in public, private and grant-aided primary colleges of education in Zambia.

By examining the quality of teacher preparation in learner-centred based education and use, the study contributed to the understanding of teacher preparation for learner-centred education in primary colleges of education. Therefore, the findings of this study may be used in the understanding of how teacher education in Zambia has institutionalised learner-centred education in teacher preparation.

In addition, the findings of this study would be widely available to policy makers, the public and educational leaders, and would allow them to make evidence-based diagnoses of the status of Learner-Centred activities in primary schools. The study would also help policy makers, teacher educators, lecturers, education administrators, Social Studies teachers and experts, researchers and the Ministries of General and Higher Education to make informed decisions about Earnner-centred approaches based reforms and how they are affecting attainment of education outcomes.

1.8 Scope of the Study

This study was confined to six primary colleges of education which included public, private and grant-aided colleges. The idea was to have an impression of how lecturers' classroom instructional practice related to implementation of learner-centred education in public, grant-aided, and private colleges of education. Lecturers of Social Studies and final year pre-service student teachers under the primary diploma programme were the target population. The researcher focussed on Social Studies lecturers because being a teacher educator in social studies; he wanted to appraise how their classroom instructional practice related to learner-centred education and to the realisation of

the fundamental curriculum goal of Social Studies (development of responsible, critical, reflective and active citizens). In trying to investigate preparation of student teachers for learner-centred instructional practice, the study explored student teachers' views on how they were prepared for knowledge and practice of learner-centred education in Social Studies and whether the knowledge and skills acquired during teacher preparation made them feel confident to teach Social Studies using various learner-centred methods and strategies. The study further obtained views from Social Studies lecturers on their preparedness to facilitate learning through a learner-centred approaches and how they were implementing the learner-centred approaches in teacher preparation. Views of lecturers and student teachers on their confidence level in relation to them having the knowledge and skills to teach using various learner-centred methods were also collected. Document review of teacher preparation programme documents was also done. Selection of the colleges to include in the study was based on the following criteria and is summarised in Table 1.1

1. Affiliation to the University of Zambia. This was because the University of Zambia is part of the curriculum development of its affiliate colleges and provides quality assurance of the education taking place in affiliate colleges. So it was necessary to see how learner-centred education was being implemented in affiliate colleges.
2. The criterion of public, private and grant aided college was used to select colleges. This was meant to ensure that the three types of colleges (public, private and grant aided) in the country were represented in the study.
3. Only third year student teachers were sampled in the study because primary teacher diploma preparation took three years in Zambia and third year was the final year of study after which students were expected to graduate. So, it was assumed in this study that by third year, students would have received the necessary instructions in pedagogical knowledge and skills needed for learner-centred learning.

Table 1.1: Scope of the Study

Location of the study	Selection criteria	Respondents
In six colleges of education affiliated to the university of Zambia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ grand-aided college ✓ public college ✓ private college 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Third year pre-service student teachers pursuing a Primary Diploma programme. ✓ College lecturers or instructors of Social Studies
In 3 primary schools	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Hosting student teachers during school experience 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ third Year Student Teachers pursuing primary diploma programme

1.9 Limitation of the study

There is no such a thing as a perfectly designed study (Marshall & Rossman, 1999; Patton, 1990). According to these scholars, study limitations may derive from the conceptual frameworks and the study's designs used. Implied is that framing the study in specific research and theoretical orientations place limits on the research. Creswell (2009) adds that limitations in research enable the researcher to identify potential weaknesses of the study that might make the findings be questionable or not generalised. For Kombo and Tromp (2014), limitations of the study indicate the challenges anticipated or faced by the researcher while Kothari (2004) sees limitations of the study as the challenges the researcher foresees or went through that might influence the validity and credibility of the study. The following were the limitations of the study:

The study used a descriptive survey design and since a survey design obtains data from a subset of a population in order to estimate population attributes, this has a risk of omitting some important population attributes that may contribute to better understanding of the research results. The sample survey is however cheaper, convenient, and easier to conduct. And since some measures were put in place to create an equivalent sample to that of the other colleges not included in the sample, generalisations even without random selection of participating colleges could still be relied upon.

In responding to the survey questionnaire, Social Studies lecturers and student teachers rated themselves on different aspects included in the questionnaire. This has the weakness of respondents advantaging themselves in cases where their responds signalled a sign of weakness or inadequacy on their part.

The study also observed and recorded some lessons for student teachers who were on school teaching experience (school attachment). The mere presence of the researcher during these lesson observations may have altered the behaviour of student teachers either positively or negatively or towards better performance or poor performance. The student teachers were however assured and urged to be as free as possible in their lesson executions.

The use of Focus Group Discussions and face to face interviews as methods of data collection may also have been a limitation in themselves because the two methods were subjective and heavily dependent on the researchers' perception of the topic under discussion. However, triangulation of

these two methods with use of questionnaires helped cross check and validates the data gathered in the study.

Although classroom observations of the actual lecture sessions in colleges would have added a practical dimension of what kind of instructional practice goes on in the classroom, no lesson observations were conducted. Instead, a survey questionnaire and face to face interviews for lecturers were used to collect data from Social Studies lecturers on their knowledge and classroom instructional practices of learner-centred methods of teaching.

1.10 Operational Definition of Terms

Learner-Centred Education

Is the process of providing student teachers with opportunities to learn independently and from one another and coaches them effectively in pedagogical knowledge and skills that will enable graduate teachers to teach in a responsive, collaborative, problem-centred and democratic way.

Teacher preparation/Education

For this study, teacher education is the process of providing student teachers with the knowledge, skills, attitudes and values necessary to teach learners effectively in a classroom and the school.

Learner-Centred learning methods

These include styles of teaching such as substituting active learning experiences for lectures, assigning open-ended problems and problems requiring critical or creative thinking that cannot be solved by following text examples, involving students in simulations and role plays, and using self-paced and/or cooperative (team-based) learning (Collins & O'Brien, 2003).

Self-efficacy

Teachers' self-efficacy is defined in this study as their beliefs about their capability to teach their subject matter even to difficult students using learner-centred methods.

Collaborative learning

McInnerney and Robert, (2004, p. 205) who defined *collaborative learning* as a learning method that implies "working in a group of two or more to achieve a common goal, while respecting each individual's contribution to the whole".

Inductive learning

According to Prince and Felder (2006, p. 123), "inductive teaching and learning is an umbrella term that encompasses a range of instructional methods, including inquiry learning, problem-based learning, project-based learning, case-based teaching, discovery learning, and just-in-time teaching".

Experiential Learning

“Learning is the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience” (Kolb, 1984, p. 38). For this study, experiential learning methods include role playing, fieldwork, debate.

Learner-centred discourses/practices

In this study will refer to both verbal and non-verbal communications on the part of the teacher meant to promote learner-centred lessons (learning). It refers to the classroom knowledge exhibited by teachers with regards to learning discourses or approaches that promote learner-centred teaching and learning.

Traditional Approach/Teacher-centred methods of teaching

In this study refer to one and the same thing and is the regular classroom instruction approach where traditionally, teachers guide the learning process while learners take on a responsive role in their day-to-day learning and is usually based on lecturing, recitation and reading assignments.

Pre-service Teacher education

Refers to the policies and procedures designed to equip prospective teachers with the knowledge, attitudes, behaviours and skills they require to perform their tasks effectively in the classroom, school and wider community.

Pre-Service Teachers

In this study refer to grade 12 school leavers and non-school leavers who are receiving initial teacher education for the first time.

Social studies

This study refers to social studies, as the study area that integrates both content knowledge and pedagogical know-how from geography, history, civic and religious education. This is one of the subjects at both the primary school and junior secondary as well as primary teacher training curricula.

Students and Learners

Will be used interchangeably in this study and they will be understood to mean a person trying to gain knowledge or acquire a skill in something through study or experience in a school.

Content Knowledge

Refers to the understanding and comprehension of the facts, principles, skills, generalization and concepts of the subject area.

Teacher Quality

Refers to the teacher’s possession of the knowledge and skills of the subject matter and the ability to effectively translate that knowledge to the learners.

1.10. Structure of the Thesis

This chapter presents the general context and background to the study. A general description of the general pedagogical renewal of learner-centred methods especially with regard to teacher education is presented. Policy Initiatives and efforts to address quality of teacher training in colleges of education are also discussed in brief. The chapter one also presents the statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, research objectives and questions. In addition, the chapter presents the significance of the study, its delimitation and limitation, conceptual framework, definition of key terms, and ethical considerations. Chapter two elucidates the theoretical underpinnings that form the basis of this study. It defines the concepts of learner-centred education, the rationale for this pedagogical renewal and also the theoretical basis for learner-centred education. Constructivism and Bandura's (1977) Social Learning Theories have been extensively addressed in this regard. Chapter three covers a review of the relevant literature on learner-centred education and its implementation, Social studies utilisation of learner-centred methods to fulfil its fundamental curriculum goal, and teacher education. Chapter four addresses itself to the methodology of this study. A descriptive survey was adopted and mixed methods approach was used. Chapter five presents the findings of this study and the presentation is guided by research questions. Chapter six focuses on the discussions of the findings, their implications on the theory and practice of teacher preparation for learner-centred education in primary colleges of education and its implementation. Chapter seven provides the conclusions of the thesis, theoretical and practical implications, and recommendations based on the findings of the study.

1.11 Summary

This chapter has presented the background of the study and has tried to establish the gap that the study tries to fill. Some background of the study anchored on literature review has been provided in a bid to justify the relevance of this study in the *Zambian* context. The chapter also presents relevant studies related to learner-centred education and provides justification for adoption of learner-centred education in *Zambia* and other developing countries. The next chapter addresses the theoretical underpinnings of this study especially as it relates to learner-centred education and teacher preparation. It also presents salient literature reviews on teacher preparation, philosophical basis of learner-centred education as well as the legal and policy documents anchoring the *Zambian* education system and its development since independence. All this was meant to contextualise the

study in the constructivist theories of education and to further ground the study with empirical evidence.

CHAPTER TWO: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2 Overview

This chapter is intended to elucidate the theoretical underpinnings that form the basis of this study. It defines the concepts of learner-centred education, the rationale for this pedagogical renewal and also the theoretical basis for learner-centred education. Constructivism theory is extensively discussed as the main theoretical framework informing learner-centred pedagogy. Specifically, Vygotsky's (1978) Social Constructivism and Piaget's (1936) Cognitive Constructivism have been adopted as the type of constructivism theories in which learner-centred education is anchored. The idea of adopting both constructivist theories was that the former emphasises the importance of student learning through interaction with the teacher and other students while the later argues that new information is filtered through mental structures (schemata) that incorporate the student's prior knowledge, beliefs, preconceptions and misconceptions, prejudices, and fears. Both these arguments were seen as important arguments in learner-centered education. In addition, Bandura's Social Learning Theory was also adopted to address the issue of whether Social Studies lecturers' instructional practices during teacher preparation included modelling of behaviours especially Task and Performance type of Modelling. Bandura's (1977) Social Learning Theory argues that children learn through observation, imitation, and modelling behaviours.

2.1 Constructivism Theory

During the past century, different paradigms have emerged due to the remarkable changes in social sciences research. This study adopted constructivism as the theoretical framework informing learner-centred education. According to the model that has dominated higher education for centuries (positivism), absolute knowledge ("objective reality") exists independently of human perception (Prince & Felder, 2006). Under this model, the teacher's job is to transmit this knowledge to the students with lecturing being the natural method for doing so and the students' job being to absorb this transmitted knowledge. An alternative model, constructivism, holds that whether or not there is an objective reality (different constructivist theories take opposing views on that issue), individuals actively construct and reconstruct their own reality in an effort to make sense of their experience (Prince&Felder, 2006). New information is filtered through mental structures (schemata) that incorporate the student's prior knowledge, beliefs, preconceptions and misconceptions, prejudices, and fears. If the new information is consistent with those structures it may be integrated into them, but if it is contradictory, it may be memorized for the exam but is

unlikely to be truly incorporated into the individual's belief system which is to say, it will not be learned. In the broadest terms, constructivist learning emphasises on equipping learners with adaptive abilities so that they are able to construct new knowledge based on prior knowledge or experiences (Kort, Reilly, & Picard, 2001). It challenges learners to become adaptive experts who can solve problems and make contributions to society throughout their lives (Bransford et al., 2000).

In discussing constructivism, Crotty (1998) as cited in Creswell (2014, p.38), identified several assumptions under this philosophy:

- a. Human beings construct meanings as they engage with the world they are interpreting. Consequently, qualitative researchers tend to use open-ended questions so that the participants can share their views.
- b. Humans engage with their world and make sense of it based on their historical and social perspectives. We are all born into a world of meaning bestowed upon us by our culture. Thus, qualitative researchers seek to understand the context or setting of the participants through visiting this context and gathering information personally. They also interpret what they find, an interpretation shaped by the researcher's own experiences and background.
- c. The basic generation of meaning is always social, arising in and out of interaction with a human community. The process of qualitative research is largely inductive; the inquirer generates meaning from the data collected in the field.

Cognitive and Social constructivism Divide

Maypole and Davies (2001) observed that while constructivist theories encompass a disparate array of philosophical, psychological and epistemological orientations and that one of the key distinctions within this broad theoretical 'camp' is that between cognitive and social constructivism. Guterman (2006, p. 13) described these two perspectives as follows: "Although both cognitive constructivism and social constructionism endorse a subjectivist view of knowledge, the former emphasizes individuals' biological and cognitive processes, whereas the latter places knowledge in the domain of social interchange". The principal implication of constructivist understandings for the way in which knowledge is constructed is that students should be the key initiators and architects of their own learning and knowledge-construction, rather than as passive 'vessels' who should receive the knowledge from 'expert' teachers (Barraket,

2005). Specifically, in this study, Cognitive and Social Constructivism were used as the theoretical frameworks guiding the study of the nature of classroom interactions in student teachers' lessons.

2.1.1 Vygotsky's (1978) Social constructivism.

Although constructivist theories encompass a broad array of understandings of learning theory and practice, this study adopted social constructivism because this branch of constructivism has been found to link well with either the teaching and learning (Ernest, 1991) or the issues of Learner-Centred Education (Henson, 2003). Attributed to the work of Vygotsky (1978), social constructivism emphasises the importance of student learning through interaction with the teacher and other students (Jadallah, 2000; Maypole & Davies, 2001). Henson (2003, p.5), thus saw social constructivism as a "Learner-Centred educational theory that contends that to learn anything, each learner must construct his/her own understanding by tying new information to prior experiences." According to Westbrook et al. (2013), pedagogic practices consistent with social constructivist approaches prioritise student-teacher or student-student interaction.

Small-group, pair and whole-class interactive work, extended dialogue with individuals, higher order questioning, teacher modelling, showing, reciprocal teaching and cooperative learning can all be seen as justified by social constructivism. Thus, social constructivism could be seen as supporting student- or learner-centred pedagogy, terms which feature very strongly in curricular reform in developing countries (Westbrook et al., 2013).

The assumption around student-centred pedagogy is that:

Teachers share their students' language and culture, accept a more democratic and less authoritative role, and know how to set up effective group work and tasks and to offer skilful supported instruction at the point it is needed. Furthermore, space is needed for flexible social groupings, and within this, students need to feel that they have the right to talk and contribute to their peers' learning. Inherent within this is recognition of the student as a person with rights, taken on formally by UNESCO within Child Friendly Schools, with its human rights-based approach to schools and pedagogy (Westbrook et al., 2013, p. 10).

Vygotsky (1986) as cited in Westbrook et al. (2013, p. 10) also contended that:

Learning under the social constructivism model involves students gradually internalising this social activity with higher order cognitive development or

thinking directly developed and structured by their external social speech. Children's natural or 'spontaneous' concepts meet with and are further developed by the scientific or more abstract concepts they are taught in school or by an adult through guided instruction.

In this study therefore, social constructivism was used to study both lecturers' and student teachers' classroom instructional practice and interchange as well as how such classroom instruction practices and interchange related to the implementation of learner-centred pedagogical approaches in the construction of knowledge.

2.1.2 Ontological basis of Social Constructivism

Social constructivists believe that individuals seek understanding of the world in which they live and work by developing subjective meanings of their experiences directed toward certain objects or things. These meanings are varied and multiple, leading the researcher to look for the complexity of views rather than narrowing meanings into a few categories or ideas. The goal of the research is to rely as much as possible on the participants' views of the situation being studied. The questions become broad and general so that the participants can construct the meaning of a situation, typically forged in discussions or interactions with other persons.

Therefore the more open-ended the questioning, the better, as the researcher listens carefully to what people say or do in their life settings. Often these subjective meanings are negotiated socially and historically. They are not simply imprinted on individuals but are formed through interaction with others (hence social constructivism) and through historical and cultural norms that operate in individuals' lives. Thus, constructivist researchers often address the processes of interaction among individuals. They also focus on the specific contexts in which people live and work in order to understand the historical and cultural settings of the participants. Researchers recognize that their own backgrounds shape their interpretation, and they position themselves in the research to acknowledge how their interpretation flows from their personal, cultural, and historical experiences. The researcher's intent is to make sense of (or interpret) the meanings others have about the world. Rather than starting with a theory (as in post positivism), inquirers generate or inductively develop a theory or pattern of meaning.

By employing the social constructivism paradigm, this study aims to bring out the kind of classroom interactions and seeks to show the ways in which individuals actively participate in the

construction and reconstruction of knowledge and reality during lessons (Bryman, 2008; Berger & Luckmann, 1966). This fits well in this study because the interpretive approach will enable the researcher to engage and understand the details of the context (environment) in which student teachers learn and schools in which learner-centred approaches are practiced, as well as how student teachers permeate different contexts and eventually how these contexts influence student teachers' classroom discourse and practices of learner-centred approaches.

Furthermore, the researcher's close interaction with the participants will enrich the data in that the researcher will be able to observe and record what will be said verbally through interviews and what will be implied through facial expressions, body movement, gestures and emotions of the participants.

2.1.3 Piaget's Cognitive Constructivism

In cognitive constructivism, which originated primarily in the work of Piaget, an individual's reactions to experiences lead to (or fail to lead to) learning. It emphasises individuals' biological and cognitive processes. The idea is that new information is filtered through mental structures (schemata) that incorporate the student's prior knowledge, beliefs, preconceptions and misconceptions, prejudices, and fears. These aspects were considered important in the implementation of learner-centered education hence its inclusion. It is worth noting that constructivism whether cognitive or Social Constructivism share similar persuasions or ontological assumptions that makes it difficult sometimes to differentiate between the two.

2.2 Scaffolding role of a teacher under Constructivist Pedagogy

Scaffolding learning is informed by Vygotsky's work and is the principle of setting a learner a task that is currently beyond their expertise, but within the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) which refers to what a learner could not yet do unaided, but could do with support from a more knowledgeable individual, (Taber, 2011). The aim of constructivist teaching then is not to provide 'direct' instruction, or 'minimal' instruction, but optimum levels of instruction. Constructivist pedagogy therefore involves shifts between periods of teacher presentation and exposition, and periods when students engage with a range of individual and particularly group-work, some of which may seem quite open-ended. However, even during these periods, the teacher's role in monitoring and supporting is fundamental.

Constructivism as a learning theory suggests that effective teaching needs to be both student-centred and teacher-directed and informs the teacher that each learner needs time, space, and suitable experiences, to support the learning processes; but also that minimal guidance during learning is unlikely to lead to the desired outcome. So, although constructivism is a learner-centred theory of teaching, the constructivist teacher works in the student's ZPD, to monitor and direct learning, from a perspective that a teacher understands how learning is dependent upon each individual's existing conceptual structures. Such scaffolding or guided support requires a skilful mix of teacher demonstration, praise, minimisation of error, practice and direct instruction (Wood et al., 1976).

2.3 Bandura's Social Learning Theory (1977) and his concept of Self-Efficacy (1986)

As alluded to above, Bandura's Social Learning Theory was also adopted to address the issue of whether Social Studies lecturers' instructional practices during teacher preparation included modelling of behaviours especially Task and Performance type of Modelling. According to this theory, children learn behaviour from their environment through observation, imitation, and modelling. The theory further argues that learning depends on how individuals either succeed or fail at dynamic interactions within groups, and promotes the development of individual emotional and practical skills as well as accurate perception of self and acceptance of others. Social interaction, therefore, plays a critical role in learning. Use of technology is also recommended as an effective way to provide plenty of opportunities to implement a social learning strategy.

The concept of Self-efficacy was also introduced by Bandura in 1986. According to Bandura, people with high self-efficacy, that is, those who believe they can perform well are more likely to view difficult tasks as something to be mastered rather than something to be avoided. He proposed four major sources of information summarised in figure 2.1 which contribute to individuals' self-efficacy. These are performance accomplishments (mastery experience), vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and physiological and emotional states. Bandura (1977) as cited in Cansiz and Cansiz (2019), performance accomplishments are the source of information based on personal mastery experiences through which strong efficacy beliefs are developed. It is therefore argued that an individual's repeated success on different tasks cultivates a stronger self-efficacy which can be maintained even if failures occasionally occur (Cansiz & Cansiz, 2019).

Individuals can also develop strong self-efficacy through vicarious experiences in which they observe others while performing challenging and difficult tasks (Bandura, 1977). For example,

when preservice teachers (PTs) go to a school setting, they would have an opportunity to observe an experienced teacher who is successful in teaching. Since most human behaviours are learned by observation through modelling (Bandura, 1986), they would approach teaching as if they are teaching successfully. In this way, they would boost their self-efficacy beliefs. The third source for developing self-efficacy is verbal persuasion. Verbal persuasion is mostly used due to its ease and ready availability, but it is accepted to be less effective than personal accomplishments in developing efficacy (Bandura, 1986, cited in Cansiz& Cansiz, 2019). When teacher educators and their peers encourage student teachers during the teaching process, they would feel confident in carrying out their tasks. This would help student teachers not only overcome self-doubt but also convince them to be capable enough in teaching. As a result, they also would develop a high sense of self-efficacy for teaching. The last source, Bandura (1986) proposed, is the emotional and physiological state. Teachers’ fear, anxiety, and stress may hinder their abilities and result in low self-efficacy. Any stimulus attenuating fear, reducing anxiety, and relieving stress in the teaching process is expected to increase teachers’ self-efficacy.

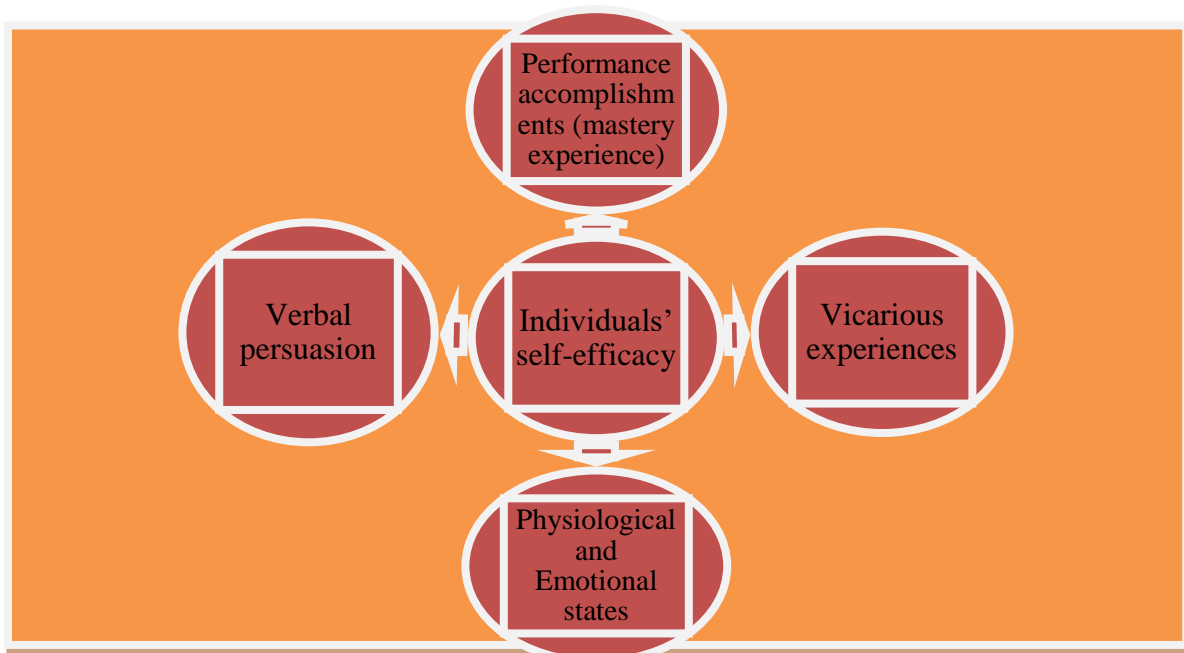


Figure 2.1: Four major sources of information which contribute to individuals’ self-efficacy according to Bandura (1977).

When applied to the teaching context, teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs may be impacted by their classroom experiences or their students’ achievement, their observations of peers, the arguments of their colleagues, and their levels of exhaustion (Ross, 1998, cited in Holzberger et al., 2013). Thus, although self-efficacy beliefs are theoretically assumed to be relatively suitable (Bandura, 1997), these considerations on the sources of self-efficacy indicate that efficacy beliefs may

change in response to specific experiences. When viewed from the teacher preparation context, one role that any teacher preparation should strive to achieve, whether directly or indirectly is the development of positive (high) self-efficacy among student teachers. This includes self-efficacy development in instructional and pedagogical knowledge through specific, relevant and adequate experiences during the teacher preparation courses.

As one way of addressing concerns about poor teacher preparation or quality of teachers, researchers in many countries have invested in examining the features of strong teacher preparation. In this regard, large-scale research studies examining different teacher education programs have begun exploring key features of teacher education such as the type and nature of coursework and clinical practice; the linkages between fieldwork and university or college coursework; the presence of opportunities to enact the work of real classroom teaching; and the nature of the program’s vision of good teaching (Boyd & Grossman et al., 2006; Grossman et al., 2008; Feiman-Nemser, et al., 2014). From this perspective, teachers’ instructional quality may not only be an outcome of teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs but may also influence the development of teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) acknowledges this reciprocal nature of self-efficacy. Constructivism and Bandura’s (1977) social learning theory informed this study on teacher preparation for learner-centred education and its implementation in primary colleges of education as summarised in figure 2.2.

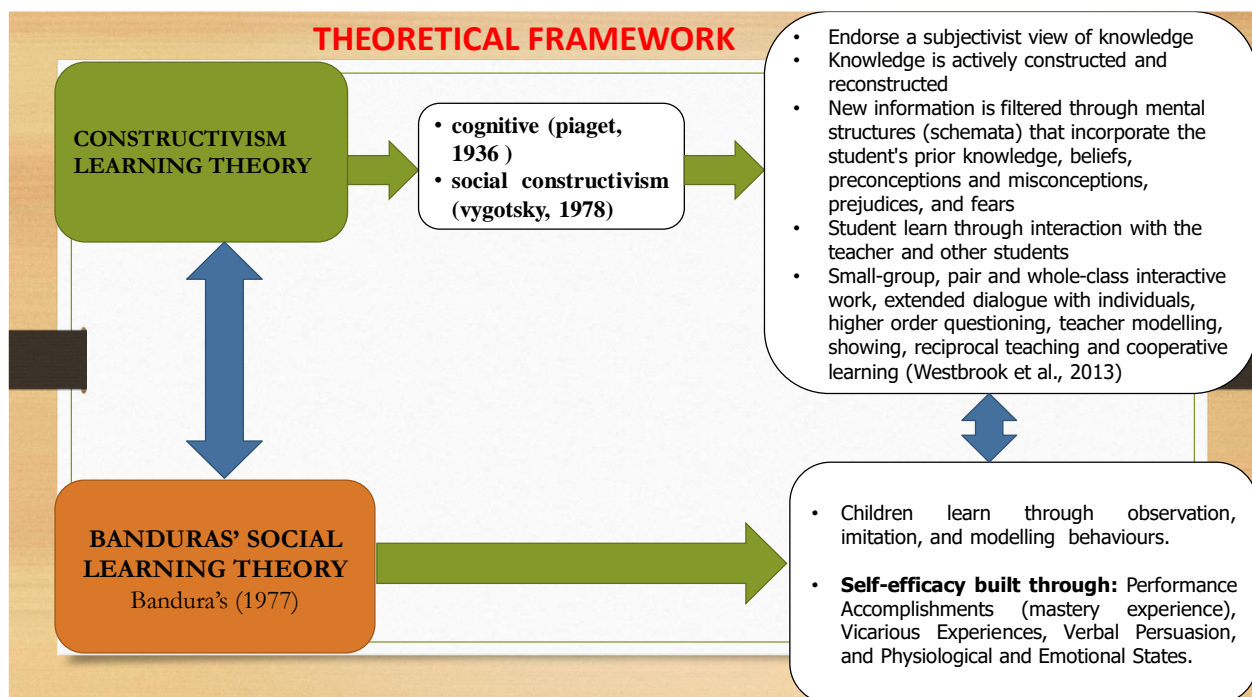


Figure 2.2: Theoretical Framework conceptualisation

2.4 Constructive alignment

Constructive Alignment is a teaching principle that combines constructivist principles whose main argument is the idea that learners construct or create meaning out of learning activities and what they learn. On the other hand, alignment is a curriculum design concept that emphasizes the importance of defining and achieving intended learning outcomes. The goal of Constructive Alignment according to Biggs (2014) then, is to support students in developing as much meaning and learning as possible from a well-designed, coherent, and aligned course. The rationale is that courses are congruent and cohere in an explicit way when there is good fit and flow between a course's intended learning outcomes, teaching and learning activities, and assessments of student learning (refer to Figure 2.3). Therefore, constructive alignment involves thoughtfully determining intentions for what students should learn and how they will demonstrate their achievement of these intended learning outcomes, and clearly communicating these to students; designing teaching and learning activities so that students are optimally engaged in achieving these learning outcomes; and creating assessments that will allow students to demonstrate their attainment of the learning outcomes and allow instructors to discern how well these outcomes have been achieved.

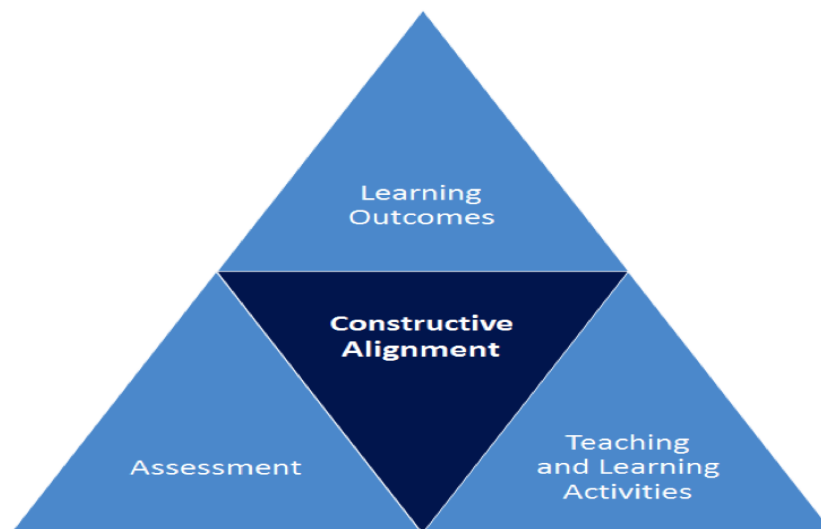


Figure 2.3: Constructive alignment (Adopted from Biggs, 2014)

2.5 Implementing Constructive alignment in Teacher preparation for learner-centred learning approach

Based on constructivism which informs learner-centred learning approaches and the social learning theory which advocates for modelling in teacher preparation, this study conceptualized constructive alignment in teacher preparation for learner-centred learning approach as presented in Figure 2.4.

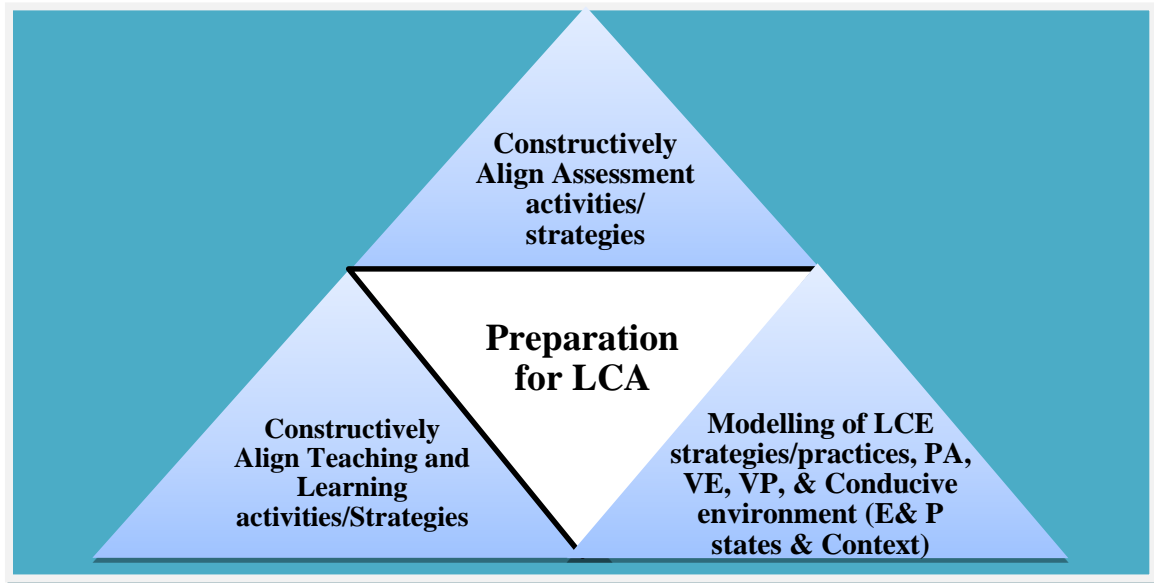


Figure 2.4 Constructive alignments in preparing teachers for learner-centred learning approach

This study argues that for teachers to be effectively prepared for learner-centred instruction practice, there is a need for lecturers to model or demonstrate to student teachers how to teach using various learner-centred strategies employing various examples depicting different learning contexts. In this sense, modelling as an instructional strategy allows students to observe the lecturers' thought processes which they in turn use to model their own activities to their peers and after training.

It is also expected that the teaching and learning activities during teacher preparation should promote in learners the construction of knowledge through active participation in learning activities that will also foster critical thinking. In this regard, teaching and learning activities during teacher preparation must be tailored towards achieving learner-centred learning outcomes such as promotion of deep learning, critical thinking through problem-solving and project based learning. Designing teaching and learning activities so that students are optimally engaged in achieving these learning outcomes is therefore important in preparing teachers with knowledge and skills of learner-centred teaching and learning strategies.

This study also argues that in order to assess the extent to which student teachers would have grasped the knowledge and skills of learner-centred methods, there is need to create assessments that will allow students to demonstrate their attainment of the learning outcomes and allow instructors (lecturers) to discern how well these outcomes have been achieved.

CHAPTER THREE: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

3.1 Overview

A literature review is an account of what has been published on a topic by accredited scholars and researchers. It is a critical look at the existing research that is significant to the work that the researcher will be carrying out. It involves examining documents such as books, magazines, journals and dissertations that have a bearing on the study being conducted (Kombo & Tromp, 2006). This chapter, therefore, presents a review of literature on learner-centred learning approach, teacher preparation, beliefs and experiences of adopters of learner-centred learning approach, as well as some empirical studies for and against learner-centred education drawn from different fields both within Zambia and outside Zambia. Policy efforts in Zambia including curriculum reviews by government meant to improve quality of teacher education especially as it relates to learner-centred learning approach has also been presented including an overview of selected legal and policy documents anchoring education development in Zambia since independence.

3.2 Social Studies as a school subject

Saxe (1991) and Singleton (1980) contends that the social studies had its own set of unique beginnings and emerged as an attempt to use education as a vehicle to promote social welfare, and its subsequent development was influenced both by Americans and others. According to Jarolimek (1981), history, geography, and civics were the dominant social science courses found in the early American elementary and secondary curricula. Barth and Shermis (1970) however, define social studies in terms of the goals of the subject rather than in terms of content with creation of a competent citizenry being the main goal. In this regard, selection of content to produce the desired citizenry is organised under three traditions which control the selection and organisation of content and teaching of social studies so that a specific type of citizen will result. The three traditions or goals are; “social studies as citizenship transmission,” “social studies as a social science,” and social studies as reflective inquiry.”

Barth and Shermis (1970) explained that Social studies as citizenship transmission implies that there is content, known in advance, which should be taught to students. The purpose is to produce a citizen who conforms to an expected set of characteristics set by the community. Since citizenship education aims at providing background knowledge necessary to create an ongoing stream of new citizens participating and engaging with the creation of a civilized society, learner

centred pedagogies especially collaborative methods are key in realising this goal. Content is also selected on the basis that what was valid in the past, remains valid today and consists of facts, principles, beliefs and theories.”

The same authors further explains that Social studies as a social science is concerned with the knowledge of the structure of the specific disciplines which comprise the social sciences. The purpose of this is to produce a citizen who is knowledgeable, such knowledge being good for its own sake. Teachers of teacher educators are therefore expected to facilitate and offer scaffolding role in the teaching and learning process of social science concepts considered important traditionally or by a consensus of what is considered important among social scientists. Collaborative, inductive, and experiential methods are all necessary in this regard.

Lastly, Social studies as reflective inquiry according to Barth and Shermis (1970) is explained as a process which describes decision making within the socio-political framework of community. It is a preparation of citizenship where the student acquires practice in the making decisions which reflect significant social problems and which presently affect them or are likely to affect them. In striving to attain this goal, inductive methods such as inquiry, and problem-based methods that evoke higher order thinking skills in learners are necessary. In short there is need for an interdisciplinary inquiry approach to be used.

It is clear from the three traditions or goals of social studies above that the type and choice of pedagogy is key in achieving the goals of Social Studies Subject. It is against this background that the constructivist based learner-centred pedagogy becomes handy in the realisation of the fundamental curriculum goals of social studies. According to Crocco and Marino (2017), the educational reform movement in Social Studies has focused on constructivist and inquiry-oriented approaches to teaching. Since learner-centred instruction urges students to actively construct meaning and understanding during every phase of the learning process, it can serve as an invaluable tool to help realise the vital goals of Social Studies Education (Yilmaz, 2008). Therefore how teacher education prepares students in knowledge and skills of learner-centred instructions is key to the realisation of the curriculum goals of Social Studies based on the three traditions.

3.2.1 Diffusion of Social Studies into African Education Curriculum

In Africa, Social Studies took time to reach the continent (Chilambo, 1988), probably due to conservative attitudes of missionaries and colonialists who controlled formal schooling in the

colonies. In British colonies, the entire school curricula were tailored to produce obedient subjects of the British Monarchy (Tlou & Kabwila, 2000). However, after gaining their political independence, African educators' thinking of the meaning of Social Studies took a different view from that perceived by their former colonial masters. The articulation of these views dates back to 1967 when educators from eleven countries met their counterparts from the U.K. and the U.S. at Oxford. African educators who attended the meeting came from Botswana, Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Lesotho, Malawi, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, Tanzania, Uganda, and Zambia (Merryfield, 1988; Merryfield & Tlou, 1995). The Oxford meeting laid the foundation for the African Social Studies Programme (ASSP), an organization responsible for the improvement of Social Studies in Africa.

A follow-up international conference held in Mombasa, Kenya, in 1968 laid the foundation for Social Studies in African school curricula (Adeyinka, 2000; Merryfield, 1988). Three major resolutions came out of these discussions. First, the purpose and objectives of Social Studies became preparation of active citizens for both local communities and nations (Adeyinka, 2000). This kind of philosophy was compatible with the change of status of Africans, from colonial subjects to citizens in their nation-states. Second, the content of Social Studies emphasized culture, environment, and problems relevant to the African needs (Shiundu & Mohammed, 2001). This change was also necessary because the goal of the inherited colonial school curriculum was preparation of obedient and loyal subjects, but this view was irrelevant in the post-colonial era. Instead, ASSP's emphasis was on the role of Social Studies in the development of nationhood, installation of skills and attitudes towards economic development, and creation of self-reliant citizens (Merryfield, 1988). For these reasons, the new Social Studies was an integration of the traditional subjects of history, geography, and civics, with some elements of other subjects like agriculture, economics, sociology, political science, and anthropology. Lastly, the pedagogies for teaching Social Studies changed from the traditional teacher-centred to learner-centred approaches (Adeyinka, 2002). Thus, African educators also saw the importance of active participatory approaches that were necessary for the preparation of critical-thinking minds for making informed decisions.

3.2.2 Introduction of Social Studies as a Subject in the Zambian Curriculum

Social Studies was not taught in primary schools and pre-service primary teachers colleges in Zambia until 1963 when it was introduced following the 1961 primary education committees'

recommendation that civics, history and geography be replaced by social studies. The then Ministry of African Education gave its approval in 1962. Until December, 1964, Social Studies was confined to the lower primary classes but after January 1966 when the primary course was reduced from eight to seven years, it was extended to grades four, five and six. In 1971 Social Studies was also introduced at grade seven (Mulenga, 1982).

More importantly, since Social Studies was seen as a vehicle through which citizens could understand and interpret the nation's political situations and solve society's problems through Inquiry method, the Ministry of Education and Culture adopted the use of inquiry method in the Primary Social Studies and in the Pre-service Social Studies Education (Mulenga, 1982). The Teacher Training College Syllabus (1975) also laid emphasis on the use of inquiry method in Social Studies teacher education and urged lecturers to demonstrate the inquiry skills so that teachers would use them after completing their training. Before this, Social Studies was mainly taught through expository (Mulenga, 1982). This included storytelling, narratives and direct structural teacher-directed teaching supplemented by acting, modelling and picture drawing (Mulenga, 1982). In this approach, the teacher directed the learning process and activities while learners remained passive recipients of knowledge. These teacher centred methods of teaching is what student teachers were trained in and were expected to use in schools. However, although the expository method was used, authors like Temple (1963, p.9) cautioned its overuse stating that "The best teachers are not those that teach the most of information but those who arouse the children's curiosity and make them want to find out more for themselves ". In emphasising the need for less of expository approach in the learning process, Temple (1963, p.9) wrote that:

Many of the facts pupils learn will be forgotten, but if their interest is aroused, they will go on learning after formal lessons are finished, especially in subjects like this (social studies) where lessons should be related to their own experience. The latter is what inquiry methods are all about.

Over the years since 1971, Social Studies has only been offered to primary grades until 2013 when it was extended to grades 8 and 9 (junior secondary) to replace geography, history and civics subjects. The aim of Social Studies is the promotion of civic competence; the knowledge, intellectual processes, and democratic dispositions required of students to be active and engaged participants in public life. Although civic competence is not the only responsibility of Social

Studies nor is it exclusive to the field, it is more central to Social Studies than to any other subject area in schools

3.2.3 Fundamental Curriculum Goals of the Social Studies curriculum

The subject of Social Studies is an integrated field that draws its content from various other disciplines. The National Council for the Social Studies (1994, P.7) provided a comprehensive definition of Social Studies as:

The integrated study of the social sciences and humanities to promote civic competence; within the school program, Social Studies provides coordinated, systematic study drawing upon such disciplines as anthropology, archaeology, economics, geography, history, law, philosophy, political science, psychology, religion, and sociology, as well as appropriate content from the humanities, mathematics, and the natural sciences.

In Zambian primary schools, Social Studies curriculum aims at developing learners with the ability to understand and appreciate the moral, social and cultural values as well as to interpret positively the political, economic, environmental and civic issues as they relate to everyday life (MoE, 2013). The rationale provided in the Teacher Education Curriculum (MoE, 2014) is that Social Studies should reflect the National Educational Policy aspirations by focussing on addressing various challenges that teachers faced in teaching the subject at primary school level. This entailed embracing the constructivist perspective of teaching and learning where “the student teacher is required to understand the subject knowledge, acquire skills and demonstrate values necessary for effective teaching and learning process in all primary teachers’ colleges” (MoE, 2014, p. 399).

The essential and core purpose of the Social studies syllabus is to enable student teachers develop a comprehensive understanding of the learner-centred approach in the teaching and learning environment. This approach advocates for activity-based learning, critical thinking and enquiry as well as objective continuous assessment. Ultimately, the syllabus aims at promoting democratic principles with a perspective that recognises the potential and importance of the individual learner (MoE, 2014, p. 399).

At junior secondary level (grade 8 and 9), the 2013 revised curriculum uses the term “Social Studies” to refer to a new learning area on human relationships and behaviour. It is an

interdisciplinary programme with a contemporary orientation incorporating some aspects of Civic Education, Geography and History that were previously taught as separate subjects in the former curriculum. Elsewhere, nation-states use Social Studies curriculum in the preparation of their young ones for active public life in their adulthood. However, much of the success in such endeavours is dependent on the organization of the curriculum and also the teachers' implementation of the curriculum. From this perspective of multidisciplinary content and child-centred pedagogical approaches, educators observe that Social Studies stands out as the most appropriate subject for citizenship education (Barton & Levstik, 2004; Biesta, 2006).

3.3 The concept of 'learner-centred learning'

The concept of 'learner-centred learning' is credited to Hayward in the beginning of the last century and to Dewey in the 1950s (O'Sullivan, 2003, cited in Al-Humaidi *et al.*, 2014). The concept is also linked to the work of Piaget and more recently with that of Malcolm Knowles (Burnard, 1999). 'Child-centred education', is another related concept derived from the work of Froebel (Simon, 1999). Richards (2002, p. 15) as cited in Al-Humaidi *et al.* (2014, p.94) reveals that:

In the seventies, a strand emerged with a focus on the learner under the rubric of individualized instruction and more generally, individualization. This includes self-access learning, self-directed learning, and the movement towards learner autonomy, all of which focuses on the learner as an individual and seeks to encourage learner initiative and to respect learner differences. Individualization was replaced in the 1980s by the term learner-centredness, which refers to the belief that attention to the nature of learners should be central to all aspects of language teaching, including planning, teaching, and evaluation.

According to Brandes and Ginnis (2001, p.1.), the other term 'learner-Centred Learning' was invented by Carl Rogers. They describe the term 'learner-Centred Learning' as "A system of providing learning which has the student at heart". In a document entitled how learner-centred are you? The Ministry of Basic Education and Culture (MBEC) in Namibia, specifically defines the term Learner-Centred Education as:

An approach to teaching and learning that comes directly from the National Goals of equity (fairness) and democracy (participation). It is an approach that means that teachers put the needs of the learner at the centre of what they do in the classroom,

rather than the learner being made to fit whatever needs the teacher has decided upon... learning must begin by using or finding out the learners' existing knowledge, skills and understanding of the topic...Then teachers develop more activities that build on and extend the learners' knowledge (MBEC, 1999, p.2).

Brundes and Ginnis (1986) also introduce several phrases that are synonymous with the student-centred approach such as inquiry, experimental, humanistic, confluent, andragogy, progressive, active tutorial work and participative learning. The two authors describe learner-centred as concerned with the students initiating and directing their own learning with the teacher being an enabler, facilitator, who sets up the structure for efficient group work and supports the students by his/her positive regard for them and by offering guidance and help where needed. This is also true of Shulman (1986) who distinguishes this pedagogical shift as a departure from didactic to student centred. This study uses a learner-centred method synonymously with the term inquiry method.

In general, the term Learner-Centred Education embraces terms such as, active learning, exploration, self-responsibility, learners' prior knowledge and skills as well as the construction of knowledge rather than passive participation of students (American Psychological Association (APA), 1997; Edmund & Stephens, 2000; Fardouly, 1998; McCombs & Whisler, 1997; Norman & Spohrer, 1996; Rowell, 1995; Thompson, Licklider & Jungst, 2003; Walczyk & Ramsey, 2003; Woelfel, 2004; cited in Kapenda's PhD, 2008).

Dupin-Bryant (2004) defined a learner-centred method as a style of teaching that is responsive, collaborative, problem-centred and democratic where both the learners and the instructor decide how, what and when learning occurs. As such, Mushi (2004) explains that learner-centred methods are made up of practical activities such as panel discussions, quizzes, projects, brainstorming activities, role-plays, debates, textbook study, field trips and discovery learning. Similarly, Brown (2001, pp. 46-47) pointed out a number of constructs that inform learner-centred education including the following: Techniques that focus on or account for learners' needs styles and goals; Techniques that give some control to the student (group work or strategy training, for example); Curricula that includes the consultation and input of students that do not presuppose objectives in advance; Techniques that allow for student creativity and innovation; Techniques that enhance a student's sense of competence and self-worth.

On the basis of the models from which it derives, student-centred approaches entails the following characteristics (Chutima, 2003, p. 3):

Focus is on active learning, using an integrated approach to connect new learning to prior learning, stimulating interest and relevance, providing student choice and control, adapting to individual developmental differences, and providing a caring and supportive learning environment; Knowledge is constructed through authentic learning. It is learnt in a real context or the context in which it was first generated. In other words, it links school learning experiences to real world situations; and students are active participants in the learning process rather than passive recipients. Class activities and project work are also arranged differently to allow learners a variety of choices to select according to the needs of each student based on the understanding that students have different capabilities and preferences for learning modes and strategies

The big question is what exactly should be regarded as a learner-centred lesson and to what extent should a teacher be detached from the happenings in a lesson or to what extent should the role of a teacher be for it to be regarded as learner centred bearing in mind that a teacher plays an important role in the teaching and learning process (Dewey, 1997). Richardson (2003), the editor of the Handbook of Research on teaching as cited in Westbrook et al., 2013) answers these questions by defining learner-centred based education as the creation of classroom environments, activities, and methods that are grounded in a constructivist theory of learning, with goals that focus on individual students developing deep understandings in the subject matter of interest and habits of mind.

It would appear from the above review that the concept of learner-centred learning is informed by constructivist theory of learning and aims at encouraging active participation of learners in knowledge construction and reconstruction with such methods. In this process, the teacher is required to play the role of scaffolding by supporting students' learning through the creation of conducive learning environments, activities and teaching methods that addresses the individual differences in learning abilities as well as encourage active participation, autonomy, innovativeness and creativity on the part of the learner.

3.4 Selected studies justifying pedagogical renewal towards learner-centred education in Social Studies and other disciplines

Strong research evidence exists to support the use of learner-centred methods as opposed to teacher centred methods. Many teacher educators have alleged that learner-centred methods equip teachers with the needed concepts, knowledge, attitudes, skills and techniques to handle efficient Social

Studies at primary level (Evans, 1972). An extensive review on school teaching methods conducted by McKeachie (1994, p.77) concluded that “if we want learners to become more effective in meaningful learning and thinking, they need to spend more time in active, meaningful learning and thinking not just sitting and passively receiving information”.

For Social Studies, the educational reform movement has focused on constructivist and inquiry-oriented approaches to teaching (Crocco & Marino, 2017). Not so much studies have explored the issue of learner-centred approaches in Social Studies in Zambia except for that done by Mulenga (1982) and Namangolwa (2013). However, a few studies that have specifically examined Social Studies teachers’ views of learner-centred instruction or constructivist approach to teaching and learning exist beyond Zambia. A study by LeSourd (1984) as cited in Yilmaz (2008, p. 38) explored 14 Social Studies teachers’ attitudes toward five selected instructional strategies (making graphs, concept development, inquiry teaching, and value clarification), all of which were constructivist in nature save for direct reading. The participants judged instructional strategies by considering the realities of the teaching situation. The study results indicated a uniform and enthusiastic attitude toward the selected instructional strategies. The dominant rationale for the positive response was the usefulness and flexibility of the instructional strategies, student needs, and teacher responsibility. Teachers’ attitudes toward instructional strategies were basically shaped by the diverse intellectual capacities of students, the role of the teacher in implementation, and the expected results of the implementation.

Another study which examined the impact of the teacher preparation programme on pre-service teachers’ beliefs about teaching and learning as they transitioned from being a student to being a teacher, was done by Doyle (1997). The study reported teachers having positively changed their views of teaching and learning as they went through the teacher preparation programme, becoming more constructivist in their views of teaching and learning. Similarly, a phenomenological analysis of responses from a study that examined pre-service teachers’ perceptions of characteristics of effective teachers at a large university in Southern Georgia, revealed several characteristics that many of the pre-service teachers considered to reflect effective teaching. Seven themes emerged and in order of endorsement level, teachers that practiced student centred methods ranked highest at 55.2% (Minor et al., 2002).

Byer and Dana-Wesley (1999) as cited in Yilmaz (2008, p. 39) also investigated pre-service Social Studies teachers’ views of active instructional methods after teachers were exposed to a four-step

procedure for implementing the constructivist approach in Social Studies methods classes. The researchers concluded that students' evaluations of the instructor of the active methods class were significantly higher than students' evaluations of the instructor of the passive methods class. Furthermore, Koeppen's (1999) investigation of pre-service teachers' reactions to issue-oriented Social Studies involving active teaching methods in primary grade revealed mixed reactions but most teachers were often uncomfortable and felt that it was usually difficult to create issue-centred Social Studies curriculum. In addition, a study was conducted by Woolley and Woolley (1999) as in cited Yilmaz (2008), which explored changes in student teachers' beliefs about behaviourist management, behaviourist teaching, constructivist teaching, and constructivist parents through a survey. The study involved both student teachers and cooperating teachers and revealed that some student teachers and cooperating teachers seemed to have ambivalent attitudes toward both learning theories. However some student teachers changed their beliefs because of their cooperating teachers who influenced them by modelling, giving feedback, and encouraging them to take risks.

There are also few other studies that specifically examined Social Studies teachers' views of learner-centred instruction or constructivist approach to teaching and learning. For instance, LeSourd (1984) explored 14 Social Studies teachers' attitudes toward five selected instructional strategies (making graphs, concept development, direct reading, inquiry teaching, and value clarification), all of which were constructivist in nature save for direct reading. The study results indicated a uniform and enthusiastic attitude toward the selected instructional strategies. The participants judged instructional strategies by considering the realities of the teaching situation. The dominant rationale for the positive response was the usefulness and flexibility of the instructional strategies, student needs, and teacher responsibility. Teachers' attitudes toward instructional strategies were basically shaped by the diverse intellectual capacities of students, the role of the teacher in implementation, and the expected results of the implementation.

In a study which examined the impact of the teacher preparation programme on pre-service teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning as they were in the transition from being a student to being a teacher Doyle (1997) reported that teachers changed their views of teaching and learning as they went through the programme, becoming more constructivist in their views of teaching and learning. They saw teaching as a process of facilitating and guiding learning. Similarly, they viewed learning as an active process of growth and change. This study through objective three

tried to reveal if student teachers' views of teaching and learning became more constructive as a result of going through the teacher preparation programme.

Bowman et al. (1998) investigated whether elementary teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning would change after their exposure to a five-year Cognitively Guided Instructional program (CGI). Two years after the onset of CGI, the researchers assessed changes in teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning mathematics by administering the CGI Beliefs Scale. They found that during the first year, teachers' beliefs about the value of CGI declined even with the extensive support they were provided. It took teachers two years to recover their previously held beliefs about CGI.

The ability to reflect on and regulate one's thoughts and behaviours is an essential aspect of learning which is promoted by learner-centred methods. Successful learners are actively involved in their own learning, monitor their thinking, think about their learning, and assume responsibility for their own learning. This is supported by a study done by Lambert and McCombs (2000) which revealed that learner-centred methods promote strategic processing and executive control of the cognitive abilities of learners. The study alleges that teacher-centred learning does not make learners assume the responsibility of their own learning and think about their learning. The findings of this research may be difficult to generalise to Zambia because the research was conducted in America and was based on subjective feelings which are difficult to prove or disprove.

In fact, learner centred methods in Social Studies have been investigated especially in the United States of America to determine its applicability (Cousins, 1962; Motcalf, 1963; Massialas, 1963). In Zambia, little or no such similar research works have been conducted apart from that conducted by Krug, (1981) and Mulenga (1982). A few writers however, have expressed their opinions on the teaching of Social Studies in Zambia (Kabogorwa, 1979; Kachulu, 1979; Simukoko, 1977).

Traditionally, teachers guide the learning process while learners take on a responsive role in their day-to-day learning. However, with the coming on of free thinking education and the impact it has had on education, some teachers have largely replaced traditional teaching methods, which focus on how teachers taught instead of how pupils are taught (Blumberg, 2008). The argument has been that effective teaching and learning require the use of different methodologies and strategies to meet the demands of the learners especially in view of the fact that teaching and learning methods, approaches and techniques are constantly evolving to meet the changing needs of teachers and students alike. David Nunan (1999, p.11) stated that "in a learner-centred classroom, key decisions

about what will be taught, how it will be taught, when it will be taught, and how it will be assessed will be made with reference to the learner”.

Over and above, Evans (1972) has alleged that learner-centred methods equip teachers with the needed concepts, knowledge, attitudes, skills and techniques to handle efficient Social Studies at primary level. These teaching methods also include active learning in which learners solve problems, come up with questions of their own choice, and answer questions. Additionally, Schiller (2009, p.123) further asserts that, “when the learners take the initiative to come up with ideas during the lesson, it sticks in their brain more than when the teacher does the lecturing”. Chung and Walsh, (2010, p.98) also recounts that “research has demonstrated that a learner-centred classroom can improve both learning and examination results”. These strategies, when applied by the Ministries of Education of different African countries can make teaching more effective and will help achieve excellence in education in Africa (Chung & Walsh, 2010). Learner-centred learning is thus focused on the learners’ needs, abilities, interests and learning styles with the teacher as a facilitator of learning (Weimer, 2002).

Moreover, Msonde (2011) pointed out that learner-centred methods emphasize learning by doing and becoming actively involved, experiencing, formulating ideas and solving problems. Pupils learn better by doing and not by purely listening to the teacher. Further, Henson (2004) argued that learner-centred methods are now embraced in different parts of Africa and in many subject areas and social studies, being a social science is not an exception. Felder and Brent (2003) add that learner-centred methods have shown to be greater than the traditional teacher-centred methodology of instruction. Students must do more than just listening and note taking. They must read, write, discuss, or be engaged in solving problems. Most importantly, to be actively involved, students must engage in such higher - order thinking tasks as analysis, synthesis, and evaluation.

This is why in schools throughout the world there is a movement from learning that is made up of facts to a new model i.e. active-learning which emphasizes understanding, making connections in the world around us, collecting and using information in active manner (Leu, 2000, p.10, cited in Agegnehu, 2017 p. 40).

Active-learning therefore must be thought of first and foremost in terms of students being intellectually active. This means that teachers do not simply expect students to memorize and repeat facts but should expect students to use information critically and analytically. Nardos (2000, p.87) has pointed out that, “in active learning the learners have a marked degree of freedom and

control over the organization of learning activities”. Usually these activities involve problem solving, inquiry and investigational work among others. Similarly, Aggarwal (1996, p.96) pointed out that “the basic purpose of education is to enable the learners to adapt in a society, which is full of problems. Not only social life is full of problems but there are problems and puzzling situations, which are normal features of a child’s everyday life in school as well”. Therefore, it is very important that problem solving skills should be encouraged in school learning because it strengthens the individual’s and society’s problem solving capacities at all levels by developing the physical and mental potential and problem solving capacity of all learners. The ultimate goal of learner-centred learning is to produce self-directed, lifelong learners.

Research also indicates that learner-centred methods increase motivation for learning and greater satisfaction with school, both of these outcomes lead to greater achievement (Slavin, 2009). Further, research shows that personal involvement, intrinsic motivation, personal commitment, confidence in one’s abilities to succeed, and a perception of control over learning lead to more learning and higher achievement in school (Alexander & Murphy, 2000). Learner-centred learning is based on the belief that people learn more effectively when they are interested in a topic or problem and thus are motivated to seek a solution to such problems (Pierce, 2003). This idea is similar to Bruner’s constructivist learning theory which states that the learning process is an active one in which the learner must discover principles for himself /herself and that instruction must be offered in the context of experiences that make the learner willing and eager to learn (Pierce, 2003).

Slavin (1998) further states that the teacher helps the learner to construct his or her own knowledge by giving him or her opportunities to explore concepts and apply ideas. A learner understands new events in relation to his or her past experiences, and the active learning process helps the learner to develop logical thinking. It is not easy to measure the levels of motivation among learners and what motivates them. The fact that there are some individual differences among learners implies that what motivates them may be different. Therefore, not all learners can be motivated by learner-centred methods.

Bearing in mind that learners come to the learning situation with their own personalities, learning styles, motivation and focus, Lambert and McCombs (1998) record that learner-centred methods promote and cater for individual differences among learners because it takes into account differences in talents, emotional states, abilities and needs of learners by allowing learners to participate successfully in the learning and self-development that they need. When a learner creates

knowledge based on his or her previous knowledge, he or she has to instil concepts or ideas with personal meaning. Each individual has a typical way of thinking, remembering and solving problems. Learners therefore come to the learning experience with prior knowledge that is peculiar to themselves and with different beliefs and backgrounds and must be respected if they are to participate actively in their learning process.

Furthermore, Litzinger and Osif (1996) pointed out that learners also think and learn in different ways and tend to have a consistent approach to learning. In general, sensitivity to individual differences in learners in the classroom and variations in learning materials is needed if one happens to accommodate all learners and if one wants to help learners learn effectively in a learner-centred classroom. Research indicates that learners not only come to the learning environment with certain ideas behind them that colours their opinions, interests and goals, but also with differences in their learning styles, development, abilities, feelings of efficacy and various other needs. Therefore, learner centred methods play a pivotal role in catering for individual differences of learners (Lambert & McCombs, 1998).

A study conducted by Aspy (1983) in America as cited in Namangolwa (2013), also revealed that learners who are given the freedom to explore areas based on their personal interests, and who are accompanied in their striving for solutions by a supportive and understanding facilitator not only achieve higher academic results but also experience an increase in personal values such as flexibility, self-confidence and social skills. The assertion by Aspy (1983) is that learners achieve superior academic results and even personal growth in terms of higher self-confidence and openness to experience if they learn in an atmosphere or climate that can be characterised by three basic attitudinal conditions: realness, acceptance, and empathic understanding.

Another study done by Steekol (2007) also justified the shift from teacher-centred methods to learner-centred methods. The study assessed how using formative assessment, a component of learner-centred teaching, enhanced pupils' learning. The study which involved an experimental group assessed using formative assessment, and a control group assessed through traditional means noted that pupils who were assessed through formative assessments scored significantly better on the final exam than those in the control group. This, therefore, indicates that learner-centred methods are more effective than teacher-centred ones. However, the sample was too small to permit generalisation of these findings.

Changes in the understanding of how humans learn are equally supported by the use of learner-centred methods. Doyle (2008) indicated that new discoveries about how the human brain learns and subsequent recommendations for how to teach in harmony with these discoveries have guided the learner-centred approaches to teaching and learning. Learner-centred approaches advocate for more first-hand learning, practicing, reflecting, teaching of others and presentations because all these learning activities require active learner engagement. Research from neuroscience indicates that dendrites of our brain cells only grow when the brain is actively engaged and the neuron-networks formed in our brains only stay connected when they are used repeatedly (Ratey, 2009). We need to continually reinforce to our learners that the learning tasks we are asking them to take on, which require them to adapt to new learning roles are done to optimise the development of neuron-networks they need to be successful at school. However, in terms of methodology, research from neuroscience does not show us exactly how dendritic cells grow and how the neuron networks stay connected when learner-centred methods are used.

Research also suggests that instructors have a tendency to overestimate their learners' level of cognitive involvement in the classroom. For example, Fassinger (1996) surveyed more than 1,000 learners in over 50 classes from a wide range of disciplines that met at the same period. She discovered that learners perceive themselves as less involved in the classroom than faculty perceive them to be. The study brings to the fore the fact that while teachers and instructors would like to think that learners are engaging in reflective thinking while listening to lectures, research demonstrates that learners' note-taking during learning is often performed in a reflexive, mindless manner. Prolonged performance on any passive repetitive task such as continuous note-taking therefore, eventually results in that task being assumed by lower centres of the brain that control automatic behaviour, with limited involvement of higher (cortical) areas of the brain responsible for higher-level thinking. This finding is captured anecdotally in the old saying: "During lectures, information passes from the lecturer's notes to the students' notes and through the minds of neither" (Gibbs, 1995, p.123).

In studies of learner behaviour in classrooms, it has been found that about half of the time during lectures, learners are thinking about things unrelated to the lecture content and up to 15 percent of their class time is spent '*fantasizing*' (Milton, Pollio & Eison, 1986). Student attention and concentration tend to drop off dramatically after 10-20 minutes of continuous instructor discourse. Thus, attention loss during lectures cannot be dismissed as a learner problem, such as lack of motivation, lack of effort, or an outbreak of attention deficit disorder among today's learners;

instead, the problem seems to lie with the lecture method itself (Milton *et al.*, 1986). It may be that listening attentively to lectures for prolonged periods of time is simply not something that the human brain is particularly well equipped to do.

Additionally, Pascarella and Terenzini's (2005) study further revealed that even if learners miraculously managed to maintain attention and concentration in a typical 40-minute lecture, important educational outcomes such as higher-level thinking skills and attitude change are less likely to take place. This is when learners listen more to lectures than when they engage in more active forms of learning. Supporting Pascarella and Terenzini (2005) line of argument, Bligh (2000, p.68) concluded his comprehensive review of the literature with the recommendation that "use lectures to teach information. Do not rely on them to promote thought change attitudes, or develop behavioural skills if you can help it". The studies conducted by Pascarella and Terenzini (2005) as well as McKeachie (1994), equally provide consistent evidence that the lecture method which continues to be the dominant instructional strategy in classrooms, is not the optimal vehicle for promoting learning, particularly learning that involves higher-level thinking and attitudinal change. Their motive is not to imply that lecturing (instructor-delivered information) should be totally exterminated from the classroom. However, the research reviewed here strongly suggests that the lecture method needs to be augmented and complemented by learner centred strategies that empower learners to take a more active and responsible role in the learning process. Pascarella and Terenzini's (2005) studies however needed to provide a methodological explanation of how higher-level thinking skills and attitude change are less likely to take place in teacher-centred methods such as the lecture method.

In addition, Weimar (2002) reviewed extensive literature on learner-centred teaching and learning and she summarised her findings as follows: Pupils and students are capable learners who will blossom as power shifts to a more egalitarian classroom. The role of a teacher has changed from a sole authoritarian to a fellow traveller in search of knowledge. The emphasis now is on returning the responsibility for learning to learners so that they can understand their learning strengths and weaknesses and feel self-directed in their knowledge quest. It also entails change in the assessment practices so that assessment measures are not just used to assign grades, but as a tool to promote learning. Weimar's (2002) research concluded that student learning becomes even more effective when students are teaching students and are involved in subsequent evaluation. However, it is not always that learning becomes effective when students teach one another and get involved in evaluation.

McCombs who has published extensively on the topic of learner-centred teaching (McCombs, 1997, 1999, 2000), emphasises the role of positive feedback between student and instructor and the importance of encouraging a good climate of learning both in and outside the classroom. Her work also found significant value in better understanding an individual student's perspective on the learning experience and having diverse approaches that allow all students to be better invested in their learning experience. Palmer's (1997) *"The Courage to Teach"* eloquently addresses the paradox of teaching-versus learning-centred education practices. His view is that if we separate teaching from learning, the result is teachers who talk but do not listen and students who listen but do not talk.

3.5 Conceptualising the central role of learner-centred approaches in the attainment of the fundamental curriculum goals of social studies

According to the National Council for the Social Studies (1993) as cited in Yilmaz (2008, p.3), "the fundamental goal of teaching Social Studies in schools is to help students become responsible, critical, reflective, and active citizens who can make informed and reasoned decisions about the societal issues confronting the local, state, and global community respectively". Students are expected to develop a positive disposition toward participatory democracy and to actively engage in the public issues for the common good. In order for students to be active and participatory citizens, they need to have the kinds of opportunities that allow them to actively engage in thinking, reasoning, and questioning (Yilmaz, 2008). Since learner-centred instruction urges students to actively construct meaning and understanding during every phase of the learning process, it can serve as an invaluable tool to help realise the vital goals of Social Studies Education.

For social studies, the educational reform movement has focused on constructivist and inquiry-oriented approaches to teaching (Crocco & Marino, 2017). As postulated by the National Council for the Social Studies (1993), the fundamental goal of teaching Social Studies in schools is;

to help students become responsible, critical, reflective, and active citizens who can make informed and reasoned decisions about the societal issues confronting the local, state, and global community respectively. Students are expected to develop a positive disposition toward participatory democracy and to actively engage in the public issues for the common good.

Therefore, in order for students to be active and participatory citizens, they need to have the kinds of opportunities that allow them to actively engage in thinking, reasoning, and questioning. Since learner-centred instruction urges students to actively construct meaning and understanding during every phase of the learning process, it can serve as an invaluable tool to help realise the vital goals of Social Studies education. Given the pivotal role of learner-centred instruction in realising the goals of Social Studies subject as postulated by the National Council for the Social Studies (1993) and various education documents, it is essential to examine classroom instructional practices in primary teacher colleges and the pedagogical self-efficacy of lecturers and student teachers to facilitate learning through learner-centred pedagogical approaches and whether such instructional practices and self-efficacy levels assured teacher preparedness for implementation of learner-centred learning as well as attainment of the fundamental curriculum goals of Social Studies subject. Fraenkel (1992) stated that detailed descriptions of teachers' perspectives, beliefs, and instructional practices are needed if the profession is to assess accurately the nature of instruction and to determine where, when, and how changes might be made and implemented. A large number of empirical studies have also shown that teachers' conceptions play a significant role in framing the ways they plan, implement, and evaluate the curriculum (Clark & Peterson, 1986; Thompson, 1992; Fang, 1996; Andrews & Hatch, 2000; Hancock & Gallard, 2004). In addition, the 1971 Social Studies syllabus for primary school, the curriculum council Report (1975), the 1975 primary Teacher Training Syllabus, and the revised

3.5.1 Development of Knowledge, Skills, Positive Values, and Attitudes as Key Curriculum Goals of Social Studies

The first tenet of Social Studies execution is the acquisition of knowledge. This is an important aspect because it gives the students the political, social, and economic background knowledge necessary for participation in a civil society. Indeed, for citizens' effective participation in discussions or debates in a shared political community, they must first of all, possess the knowledge base necessary for such engagements. In this connection, Barton and Levstik's (2004) argument makes sense that knowledge of citizenship life is not enough, but students must develop skills and positive attitudes to perform the expected roles of good citizenship in their communities.

Secondly, Social Studies educators agree that the best way for students' development of citizenship skills is engagement in participatory activities both in schools and the communities around their schools (Carr, 1991; Peters, 1999; Remy, Anderson, & Snyder, 1976). For example, Carr (1991) argued that participatory learning helps to cultivate values and skills necessary for a democratic

society. Peters (1999) also argued that the role of social studies' teachers in citizenship education is promotion of students' active involvement in lesson activities as a way of empowering them in making rational decisions in everyday life. This implies that teachers must organize classroom practices that enable students' development in skills necessary for active participation in public life. Such skills include public speaking, tolerance to other people's views, listening to other people's views, making positive arguments, and peaceful conflict resolutions. Thus, educators propose that teachers must use learner-centred pedagogies and techniques like debate, panel discussion, simulation, drama and role-play, and oral reports to develop positive skills and values in students (Department of Curriculum and Evaluation, 1990).

The last tenet of citizenship learning is positive change in values and attitudes. Students can demonstrate change in attitudes if they are given opportunities to practice the knowledge and skills they acquire in the classroom or elsewhere (Parker, 2003). For example, Parker explained that students must be engaged in school-based activities to practice what they could do in their adult life. Some school-based activities that can help students in skill development and positive change in their attitudes include making school rules, deciding on school policies, making plans for school activities, and electing fellow students in positions of leadership at the schools. It is therefore necessary that classroom practices that aim at the preparation of effective citizens must display three tenets, namely knowledge, skills, and attitudes.

3.5.2 Teaching for active citizenship in social studies

The framing of citizenship curriculum content around humanistic content is necessary, but certainly not enough for the preparation of active citizens because much depends on what happens in the classrooms. Adeyinka, (2000) agreed that while teachers' knowledge of the content to teach is important, it is equally significant for teachers to know how to translate the content into meaningful learning experiences. The question that inevitably arises here is: how should a Social Studies classroom that prepares active citizens look like? Brophy and Alleman, (1991, p.3) argue that the goal of citizenship education is "providing students with the knowledge, skills, and values that they will need to understand modern life and participate effectively as a pro-social group and responsible citizens" (p.3). Thus it is important that teachers at classroom level use a variety of teaching methods and techniques in order to cater for the range of learning needs taking into account the available local resources. In addition, teachers should use methods that encourage learners to reflect, think and do rather than reproduce from rote learning. In this regard, teachers

are strongly advised to use the Learner-centred approaches in the teaching and learning process (MoE, 2013). It is therefore important to establish how student teachers are prepared for knowledge and instructional practice of learner-centred methods of teaching social studies

3.5.3 Aiding children's education rights and achievement of their full potential through better classroom pedagogical practices

Supporting the need for better classroom pedagogical practices, UNESCO Education for All Global Monitoring Report (2005) reports that among the barriers that learners face in realising their education rights and achieving their full potential is the inappropriate teaching methods or materials and the poorly trained teachers; policy and curriculum issues. The report also identifies classroom pedagogy used by teachers as consistently “*the crucial variable for improving learning outcomes’ and critical in any reform to improve quality*” (UNESCO, 2005, P. 152). Research by Scheerens (2000) and Verspoor (2003) as cited in Hardman (2008) further reports that in developing countries, the influence of the school on pupil learning is more important than the effect of home and other external factors compared with developed countries. Hardman (2008, p.56) goes further to suggest that “changing pedagogic practices requires the need for powerful school-based professional development programmes as many teachers are unprepared or underprepared to teach and thus developmentally handicapped at the pre-service phase”. Thus, intervening at the school level and classroom level is seen as crucial in raising the quality of primary education in Sub-Saharan Africa as ultimately educational quality is obtained through pedagogical processes in the classroom: through the knowledge, skills, dispositions and commitments of the teachers in whose care pupils are entrusted (Craig *et al.*, 1998; Anderson, 2002; Verspoor, 2003, cited in Hardman, 2008, p. 56).

Against this background, managing the quality of classroom interaction is seen as the single most important factor in improving the quality of teaching and learning, particularly in contexts where learning resources and teacher training are limited (Carron & Chau, 1996; Alexander, 2000; Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Farrell, 2002). This is the more reason why in the bid to promote more interactive classroom discourses, the shift in policies towards learner-centred pedagogies have been on the increase supported by empirical evidence and “have been documented and popularised in many developing regions of the world, including Africa, some middle income countries and impoverished groups in more developed areas” (Schweinfurt, 2011, p.426).

3.5.4 Learning as an active and constructive process

Learning is an active process by which learners construct concepts and ideas on the basis of their existing knowledge, ideations, attitudes, emotions and prejudices (Barnes, 1999). This is done by asking questions, interpreting events and solving problems. The learner-centred approach promotes active involvement in exploring events and concepts, the learner constructs and develops his or her own understanding of the world and so learns new things, becomes more independent, participates more and becomes more creative. In contrast, Engelbrecht (2000) states that the traditional approach is seen as being content-driven, with little involvement required from learners who are expected to be passive and receptive. In this kind of traditional teacher-centred learning, teachers deliver their received wisdom and certified information to passive recipients, and the main emphasis is on practicing rote learning rather than acquiring any problem solving skills.

Learners construct knowledge most effectively if the content concerned is relevant and personally meaningful to the learner as well as if the learner connects with what is being learnt if it is based on his or her prior knowledge and experience. A friendly and encouraging social environment in which the learner feels appreciated, respected and valued creates a situation in which learning occurs best. In this sense, learning is taken to be a natural process because learners who are respected are naturally curious and therefore want to learn and improve their situations. Although negative feelings and thoughts may interfere with the learning process, they must somehow be dealt with and neutralised (Lambert & McCombs, 1998).

The learner-centred paradigm has become the new *'buzzword'* in the field of education. Empirical support is needed to move the paradigm from a passing trend to a conceptual pillar of scholarship of teaching and learning. Several researchers have explored the learner centred paradigm with promising results. For instance, Wells and Jones (2005) examined how teaching information systems to learners were improved by using more collaborative classrooms. They found out that learners were able to learn less measurably, but still important skills such as the ability to work collaboratively and taking responsibility for learning were maintained. That study focused on information systems in America and therefore its findings cannot be generalised to other countries and other disciplines.

3.5.5 Learning as Construction and Extension of Prior Knowledge (Knowledge Base)

According to a study conducted by Alexander and Murphy (2000), learner-centred methods promote knowledge base. The conclusive result of decades of research on knowledge base is that

what a person already knows (prior knowledge) largely determines what new information he/she attends to, how he/she organises and represents new information, and how he/she filters new experiences, and even what he/she determines to be important or relevant. This implies that the use of learner centred methods promotes knowledge base among learners as opposed to the use of teacher-centred ones. This is because a learner determines what is salient for him or her and thereby cultivates the interest to retain what he or she learns. That gap however in this conclusion is that it does not explain very well how learner-centred methods increase the knowledge base.

3.5.6 Characteristics of teachers who embrace the learner-centred instruction

In his book, ‘What the Best Teachers Do’, Bain (2004) offers several characteristics of teachers who embrace the learner-centred instruction. These teachers touch the lives of their students and place strong emphasis on learning and outcomes through varied forms of assessments. Bain’s book which tried to capture the collective scholarship of some of the practices of the best teachers in the United States concluded that the best teachers regardless of where they teach, know their subject material extremely well, and are active and accomplished scholars, and value critical thinking, problem solving and creativity. Bain (2004) further concluded that best teachers value teaching and consider it as demanding as their research and scholarship and that such teachers seek to create a critical learning environment and aspire to challenge students to confront important problems. Such teachers also have a strong trust in students, believe that students want to systematically collect feedback on teaching, readily assess outcomes, and make appropriate changes. Furthermore, these teachers work to create a safe learning environment which allows students to try, fail, and try again. Bain’s book further pointed out that teachers who embrace learner-centred assessments have a great faith in students’ ability and offer students ownership of class objectives. What can be concluded from Bain’s (2004) book is that learner-centred teachers view teaching as beginning with the student and appreciate the individual value of each student. In his words “*They don’t teach a class. They teach a student*”.

Further, Biggs (1999) stated that the goal of teaching is to promote learning, and then the role of the teacher takes to accomplish that goal. Teachers no longer function as exclusive content experts or authoritarian classroom managers and no longer work to improve teaching by developing sophisticated presentation skills. They will lecture less and much more around their classroom than in front of it. Learner-centred teachers make essential contributions to the learning process. Therefore, meaningful approaches to learning are discouraged when teachers believe that their role

is restricted to transferring the accumulated knowledge of their discipline to the minds of their students.

3.6 Methods practiced in Social Studies teaching and their justification

Since the early twentieth century, two main curriculum and instructional foci have dominated historians' and Social Studies educators' discussions: active, "constructivist" instructional methods and citizenship education. Resnick and Klopfer (1989) suggest that knowledge is acquired not from the information communicated and memorized but from the information that students elaborate, question, and use. It is the utilization or application of acquired knowledge which is both the product and process of Social Studies education.

There have been few studies of teaching practice within the Social Studies which illuminate how teachers' best prepare students for application or demonstration of ideas. One study by Bolinger and Warren (2007) surveyed ninety-seven National Council for the Social Studies' member teachers and found that a moderate majority (67 percent) of elementary teachers indicated that they sometimes used an interdisciplinary or thematic approach. Whereas this may suggest that these teachers are connecting ideas across disciplines and allowing students to generate understandings which go beyond a linear or sequential presentation of facts, it is also worth noting that the teachers surveyed were part of an organization devoted to promoting best practice in Social Studies education and therefore may have been more likely than non-member teachers to employ such methods (Resnick & Klopfer, 1989).

Several other educational researchers (Palmer, 2001; Powers, Higgins-D'Alessandro, & Kohlberg, 1976; Haas & Laughlin, 1987; Langer, & Applebee, 1987) have also provided theoretical frameworks and research to support methods that facilitate the development of attitudes and values, and the ability to consider multiple perspectives. These are Debate, Socratic inquiry, role playing, and individual research; that is, teaching strategies which encourage the development of values and multiple perspectives. Other frequently employed methods such as lecture, text reading, and worksheets may be necessary for some fact gathering, but as relatively passive types of learning they may be inadequate for development of ideas, values, and perspectives (Bolinger & Warren, 2007). Instructional strategies which rely on investigation and promotion of ideas, however, require resources which may not be available or familiar to the classroom teacher.

In Zambia, Muzumara (2011) also postulate that learner-centred methods (LCM) in history (which is one of the contributory subject in social studies) include practical activities such as panel discussions, quizzes, projects, brainstorming activities, role plays, debates, textbook study, field trips and discovery learning. Learner-centred methods also include active learning in which learners solve problems, formulate questions of their own choice, and answer questions. Practical application of conflict resolution as both a method and an outcome of Social Studies teaching has also been promoted.

Social Studies researchers have therefore advocated teacher instructional practices designed to build student capacity (Mandell & Malone, 2007; Seixas & Peck, 2004; Van Sledright, 2011; Wineburge, *et al.*, 2013). Adeniji (2004) suggested that teachers of Social Studies at all levels of education need to be familiar with the content and methods of teaching the subject in order to interpret the content of Social Studies correctly and encourage its learning. This is mainly because when Social Studies instructional methods are related to the content, learning will cease to be fragmentary and memorization of unrelated facts and concepts will end. It is only when Social Studies content is related to instructional methods that students will be able to appreciate the importance of Social Studies and pass valid judgement of what Social Studies is. In line with the goal of social studies, there are a number of learner-centred methods used in the teaching of Social Studies including what is discussed in the following paragraphs.

3.6.1 Inductive Teaching and Learning Methods

According to Prince and Felder (2006, p. 123), “inductive teaching and learning is an umbrella term that encompasses a range of instructional methods, including inquiry learning, problem-based learning, project-based learning, case-based teaching, discovery learning, and just-in-time teaching”.

These methods have many features in common, besides the fact that they all qualify as inductive. They are all learner-centred and supported by research findings that students learn by fitting new information into existing cognitive structures and are unlikely to learn if the information has few apparent connections to what they already know and believe (Prince & Felder, 2006). They are also anchored on constructivist theory whose main argument is that students construct their own versions of reality rather than simply absorbing versions presented by their teachers. This however does not by any means imply purely using inductive teaching and learning because in practice, neither teaching nor learning is ever purely inductive or deductive. “When we speak of inductive

methods, we therefore do not mean total avoidance of lecturing and complete reliance on inductive teaching and learning methods, but simply teaching in which induction precedes deduction” (Prince & Felder, 2006, p. 123). Good teaching and learning if anything should help students to learn to do both. The teacher as an instructor should also retain his or her scaffolding roles by facilitating learning through guiding, encouraging, clarifying, mediating, and sometimes even lecturing (Prince & Felder, 2006).

Since learners in schools and colleges attain higher rates of retention under learner-centred instruction and are better prepared graduates than those trained under traditional instruction (Matlin, 2002; Sternberg, 2002; McCombs, 2001; McCombs & Quiat, 1999), many developing countries have over the last two decades embarked on major curriculum and pedagogical reforms meant to actualise learner-centred instruction practice in schools, often with donor involvement.

In Africa, this emphasis on learner-centred pedagogies has been made possible after the adoption of the Education for All (EFA) with the support of the United Nations Education and Scientific Culture Organisation (UNESCO) and the International Institute for Capacity building in Africa (IICBA) which have been committed to enhancing the quality of education in Africa by assisting in capacity building and promoting learner-centred education (UNESCO, 2011). In this regard, and as a way of responding to the learner’s needs, the Ministry of Education in Zambia through the national policy document on education, *Educating Our Future* (1996) and related education policy documents on education have embraced the need for the transformation of the teaching methods from teacher-centred to learner-centred. The following are the inductive methods that were considered for this study.

Inquiry learning

Inquiry learning begins when students are presented with questions to be answered, problems to be solved, or a set of observations to be explained (Bateman, 1990, cited in Prince &Felder, 2006). If the method is implemented effectively, the students should learn to, "formulate good questions, identify and collect appropriate evidence, present results systematically, analyse and interpret results, formulate conclusions, and evaluate the worth and importance of those conclusions” (Lee, 2004,). The same statements could also be made about problem-based learning, project-based learning, discovery learning, certain forms of case-based instruction, and student research, so that inquiry learning may be considered an umbrella category that encompasses several other inductive teaching methods.

Problem-based learning (PBL)

Problem-Based Learning (PBL) pedagogy, has been found effective in the development of critical thinking skills and problem solving ability in learners at any level of learning (Gerace & Beatty, 2005; Hmelo-Silver, 2004; Barrett & Moore, 2011). In many contexts where PBL has been applied, it has affected learners positively; it has enhanced students' problem-solving skills, increased their motivation to reflect on learning and also enhanced their self-directed learning skills (Hmelo-Silver, 2004; Barrett & Moore, 2011; Sungur & Tekkaya, 2006). Other key benefits of PBL cited in research literature include fostering critical thinking, conceptual understanding and intrinsic motivation towards becoming self-directed learners (Hmelo-Silver, 2004; Barrett & Moore, 2011).

In addition, the problem solving method has a high motivational value for learners, since school or subject knowledge can be applied to real-life problems (Kagan, 1995; Glasgow, 1996; Dunne and Wragg, 1997). Creative and critical thinking skills can be developed in finding a solution to a problem or discovering the answer by oneself. In this case, the teacher acts as a facilitator. These methods also help learners to think about their thinking to solve problems. Thus, they help to develop the learner's thinking skills, enhance depth of understanding; increase their comprehension level and retention of the learning content because learners are required to work with everyday problems and to apply theory to practice (Njabili, 1995; Brandes & Ginnis, 1996; Slavin, 1994).

According to Prince and Felder (2006), PBL begins when students are confronted with an open-ended, un-structured, authentic (real-world) problem and work in teams to identify learning needs and develop a viable solution, with instructors acting as facilitators rather than primary sources of information. Class time may be devoted to: (a) groups reporting out their progress on previous learning issues and listing their current learning issues and plans of work, (b) mini-lectures giving information on issues being dealt with by all groups, clarifying common difficulties, and suggesting additional learning issues, and (c) whole class discussion. A well designed problem guides students to use course content and methods, illustrates fundamental principles, concepts, and procedures, and perhaps induces the students to infer those things for themselves instead of getting them directly from the instructor; and engages the students in the types of reflection and activities that lead to higher-order learning. Problems may vary significantly in scope, from single-topic single-discipline problems that can be solved in a matter of days to multidisciplinary problems that may take an entire semester to solve.

Project work

Project-based method is another type of inductive instruction where learners can be given a topic to do some studies on. The topic can be chosen by the teacher or by the learners depending on the school subject or the desired topic. This approach is learner-centred as learners would use their own initiative to gather and analyse information and demonstrate their writing skills in the learning process through the project they would do (Katz & Chard, 1990; Henry, 1995; Kagan, 1995; Imasiku, 1999). Project work could be individualized for learners and it could also be in form of a group project, but whichever the case, the aim of the two is the same; to foster better learning and encourage active learner participation. It requires careful planning and evaluation techniques. It is very useful at higher levels of learning (Johnson *et al.*, 1993; Chipeta, 1997; Dunne & Wragg 1997; Engelbrecht, 2000).

Modelling Method

Modelling is another type of constructivist methods that can bring about deep learning inductively. According to Eggen and Kauchak (2001), modelling is an instructional strategy in which the teacher demonstrates a new concept or approach to learning and students learn by observing. Haston (2007) further notes that whenever a teacher demonstrates a concept for a student, that teacher is modelling. Research suggests that modelling is an effective instructional strategy in allowing students to observe the teacher's thought processes. Bandura (1977, 1986) postulated that learning would be exceedingly laborious, not to mention hazardous, if people had to rely solely on the effects of their own actions to inform them of what to do. Modelling engages students and encourages learning. The theory of modelling as argued by Bandura notes that most human behaviour is learned observationally through modelling. A model can provide examples of what is expected of the students in terms of work and/or behaviour. In addition, a teacher can model by using visual, auditory, tactile, and/or kinaesthetic instructional techniques. Modelling can also be used across disciplines including Social Studies and in all year and ability level classrooms.

3.6.2 Collaborative Learning Methods

Brown, *et al.* (1989) as cited in An, *et al.* (2008) asserted that students need to be able to work with and listen to others and develop ways of dealing with complex issues and problems requiring different kinds of expertise. To bring out expected learning outcomes, each person's contribution needs to be respected, and the classroom community as a whole should be able to synthesize diverse views (Bielaczyc & Collins, 1999). An emphasis on collaboration as an essential element

of this process can strengthen group processing skills, subsequently enhancing citizenship in a diverse democracy (Cohen 2001; Dewey, 1902/1966). Within this framework, knowledge cannot simply be transmitted from teacher to student or from individual to individual. Instead, knowledge is developed through the synthesis of social experiences transpiring in the classroom. In other words, the goal of the collaborative learning is not merely “knowledge acquisition” and “participation,” (Doolittle, 2001; Sfard, 1998), but “knowledge building” focusing on knowledge creation (Paavola, Lipponen, & Hakkarainen, 2004).

The terms collaborative and cooperative are often used interchangeably, even though they are considered as two different research fields. In this study, the definition of collaborative learning is adopted from McInnerney and Robert, (2004, p. 205) who defined collaborative learning as a learning method that implies “working in a group of two or more to achieve a common goal, while respecting each individual’s contribution to the whole”.

Numerous studies have shown that learning through collaboration, as compared to competitive or individual learning, usually results in higher achievement, better psychological connections (caring, support, and commitment), greater psychological health, social competence, and self-esteem (Johnson & Johnson, 1989; Johnson, Johnson, & Smith, 1991; Smith, 1995 cited in An, *et al.*, 2008). It has been also argued that incorporating well-planned collaborative activities into online teacher education benefits teachers as well as their students, since higher order thinking skills are more likely to be generated (Schultz, 2003) and to impact the learning process by improving socialization skills, as well as enhancing critical thinking (Jegede, 2002). Other benefits of online collaboration that have been cited include reflection, peer feedback (Ruhleder & Michael, 2000), and the reduction of anxieties in social situations (Gokhale, 1995). The first collaborative method to be discussed is group work.

Group work

Group work is a technique that uses interactions between learners as part of the learning process. Students are divided into groups of three or four depending on the size of the class. The groups are assigned to specific tasks to perform under the supervision of the teacher. Group work gives students the opportunity to work together (Kagan, 1995; Brandes & Ginnis, 1996; Dunne & Wragg, 1997; Cullingford, 1998; Slavin, 1994). Important social skills are developed as well as what is being learnt through the work the group would be doing. The teachers can use this technique to share understanding about an issue through facilitating discussion in groups. The

teacher helps in the process of learning by helping learners to develop skills of finding information, but the learners would also seek help or information from each other. The teacher here takes the role of facilitator either as a participant in the group or as an outsider almost in a consultant's role (Johnson, Johnson & Holubec, 1993; Njabili, 1995; Brandes & Ginnis, 1996; Imasiku, 1999). Group work method is a substantial pillar of learner-centred education, with balancing efficiencies and inefficiencies in preparation and presentation, but there is no question of its potential contribution to more effective learning and more confident learners and teachers if it can be done well. It promotes logical and rational thinking, leading to systematic solutions. (Schmuck & Slavin, 1985; Njabili, 1995; Kagan, 1995; Brandes & Ginnis, 1996; Engelbrecht, 2000).

However, simply assigning students into a group and asking them to work collaboratively will not guarantee that they will collaborate (Kreijns, Kirschner, & Jochems, 2003; Johnson & Johnson, 2004). Johnson & Johnson (2004) specified five basic elements needed for effective group collaboration: (a) positive interdependence, (b) promotive interaction, (c) individual accountability (d) appropriate use of social skills, and (e) group processing as illustrated in Figure 3.6.

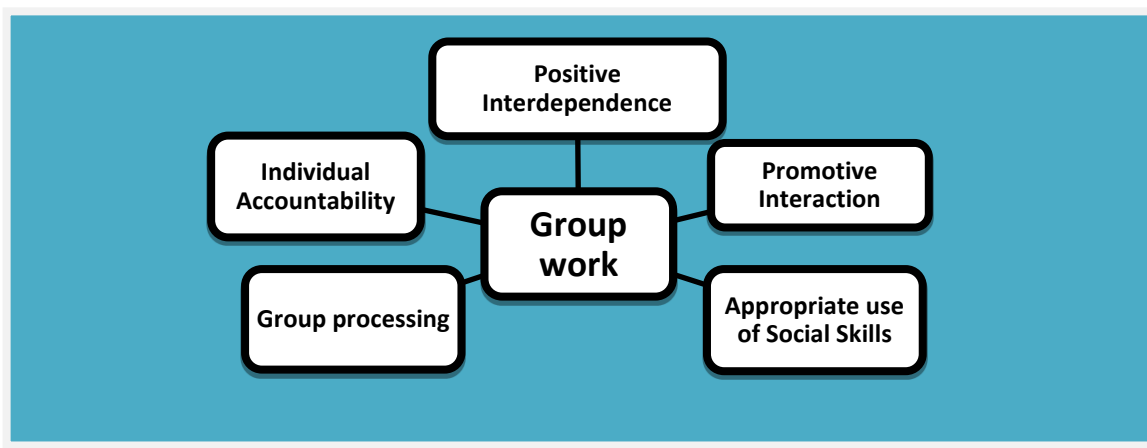


Fig 3.6 Five basic elements needed for effective group collaboration

Positive Interdependence

According to Johnson and Johnson (2004), positive interdependence, which is the heart of effective collaboration, transpires when each member in a group perceives that he or she cannot succeed unless the group does.

Promotive Interaction

This is another element for effective collaboration. This exists when group members act as trustworthy members by acknowledging and challenging each other's ideas and facilitating each other's efforts.

Individual Accountability

To ensure each member's active participation in a group project, individual accountability should be taken into account. Through this, students become accountable for their own learning and for each other's learning (Schmuck & Slavin, 1985; Njabili, 1995; Kagan, 1995; Brandes & Ginnis, 1996; Engelbrecht, 2000). This accountability can be achieved when each group member's performance is assessed.

Appropriate use of Social Skills

Using collaborative learning requires group members to have social skills for trust building within the team, clear communication, and constructive conflict resolution.

Group processing

Group processing includes monitoring of all group members' work to assure the quality of work, facilitating social interaction, and ensuring reciprocal interaction so that group members can collaborate effectively.

Class discussion

Another cardinal and most common collaborative type of learner-centred method used in the teaching and learning is class discussion. According to Larson (1997), class discussion is a structured conversation among participants who present, examine, compare and understand similar and diverse ideas about issues. This method can take place before, during and after the lesson. A class discussion can also be triggered spontaneously at any time by the teacher or the learner by means of stimulating questions. Larson (1997) further states that class discussion encourages student involvement, higher participation and is effective for developing learners' cognitive skills, such as evaluation and synthesis and it is easy to organise, needing less resources. Larson (1997) states that class discussion is an effective way to promote higher level thinking, develop learner attitudes and advance learners' capability for moral questioning. Townsend (1993) stated that genuine classroom discussion which is the exchange of questions and perspectives among all participants seems most likely to nurture expressions of wondering. However, class discussion requires small classes to encourage student involvement, but may be time-consuming. Further, a lot of space and resources are necessary in the teaching/learning process (Johnson *et al.*, 1993; Kagan, 1995; Njabili, 1995; Dunne & Wragg, 1997; Engelbrecht, 2000).

Question and Answer

This method can be used to link what was learnt previously to new information. It can also be used to direct the attention of students to what is being presented as well as arousing interest, thereby stimulating learning (Slavin, 1994). The question and answer method of teaching could be learner to learner and could also be teacher to learner but whichever the case, the aim is to foster active learner participation, encourage interaction and socialization between the teacher and the learners. Questioning monitors learners' learning and encourages their involvement but may cause anxiety for some (Wragg, 1996; Chipeta, 1997; Barnes, 1999; Engelbrecht, 2000).

3.6.3 Experiential learning Methods

“Learning is the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience” (Kolb, 1984, p. 38). Experiential learning in this study is used to refer to the teaching strategy like role play, debate, drama, fieldwork, peer tutoring, simulation, and others where learners learn through reflection on doing. It avails a learner chance to develop knowledge, skills, and values from direct experiences of a learning activity or process within or outside the classroom.

Role play

Role play is one of the learner-centred methods used in teaching and learning. Role playing refers to the changing of one's behaviour to assume a role, either unconsciously to feel a social role, or consciously to act an adopted role. Maloch (1999) states that when learners engage in role play, it helps them to develop their way of thinking and feelings of empathy. Role play helps learners to cope with real life situations which support their social and emotional growth. Ratey (2009) further indicates that it is a vital activity for the learners, stimulating their imagination and enhancing their social development. Role play encourages friendship through cooperation, listening and turn taking. It can improve learners' language skills and help them to understand different points of view, go into the future or the past and travel anywhere in the world and beyond. Thus role play can be easily utilised to illuminate themes across the curriculum (Maloch, 1999).

Debate

Debate requires that learners, mostly two or four, prepare themselves for a topic and present the opposite view. Afterwards, the class discussion/learning discussion can follow. This method increases learners' motivation. Language use and the vocabulary of learners are indirectly

improved. It also leads to the development of the self-image of the learner and the focus in the teaching shifts from the teacher to the learner (Kagan, 1995; Dunne & Wragg, 1997).

Drama

Drama requires impersonation, personification and involvement. It is an ideal methodology for teaching, as the involvement of children in drama means they will empathise with characters in the past and come to defend their actions against the arguments of others. Drama aims to re-create human experience. The pupil-actor is personally affected by the experience and this motivates him or her to know and understand more. Drama mitigates against a simplistic approach to a topic. All points of view are articulated so that situations are no longer viewed in *black and white* terms. Drama-based lessons aim to enable the child to speak or act as their character would have done. Almost any topic, story or event can become the basis of a drama experience for learners (Maloch, 1999). Drama as a learner-centred method has a limitation in the sense that only few learners can participate at a time thereby making it not an inclusive method for all learners.

Fieldwork

The logical extension of bringing part of the world into the classroom is taking the class into the real world. Field trips are useful not only because they give learners first-hand knowledge and enable them to see how a number of skills, processes, etc, blend into a whole, but also because they can be used to provide students with cultural experiences available in no other way. Field trips should be directly related to an ongoing unit of work. Learner involvement during each step of planning a field trip helps generate interest and makes the trips more worthwhile (Dunne & Wragg, 1997; McCombs & Whistler, 1997; Engelbrecht, 2000).

Peer tutoring

Learners learn much about life and school subjects informally from their friends and peers. By realizing this, the teacher can use this trend to improve the formal teaching.

Peer tutoring requires careful planning and monitoring by the teacher. It utilizes differences in student expertise and encourages student involvement. It also fosters cooperation among learners which in turn enhances better performance (Kagan, 1995; Culliford, 1998; Engelbrecht, 2000).

Peer tutoring is effective in producing positive academic and social outcomes for learners.

Simulation

Using the Simulation approach, learners confront a scaled-down approximation of a real-life situation. Simulation allows realistic practice without the expense or the risks otherwise involved. The simulation may involve participant dialogue, manipulation of materials and equipment, or interaction with a computer. Simulations provide practice in specific skills. They produce anxiety for some learners but help learners to actively participate in the teaching and learning process. Simulations can be used for acquisition of information, improvement of new processes, and identification of alternatives in decision-making. Simulations can also build positive values and attitudes in learners (Jones, 1985; Bruce & Marsha, 1996)

3.7 Adoption of Learner-centred pedagogy in Africa and other Developing Countries

Learner-centred education is one of the most prevalent educational notions in contemporary Sub-Saharan Africa. According to Hardman *et al.* (2008) as cited in Mtika and Gates (2010), the theory posits that human beings learn by actively constructing and assimilating knowledge rather than through the passive addition of discrete facts to an existing store of knowledge. This notion is usually accompanied by competency-based discourses and an implied shift in curriculum and assessment policy designed to lessen the importance of examinations and enhance the importance of continuous assessment (Chisholm & Leyendecker, 2008, cited in Mtika & Gates, 2010). This pedagogical renewal to learner-centred education is regarded as an effective answer to the dominance of a transmissive teacher-centred education, which is blamed for leading to rote-learning and stifling critical and creative thinking among pupils (Jessop & Penney, 1998; Rowell, 1995). Felder and Brent (2003) state that learner-centred methods have repeatedly been shown to be superior to the traditional teacher-centred approach to instruction.

As suggested by Weimer (2002), teacher-centred education makes fewer demands upon pupils whereas learner-centred education promotes active learning and requires pupils to play more active roles during teaching and learning experiences. Learner-centred education in the Sub-Saharan Africa and other developing countries has been largely seen as an answer to improve the quality of teaching and learning in line with international discourse couched in the Sustainable Development Goals; The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and The Education for All (EFA). However, learner-centred methods are not intended to diminish the importance of the instructional side of classroom experience but instead; instruction is broadened to include other activities that produce desirable learners' outcomes.

The UNESCO (2005, p. 152) report also identifies classroom pedagogy used by teachers as consistently, “the crucial variable for improving learning outcomes’ and critical in any reform to improve quality”. Research by Scheerens (2000) and Verspoor (2003) as cited in Hardman (2008) further reports that in developing countries, the influence of the school on pupil learning is more important than the effect of home and other external factors compared with developed countries. Hardman (2008, p.56) goes further to suggest that “changing pedagogic practices requires the need for powerful school-based professional development programmes as many teachers are unprepared or underprepared to teach and thus developmentally handicapped at the pre-service phase”. Thus Intervening at the school level and classroom level is seen as being crucial in raising the quality of primary education in Sub-Saharan Africa as ultimately educational quality is obtained through pedagogical processes in the classroom: through the knowledge, skills, dispositions and commitments of the teachers in whose care pupils are entrusted (Craig *et al.*, 1998; Anderson, 2002; Verspoor, 2003 cited in Hardman, 2008, p. 56).

Against this background, managing the quality of classroom interaction is seen as the single most important factor in improving the quality of teaching and learning, particularly in contexts where learning resources and teacher training are limited (Carron & Chau, 1996; Alexander, 2000; Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Farrell, 2002). This is the more reason why in a bid to promote more interactive classroom discourses, the shift in policy towards learner-centred pedagogies has been on the increase supported by empirical evidence and “have been documented and popularised in many developing regions of the world, including Africa, some middle income countries and impoverished groups in more developed areas” (Schweinfurt, 2011, p.426). Consequently, many developing countries have over the last two decades embarked on major curriculum and pedagogical reforms to meet the EFA goal, often with donor involvement. In general, curriculum reforms in education have been from the traditional teacher centred which is blamed for leading to rote learning and stifling critical and creative thinking among pupils to the more practical and activity based learner-centred, active and competency-based education where all learners engage with and construct knowledge in order to experience deep and meaningful learning (Westbrook *et al.*, 2013; Mtika & Gates, 2010; Schweisfurth, 2011).

In Africa, this emphasis on learner-centred pedagogies has been made possible after the adoption of the Education for All (EFA) with the support of the United Nations Education and Scientific Culture Organisation (UNESCO) and the International Institute for Capacity building in Africa (IICBA) which has been committed to enhancing the quality of education in Africa by assisting in

capacity building and promoting learner-centred education (UNESCO, 2011). In this regard and as a way of responding to the learner's needs, the Ministry of Education in Zambia through the various policy guidelines on education has embraced the need for the transformation of the teaching methods from teacher centred to learner centred (MESVTEE, 2013; MOE, 1977, 1996, 2000, 2013).

3.8 Some experiences on the implementation of learner-centred approaches

3.8.1 The Zambian Experience

Literature search on learner-centred discourse in Zambia yielded very limited researches compared to other studies elsewhere in Africa and beyond. Considering the fact that in many respects, the education systems in many African countries share a common story, research on implementation of learner-centred methods in the Zambian classrooms is supplemented by similar research from other African countries and the relatively many researches done on teacher education in Zambia.

Nyimbili¹ et al. (2018) did a study on the use of learner centred techniques in the teaching of English language in selected secondary schools of Lundazi District, Zambia. This was a mixed study involving 99 teacher graduates and utilised focus group discussions and questionnaires. The findings revealed that teachers were not interested in teaching using learner centred techniques citing inadequate teaching and learning material, over enrolment, rushing to cover the whole syllabus and teaching to make children pass examinations. The study however did not provide any discourse analysis of English lessons to appreciate the kind of interactions and practices exhibited in the studied English lessons. Moreover the study focused on English language. This study extends the knowledge on learner-centred education especially on student teacher preparation for knowledge and instructional practice of learner-centred methods of teaching in Social Studies in primary colleges of education.

In addition, a study by Banda et al. (2014) titled, "towards learner centred science lessons in Zambia: an experience of problem solving approach in biology lessons", revealed that the problem-solving approach as a learner-centred approaches was still a problem among science teachers in Zambia. What is key about this study however is that the authors made the observation that "contents of teacher preparation and training as well as the production process of teaching/learning materials have to be reviewed to avoid misconception of teachers" (Banda et al. 2014, p. 91). This revelation justified the need for this study so that classroom instructional

practices of lecturers in colleges of education and how they related to preparing teachers for learner-centred education can be brought to the fore.

Furthermore, a study done by Namangolwa (2013) aimed at getting pupils and teachers' perception of learner-centred methods in the teaching of History in western Zambia concluded that teachers did not frequently use learner-centred methods during the teaching and learning process of History. The study however relied more on views from respondents and no classroom observation was done to document classroom discourse practices regarding learner-centred methods. The scope of Namangolwa's study did not also cover instructional practices in teacher preparation and how it related to implementation of learner-centred methods at college level and so did not provide knowledge on teacher preparation practices in relation to learner-centred education.

3.8.2 Some African Experiences on the implementation of learner-centred approaches

In a qualitative study to explore teachers' perceptions and implementation of learner-centred education involving two Namibian teachers, Amakali (2017) reports inconsistencies in teachers' conception and implementation of learner-centred education. Amakali's study recommends a re-launching of learner-centred education in teacher preparation programmes with a renewed focus on its theoretical assumptions, appropriateness and application in the classroom. Though this study was done based on two teachers who had just graduated from an in-service programme, the study gives an indication that graduate teachers are not fully equipped with the knowledge and skills needed to consistently implement learner-centred philosophy in the classroom. For Zambia, studies exist that seem to support this position (Mulenga, 2015; Banja, 2012; Manchishi & Masaiti, 2013). Though qualitative and based on two in-service teachers in Namibia, this study addresses some of the key questions that form the basis of the current study but does not provide information on student teachers' knowledge of learner-centred education and the extent to which teacher preparation addresses the philosophy of learner-centred education in practice. This study addresses this missing gap and in addition addresses more variables; is wider in terms of participants; adopts mixed methods design approach and will be conducted over a longer period of time.

In their study which mainly addressed the capability of trainee teachers to implement learner-centred practice at one of the teacher education institutions in Malawi, Mtika and Gates (2010) further revealed that appropriation and application of learner-centred education is constrained by various factors. Their findings resonate with the findings from other countries and indicate that progressive pedagogical notions aligned with social constructivism promoted in teacher education

institutions have not resulted in widespread change in classroom practice. The study further recommends that teacher educators and policy makers need to be aware of this and examine relevant ways and possibly adaptations that can be reasonably made to ensure that secondary teaching appropriately benefits from the strength of learner-centred pedagogy.

Mtika and Gates' (2010) study which was a qualitative case study utilising both interviews and lesson observations is similar in focus and approach to this study in that the respondents were student teachers and the focus was on factors which affect the appropriation and application (or lack) of learner-centred education among student teachers. This study used a mixed methods approach to investigate how instructional practices in teacher preparation in colleges of education in Zambia related to implementation of learner-centred pedagogy.

In their investigation of classroom interactions and discourse practices in Nigerian primary schools, Hardman *et al.* (2008) used data from 42 video recorded lessons and 59 teacher questionnaires to identify key issues affecting patterns of teacher–pupil interaction and discourse. The study revealed the prevalence of teacher explanation, recitation and rote in the classroom discourse with little attention being paid to securing pupil understanding. The study recommended more effective school-based training to improve the quality of classroom interaction in Nigerian primary schools. The study furthermore, reported ritualised practice of cued elicitation and 'teacher check', and that lessons were characterised by 98% teacher talk with closed questions as well as factual recall. These findings are not different from those of Ackers and Hardman's (2001) study done in Kenya Primary to explore classroom interaction as a part of national baseline study for Ministry of Education. The study reported that classroom observations of lessons noted a high number of closed, teacher-directed exchanges interrogating pupil's knowledge; very few pupils asked questions, and little higher-order questioning or responding to students was observed.

Vavrus and Barlett (2012) also did a study in upper secondary of Tanzania aimed exploring how Tanzanian secondary teachers understood and implemented Learner-centred teaching methods in the contexts in which they work. The study involved 23 Secondary Schools teachers in six schools in Northern Tanzania and used observations and interviews. Although teachers were positive towards learner-centred education, the study reports that teachers did not encourage higher thinking to allow students to arrive at different conclusions. These findings are not different from those of Vavrus (2009) whose study in lower and upper secondary schools of Tanzania reported that student teachers do not have time and support during training to practice enacting more

constructivist viewpoints and that student teachers by the time of graduation do not fully grasp learner-centred education.

Yet again a study done by Nakabugo et al.(2006) in Ugandan primary schools to investigate possible forms of class organization and teaching styles that are suitable for mediating learning in large classes revealed that group work was dominated by more able peers; factual and rote activities predominated; and that too little time was given to students practicing what was taught. Interviews, structured observations and document analysis was used and the study involved 35 teachers in 20 primary schools. In the same country Uganda, a study by Conway et al. (2012) in lower secondary schools revealed dominance of teacher-led expository pedagogy such as whole-class, lecture, teacher-led demonstration, discussion, individual work, question and answer. There was also teacher confusion over what problem solving was.

This study partly extends the scope of the studies referred to above, by focussing on teacher preparation in instructional practices as a way of extending dialogue on learner-centred education.

3.8.3 Some experiences outside Africa on the implementation of learner-centred approaches

Geisli (2009) further conducted an experimental design study with “pre-test – post-test control group” involving 30 students in the test group and 30 students in the control group randomly selected from the third grade students of Gazi, University Turkey, Faculty of Technical Education, the Program of Furniture Decoration Teaching and Machining Teaching. The aim was to determine the effect of student centred instructional approaches on student success. The tool for data collection was an achievement test developed by the researcher and involved student participants. At the end of the study, the results showed that the success was significantly higher in the group where student centred methods were applied compared to the teacher centred group. This study however was purely quantitative and experimental in nature and was based on an achievement test. The study therefore does not provide empirical evidence from a mixed design approach used in this study and the focus was on the effect of student-centred instructional approaches on student success which is different from the focus of this study; understanding teacher preparation for learner-centred pedagogy in Zambia from the constructions of Social Studies lecturers and student teachers.

In another study conducted by Ahmed and Mahmood (2010) in Pakistan which investigated the effects of three experimental learning conditions on prospective teachers’ learning experience and

achievement in an educational psychology course showed a significant difference in students' achievement. The results of this study which included thirty-two student teachers enrolled in a master's degree program and studied under a traditional instruction model and two cooperative learning models favoured both cooperative learning conditions. It was also reported that cooperative learning enhances prospective teachers' academic achievement as compared to traditional instruction. Further, it was reported that cooperative learning promoted an enriched, enjoyable and interactive learning experience. In addition to achievement, this study also provided evidence on the effect of learner centred approaches in the form of cooperative learning models on quality learning. The study population for Ahmed and Mahmood in (2010) however involved masters' students and employed a purely experimental approach and was done in Psychology courses. The context of this study is however different.

Another study by Al-Humaidi *et al.* (2014) investigated the effect of implementing learner-centred methodologies in a teacher education program. More specifically, the study looked at the impact of exposing prospective teachers to learner-centred methodologies through English as a Foreign Language (EFL) methods course. In turn, the effects of this approach on their school students' performance in English language skills (reading, writing, and speaking) were examined. The study used a quasi-experimental design where the performance of a group of school students using learner centred methodology (experimental group) was compared to the performance of another group of school students using non- learner centred approaches (control group). The study further examined whether significant differences existed between the performance of the two groups that can be attributed to gender and the school environment. The instruments used in this study were the National test designed by the Ministry of Education and an attitude questionnaire that was adapted from the learner-centred methodology program document of the Ministry of Education. Major findings revealed significant differences in the performance of students in the two types of schools in favour of learner-centred schools. This study however was experimental in its design and focussed on the impact of learner-centred approaches on school students' performance in English language skills (reading, writing, and speaking) and not on learner-centred instruction practices in teacher preparation and how they related to preparing teachers for learner-centred education.

Atara, *et al.* (2000) also examined the effectiveness of active learning through the use of several learning activities implemented in two undergraduate programs at the Hong Kong Polytechnic University. Several learning activities were implemented during seminar sessions. The

effectiveness of these activities was investigated using questionnaires and interviews to explore students' attitudes and approaches to learning. There was evidence that the several learning activities which were implemented during seminar sessions helped to create interest in the curriculum and to prepare students for their future careers. The activities used affected the quality of student learning by shaping the way that students studied and meeting desired learning outcomes. Atara, *et al.* (2000) however looked at the effectiveness of active learning and did not investigate the classroom instruction practices of lecturers during teacher preparation and how it related to implementation of learner-centred instructional strategies which this study explored.

Another study by Gravoso and Pasa (2008) used video documentaries that asked students to explore problems associated with farmers. Use of ecologically unsound agricultural techniques were developed and employed in a student-centred class. Their learning outcomes and experiences were compared to a group of students who studied the same topics in a teacher-centred learning environment. Results showed that the improvement of the student-centred group's understanding of the problems was consistently higher than the teacher-centred group. Data on learning experiences also showed that the learner-centred learning environment tended to engage students in knowledge construction, while the teacher-centred environment, in information absorption.

A study by Ant'on (1999) which investigated learner-centred and teacher-centred discourse in interactive exchanges between teachers and learners in the second language (L2) classroom, revealed that learner-centred discourse provides opportunities for negotiation (of form, content, and classroom rules of behaviour), which creates an environment favourable to L2 learning. In contrast, teacher-centred discourse is shown to provide rare opportunities for negotiation. Placing the analysis within the context of the role of discourse in the mediation of cognitive development, a central point in socio-cultural theory, Ant'on's study demonstrated that when learners are engaged in negotiation, language is used to serve the functions of scaffolding (Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976) and to provide effective assistance as learners progress in the zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1978).

Price – Rom and Sainazarov (2010) also conducted a study in Kyrgyzstan in Primary schools to examine active-learning pedagogies as a key aspect of educational reform in the republic of Kyrgyzstan using Case reviews, document Reviews, statistical data, Focus Group Interviews. Teachers reported more knowledge of new active- learning methods in this study but Teachers also had varying interpretation of active-learning methods. In India, Clarke (2003) did a study

meant to understand the effectiveness of the District Primary Education Programme reform and to explore the factors which impact on teachers' attempts at transforming their own pedagogy. The study involved Interviews and observations 234 primary teachers from Karnataka, a southern Indian state. The study findings indicated difficulties in implementing meaningful Learner-Centred Education; integration of Learner-Centred Education into traditional rote methods; students' prior knowledge not brought into learning; and that teachers were not fully engaged with the reform

3.9 Challenges and the complexity of implementing Learner-centred approaches

Although a number of adopters of learner-centred methods have reported student-centred learning approaches to be more enjoyable and leading to improved student learning, questions still remain about the amount of content that can be covered using the approaches (Cooper, *et al.*, 2000; Cooper, 1995; Felder & Brent, 1999; Tien *et al.*, 2001). Macgregor, (2000) also addressed several questions or concerns that teachers have raised about learner-centred methods like smaller group learning.

According to Macgregor (2000), the first question that teachers raised regarding learner-centred methods was about the extent of content coverage. The teachers who were interviewed expressed consistent satisfaction that students in their classes were demonstrating one or more of these indicators of increased learning, much greater conceptual understanding, more complex critical-thinking skills, better class attendance, and greater confidence. However, about two-thirds of teachers who were interviewed said that they covered fewer topics in class when they used group work, but that students learnt and retained more of the '*big ideas*' that they chose to address relative to using lecture formats. Macgregor, *et al.* (2000) study lacks a clear and concise methodological approach in terms of the sample size used and therefore it lacks merit to permit its generalisation. It would appear therefore that content coverage is still high priority for teachers with some adopters of learner-centred learning approaches indicating that they covered less content than when they exclusively lectured.

There are also a number of studies that reveal the complexity of implementing learner-centred approaches. Baeten *et al.* (2008) focused on the relationships between experiences with portfolio assessment, students' approaches to learning and their assessment preferences. The method used for data collection was a pre- and post-test design in an authentic class setting using a questionnaire and an inventory to measure approaches to learning and assessment preferences inventory. The

participants were 138 first-year undergraduate students who were assessed by means of portfolio assessment in a course that combined constructivist design principles and lectures. One of the findings was that deep approaches were not enhanced, and that surface learning increased significantly.

O'Sullivan (2004) also conducted a case study which explored the impact of learner-centred approaches on 145 unqualified primary teachers in Namibia where a learner-centred curriculum was introduced after its independence in 1990. The study recommended the need to develop teachers' skills in the use of approaches, methods and skills for it to yield results and that there was need to consider the realities within which teachers work and experiment with strategies that seek to achieve student learning within the limitations of these realities. Since this study was based on untrained primary teachers, the findings could be justified. The question is whether similar findings would be true on trained primary teachers which this study aims to investigate.

Another study by Gijbels (2009) showed that a deep approach is difficult to incite. The results also indicated that small changes in a learning environment do not necessarily lead to changes in students' approaches to their learning. The researcher concluded that,

One cannot expect that the implementation of innovations will automatically result in positive changes. One has to be wary of how one implements new measures, how different innovations affect each other and how students perceive these measures, (Gijbels, 2009, p.150).

This study showed that there are different factors that determine the positive or negative effects of these approaches. Some of these factors are: learners' perceptions and attitudes and their characteristics; length of time needed; the appropriate instruments used; how student-centred approaches are implemented; teacher professional capacity; available resources; and cultural factors and learner background. Objective five of this investigated the barriers to implementation of learner-centred pedagogical innovation and findings added more knowledge and understanding of the barriers to implementation of learner-centred pedagogical approaches in primary teacher colleges and schools.

Regarding the problems encountered in the implementation of LCE, a study by O'Sullivan (2004) of a 3-year in-service training (INSET) programme on 145 unqualified primary school teachers in Namibia indicated that learner-centred approaches were not implemented in the classrooms because

of deficiencies in teachers' professional capacity i.e. inadequate knowledge at the time of the study, limited resources, cultural factors and learner background. The author encourages teachers to examine the realities within which they work and experiment with strategies that seek to achieve students' learning within the limitations of these realities. In the lesson observations stage of this study, student teachers' innovative abilities to contextualise their lessons within the realities of their locations will be examined.

Furthermore, a study by Barends (2004) in Namibia found that the lack of training and confidence by teachers were some of the obstacles in the implementation of learner-centred methods and suggested the need for further training by teachers in order to understand the difference between learner-centred and teacher-centred education (TCE).

Working with student teachers in Tanzania on a study meant to infuse social constructivism into curriculum, Vavrus (2009) concluded that it might have been better to try to find ways to improve the quality of teacher centred pedagogy rather than simply to replace it. The study concludes by calling for a more 'contingent constructivism', adapted to the material conditions, local traditions and cultural politics of teaching in Africa.

In another study conducted among in-service teachers in South Africa by Brodie, Lelliot and Davis (2002) regarding the challenges with the implementation of learner centred approaches, teachers understood the reform differently and implemented it differently. The study reported teacher's continued dictatorial powers in class with little or no room for democratic principles. Researching on learner-centred approaches in Malawi, Mtika and Gates (2010) also concluded that appropriation and application of learner centred education was problematic.

3.10 Importance of Teachers' Perspectives and Views on the successful implementation of educational policies

Among the factors reported by Gijbels' (2009) study as determining the positive or negative effects of learner-centred approaches were learners' perceptions and attitudes and their characteristics, length of time needed, the appropriate instruments used, how student centred approaches are implemented, teacher professional capacity, available resources, cultural factors and learner background.

Supporting the importance of teachers' perspectives and views in the successful implementation of any education policy, Fraenkel (1992) as cited in Yilmaz (2008, p.3), stated that "detailed

descriptions of teachers' perspectives, beliefs, and, instructional practices are needed if the profession is to assess accurately the nature of instruction and to determine where, when, and how changes might be made and implemented". Yilmaz (2008, p.3), further referred to a number of empirical studies that have showed that teachers' conceptions play a significant role in framing the ways they plan, implement, and evaluate the curriculum (e.g., Clark & Peterson, 1986; Thompson, 1992; Fang, 1996; Andrews & Hatch, 2000; Hancock & Gallard, 2004). All of these research studies show that in order to understand the way teachers teach, we must uncover the structural components of teachers' thoughts. The purpose of this study therefore was to examine how Social Studies lecturers' instructional practices during teacher preparation in primary colleges of education related to the implementation of learner-centred education as advocated in educational policy documents and curriculum.

The preceding review points to the fact that the implementation of policy on learner-centred education has not been consistent in different contexts and that even its interpretations varies across different education systems. Another of challenges also affect the policy implementation on learner-centred education across Africa and the globe.

3.11 Classroom discourses mostly followed by student teachers

When it comes to the implementation of learner-centred methods, Mpofu (2002) found out that although Home Economics teachers held positive attitudes towards LCE and its methods, they still used the lecture method (which is teacher-centred) and only used the learner-centred methods of teaching to give them the opportunity to have control over the teaching and learning process. The study revealed that teachers mostly used the methods of group work, discussions and question and answer while other learner-centred methods were seldomly used. The above observation seem to suggest that some teachers are somehow positive about following a learner-centred approaches to teaching but often lack knowledge and as many authors (Van Graan, 1998; Slabbert & Greenhalgh, 1999; Mpofu, 2002; NIED, 2003) rightly pointed out, in some cases teachers lack motivation to change existing classroom practices. This study was done in Home economics and it would be of interest to find out the experiences and nature of classroom discourses of Social Studies teachers and from the *Zambian* context.

A study done by Hardman (2008) cited in Thompson (2013, p. 50) involving 20 primary schools in 10 Nigerian states reported that classroom discourse was characterised by patterns of rote and recitation where pupils lacked a significant voice in their own learning and that 92% of pupils'

contributions lasted no longer than three words. Similarly, Hardman *et al.* (2003) discovered in their evaluation of the primary literacy hour in England that 70% of the total responses by pupils during literacy lessons were also three words or less. The study concluded that too few opportunities were given to pupils to question or explore ideas in English in primary classrooms during the literacy hour due to a policy-driven need for fast interactive pace and predetermined learning outcomes. The pedagogic features of primary classroom discourse in two different continents were therefore not, in this sense, worlds apart. The point to be picked from this study is that one has to be careful not to judge lessons in developing countries as having been purely teacher-centred and those of western classrooms as being learner-centred. What has actually existed is some sort of hybridisation of discourses involving teacher-centred, learner-centred and teacher-learner centred discourse. Such findings back objective four of this study which sought to examine the pattern of teacher and learner-centred initiated interactions in primary grades.

3.12 The general state of Teacher preparation from literature

Literature on teacher education has continued to claim that teacher quality is one of the most important factors that inhibit the quality of education (Darling-Hammond, 1996; Darling-Hammond and Ball, 1997). A review of policies across 25 countries across the world for instance reveals consistent concerns about preparing teachers and the nature of teacher preparation (OECD, 2005). Teacher preparation programmes have also been criticized for being too often characterized by fragmentation, weak pedagogy, and a lack of articulation among courses and between courses and field experiences, as well as for the absence of a set of organizing themes, shared standards, and clear goals (Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Zeichner, 2006, cited in Hollins, 2011). There has also been concern that most teachers lack either adequate background knowledge in the fields they are asked to teach or sufficient skills that they need to teach (Roofe & Miller, 2013., Zeichner, 2010., Darling-Hammond., 2000, National Research Council, 1996 and 1997, cited in Mulenga, 2015). Evidence from literature also suggests that a wide gap exists between the expected goals of curriculum reforms and actual progress achieved in classrooms, schools and numbers of teachers (Chisholm & Leyendecker, 2008; Dembélé & Lefoka, 2007; World Bank, 2008, cited in Westbrook et al., 2013).

It is in view of the above that Frazee *et al.* (1995, p.80) as cited in Agegnehu (2017, p.41) stated that; “the training of teachers is a crucial factor among others that affect the implementation of active learning, because the teacher is the final decision maker in regard to the actual learning

opportunities provided to the students”. The best designed curriculums as well as the poorest owe ultimate success or failure to the quality of the teachers’ planning and implementation (Agegnehu, 2017). In other words, according to Frazee *et al.* (1995), if teachers lack knowledge of the teaching (active learning) method which requires new roles and commitment, implementation will be seriously hampered.

Connecting theory with practice has therefore been one of the long-standing challenges of preparing new teachers for learner-centred education, yet we know little about how teacher preparation accomplishes this or addresses this substantial problem of learning to teach (Feiman-Nemser *et al.*, 2014; Hammerness, Darling-Hammond, Grossman, Rust, & Shulman, 2005a; Hammerness, 2013; Kennedy, 2006; Zeichner & Conklin, 2005). Against this background, there has been strong suggestion from research advocating for strong coherence between theory and practice in teacher education programmes (Darling-Hammond, 1999, 2006; Grossman, Hammerness, McDonald, & Ronfeldt, 2008; Hammerness, 2006, Howey & Zimpher, 1989; Korthagen, Kessels, Koster, Lagerwerf, & Wubbles, 2001). It is evident therefore that literature has long been pointing to addressing the gap between theory and practice as a key component of any teacher preparation programme (Korthagen *et al.*, 2001; Boyd, Grossman, Lankford, Loeb, & Wyckoff, 2009). This implies that the core ideas and learning opportunities both in course work and in clinical work should be aligned (Darling-Hammond, 1999, 2006; Grossman *et al.*, 2008).

In order to address these concerns, researchers in many countries have invested in examining the features of strong teacher preparation. In this regard, large-scale research studies examining different teacher education programs have begun exploring key features of teacher education such as the type and nature of coursework and clinical practice; the linkages between fieldwork and university coursework; the presence of opportunities to enact the work of real classroom teaching; and the nature of the program’s vision of good teaching (Boyd & Grossman *et al.*, 2006; Grossman *et al.*, 2008; Feiman-Nemser, Tamir, & Hammerness, 2014).

Research has also shown that students learn more from student-centred approaches. According to Eshun *et al.* (2014) as cited in Bekoe *et al.* (2015, p. 54), “teaching Social Studies is stressed to be done in student-centred techniques and strategies. Brainstorming, role playing, simulation, discussion and debate were the major techniques stressed by both Colleges of Education curriculum and the JHS Social Studies syllabus.” Educators therefore propose the use of learner-centred pedagogies and techniques like debate, panel discussion, simulation, drama and role-play,

and oral reports in Social Studies in order to develop positive skills and values in students (Bekoe *et al.*, 2015).

3.13 Teacher Preparation in Zambia

3.13.1 Brief history of Primary Teacher Training since the 1960s in Zambia

In 1962 the new Primary School Curriculum was approved by both the missionaries and the government. Vernacular, Religious Instruction and Arithmetic have on average more periods per week than other subjects. Art and Crafts were allocated three periods per week followed by Arithmetic and Religious instruction. This is the syllabus that was introduced in 1963 and was adopted by the new government of Zambia from 1964.

At the time, primary teacher training colleges offered two courses lasting for two years. This included the lower primary course which was intended for those who were to teach in the lower primary classes (Sub-Standard A to standard II later called grades 1 to 4 after 1966) with a minimum entry qualification of a full primary school certificate and later towards the end of the 1960s a full junior secondary school certificate being preferred.

The second course called the upper primary course was designed to teach from standard III to standard VI later called grades five to seven. Entry qualification for the upper training course was restricted to those with either full junior secondary certificate or Cambridge school certificate. In both courses, teachers were mainly exposed to expository methods of teaching which put the teacher in total control of the learning activities and relegated the pupils to passive recipients of knowledge. The methods student teachers were exposed to, were the same expository methods that they were expected to pass on to the pupils. The department of general education also included in its curriculum the general methods which were discussed without specific reference to any particular subject in the primary curriculum. Meanwhile there was growing concern on whether knowledge should involve recall or memorisation of facts as opposed to understanding of the learning facts and its applicability. Knowledge was viewed as being of no value or use if it could not be applied or utilised in real life situations not just in Social Studies but across all subjects.

3.13.2 Preparation for appropriate pedagogy as a missing link in teacher preparation in Zambia

This renewal for pedagogy towards learner-centred approaches and especially the need for adequate and proper teacher training in both pedagogy and content knowledge is supported by a number of

research works (Mulenga, 2015; Manchishi, 2013; Roofe & Miller, 2013; Zeichner, 2010; Darling-Hammond, 2000; National Research Council, 1996 and 1997). Notably, the push for educational reforms to replace the dominant educational paradigm of didactic instruction where learning is viewed as an information transmission process to education reforms that advocate for students to be actively engaged in learning, constructing understanding and meaning has been progressively at the centre of education reforms in Zambia.

In Zambia, many scholars have raised concern over the shallow nature and sometimes the inappropriateness of teacher preparation in teacher training institutions (Mulenga, 2015; Manchishi, 2013; Chabatama 2012; Manchishi & Masaiti, 2011; Chisimba, 2009). In their qualitative study involving 16 lecturers and 40 final year students under school of education aimed at establishing whether or not peer teaching was still a useful technique in introducing student teachers to practicalities of teaching, Manchishi & Mwanza (2016) revealed that though useful, its implementation was still a challenge and the inconsistencies made it less effective. Though this study focussed on peer teaching and was based on the views and experiences of lecturers and student teachers at the University of Zambia, the findings are an indication that something is not right with how teacher preparation is being done in Zambia more so that the study was conducted at the biggest and first national university of the land. The study however was qualitative, limited to UNZA and did not explore the learner-centred classroom discourses in this study.

Writing about the quality of prospective teachers of history graduating from the University of Zambia, Chabatama (2012, p.14) revealed that, “there seems to be no link between knowledge and skills the graduates from the University of Zambia go with and the school syllabuses”. For this study, the relevance of Chabatama’s findings lies in the fact that the study questions the skills that graduate teachers exhibit after graduation. This study extends Chabatama’s findings by investigating learner-centred practices exhibited by student teachers from colleges of education as a way of contributing to the body of knowledge on learner-centred classroom discourse practices by student teachers in Social Studies lessons.

A study on how responsive the University of Zambia Pre-service teacher education programme was to schools and community conducted in Lusaka, Kafue and Chongwe by Manchishi and Masaiti (2011) highlighted among other issues that UNZA trainee teachers were inadequately prepared in knowledge and skills to adapt to change in the classroom. This revelation is in agreement with Musonda’s (1995) findings that what goes on in universities and colleges is

sometimes not what student teachers meet in schools where they go to teach. The two studies however did not focus on learner-centred instruction practices of student teachers which this study attempted to address.

Matafwali *et al.* (2013) and Nyawa (2007) also revealed that early childhood education teachers did not have the expertise and were not skilled enough to teach all children including those with Special Education Needs. However the studies by Matafwali and Nyawa focussed on early childhood teachers' college preparation to teach special children and did not attempt to establish the nature of classroom instruction practices exhibited by early childhood teachers.

Such concerns about the quality of teachers graduating from teacher training institutions, coupled with concerns about persistent low academic performance of learners, and other system factors have led to the development of various interventions to address these challenges. The national planning documents such as the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper, 2002-2004, the Fifth National Development Plan, 2006-2010 and the Sixth National Development Plan, 2011-2015, on the one hand, and education sector documents, such as the 1996 national education policy, *Educating Our Future*, the Ministry of Education Sector Plan, 2003-2007, the Education Sector National Implementation Framework, 2008-2010 and the Education Sector National Implementation Framework, 2011-2015 (NIF III), on the other hand, all point to the need for improvements in the quality of education.

3.13.3 Linking poor quality of teacher graduates to persistent low academic performance of learners in Zambia

In Zambia, one of the challenges the education system has been facing is the persistent poor performance of learners as evidenced in the grade 5 National Assessment Surveys (2014), the Southern African Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ, 2014) and the National Examinations at grade 7, 9 and 12. Such poor performance cannot be distanced from the quality of the teachers teaching the learners (SACMEQ, 2014; MoGE, 2015; MoSVTE, 2014; MoE, 1996; 1992, 1977). Rooft & Miller, (2013) are of the view that teacher quality is one of the most important factors that inhibit the quality of education adding that most teachers lack either adequate background knowledge in the fields they are asked to teach or sufficient skills that they need to teach (Zeichner, 2010; Darling-Hammond, 2000; National Research Council, 1996 & 1997). The UNESCO Education for All Global Monitoring Report (2005) also reports that among the barriers that learners face in realising their education rights and achieving their full potential is

the inappropriate teaching methods or materials and the poorly trained teachers; policy and curriculum issues.

Government is aware about the persistent low academic performance of learners, the poor quality of teachers graduating from teacher training institutions and other system factors affecting the quality of education delivery in Zambia and this has led to the development of various interventions to address these challenges. For example through the national planning documents such as the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper, 2002-2004; the Fifth National Development Plan, 2006-2010, the Sixth National Development Plan, 2011-2015 and the education sector documents, such as the 1996 National Education Policy, Educating Our Future, the Ministry of Education Sector Plan, 2003-2007, the Education Sector National Implementation Framework, 2008-2010 and the Education Sector National Implementation Framework, 2011-2015 (NIF III), government has committed itself to improving the quality of education. Studies into the relation between teacher quality and pupil achievement have also presented evidence that student achievement is affected by the quality of their teachers (Hanushek, 1971; Murnane, 1975; Armor, *et al.*, 1975; Park & Hannum, 2002; Uribe *et al.*, 2003; Rivkin *et al.*, 2003, Aaronson *et al.*, 2003).

As a way to address the quality of teacher graduates and persistent low academic performance of learners in Zambia, the Ministry Of Education through the Department of Teacher Education and Specialised Services has from time to time revised the Primary Teachers' Curriculum for colleges of education. One issue that has prominently been emphasised in various teacher education curriculum reviews is the need for lecturers and tutors to employ a variety of interactive teaching methods, which are learner centred in nature. For example, the revised Primary Teachers' Diploma Syllabus of 2014 which was affected in 2015 clearly recommends that:

Lecturers and tutors should employ a variety of interactive teaching methods, which are learner centred in nature. This would enable the teacher trainees to experience such methods while in college which they are expected to use when teaching young children in primary schools. These teaching strategies should be applied selectively to ensure the development of knowledge, skills and values in topics through subjective learning (Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education, 2014. P. 2)

The revised Primary Teachers Diploma Curriculum of 2015 was also specially designed in such a way that its content and pedagogy reflect the education aspiration of the school curriculum at

primary school level as well as “allowing trainee teachers to be adequately exposed not only to the subject content but also how to deliver it to their prospective learners while still in college” (MESVTEE, 2014, p. 1). According to the MESVTEE, (2014, p.2),

Colleges of education are ... urged to ensure that students acquire the required pedagogical skills through micro, macro and peer teaching sessions in respective study areas while in college and that student teachers should spend more time acquiring teaching skills than receiving additional content in their teaching subjects during training. Assessment practices are also expected to focus on evaluating how much students have acquired in terms of pedagogical knowledge and skills and that colleges should be satisfied with the skills students would have acquired before going for their first School Experience (or Teaching Practice).

Government also recognises the competence, commitment and resourcefulness of teachers as crucial in the educational and personal well-being of the children in schools (MoE, 1996). In this respect, the teacher is expected to have good command of subject knowledge and be resourceful in translating his or her subject knowledge and skills into effective learning experiences for the learners (MoE, 1977). Teachers are therefore key stakeholders in the success of any education system world over and it can be argued that the quality delivery of any education system heavily depends on the quality of its teachers.

In underscoring the importance of trainee teachers being equipped with pedagogical content knowledge during their training, Darling-Hammond (1999, p.14) stated that:

... if teachers need to be able to ensure successful learning for pupils who learn in different ways and encounter a variety of difficulties, then teachers need to be diagnosticians and planners who know a great deal about the teaching and learning process and have a repertoire of tools at their disposal.

Further highlighting the importance of student teachers being equipped with pedagogical content knowledge during their training, Darling-Hammond (1999, p.14) notes that:

If teachers are viewed primarily as purveyors of information for pupils, one could argue that they need little more than basic content knowledge and the ability to string together comprehensible lectures in order to do an adequate job. For this kind of teaching, it is easy to believe that a liberal arts education could be sufficient

preparation. But if teachers need to be able to ensure successful learning for pupils who learn in different ways and encounter a variety of difficulties, then teachers need to be diagnosticians and planners who know a great deal about the teaching and learning process and have a repertoire of tools at their disposal.

In fact, teachers' lack of either adequate background knowledge in the fields they are asked to teach or sufficient skills that they need to teach has been given as one of the reasons for the persistent poor performance of learners, (Mbozi, 2012; Grade 5 National Assessment Surveys, 2015; the Southern African Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ), 2015; and Grade Seven Examinations Report (MoSVTE, 2014).

Shulman (1987) who is considered by educationist as the architect of the Pedagogical Content Knowledge concept also notes that learning to become a teacher involves complex acquisition of certain skills and knowledge types relating to the content area of the subject (s) that one is to teach and the acquisition of knowledge and skills relating to classroom techniques and procedures of teaching a subject. Hattie (1999, p.21) even goes further to quantify in percentage terms, teachers' impact on learners' performance by stating that;

The quality of teaching has been identified as potentially the largest single schooling system influence on student achievement, accounting for between 16 and 60 percent of the differences in student achievement in schooling. He adds that...it is what teachers know, do, and care about which is very powerful in this learning equation and it is the one source of variance that can be enhanced with the greatest potential of success.

3.14 Insights on African perspectives on the quality of teacher preparation

In his study that investigated some practical issues about teacher preparation in Botswana, Lecha (1999) revealed that in terms of teaching methodology, the common criticism is that the initial training of teachers is dry, inadequate, and removed from the practical realities of the school situation. In the same study, Lecha (1999) further revealed that the programme of teacher preparation at college in Botswana is not just shallow in the nature of instruction especially in providing practical experience, but is also not ideal. The study argues that even though simulation exercises were a useful part of teacher preparation, such simulation exercises still lacked the value of real life teaching experience. Lecha's findings in his study is very critical to this study because

by implication, the study suggests that it is not only the school teaching experience that is shallow but also the instructions that are received from the teacher training institutions in Botswana before entering the classroom. As to whether these revelations apply to Zambia, this study will try and respond to that.

Studies have also shown that new teachers have incomplete or superficial levels of pedagogical content knowledge; may not have a coherent framework or perspective from which to present information; find it difficult to articulate the relationships between pedagogical ideas and subject matter concepts; have major concerns about pedagogical content knowledge, and struggle with how to transform and represent the concepts and ideas in ways that make sense to the specific students they are teaching (Gess-Newsome & Lederman, 1993; Carpenter, Fannema et al., 1988; Feiman-Nemser & Parker, 1990). Since such studies were done outside Zambia, It would be interesting to see if findings from this study will be consistent with these revelations.

3.15 Overview of key post-independence legal and policy documents anchoring education development and learner-centred education in Zambia

Since independence in 1964, the Ministry of Education has undertaken three major education policy reforms in its quest to improve the quality of education provided to learners at different levels. The Education Act of 1966 was meant to overhaul the whole system in order to meet the aspirations of an independent African country (The Zambia Curriculum Education Framework, 2013). The Act paved way to some reforms in Primary and Secondary education which were aimed at standardising and diversifying the curriculum, besides relating the content to the needs of the learners. At the Secondary School level, for example, new topics of Modern Mathematics were introduced, and in Science a course based on the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) Scheme was adapted where Science was required to be taught with experiments. There was also the expansion of Commercial Studies and Agricultural Science in the schools that previously followed a strictly non vocational curriculum (The Zambia Curriculum Education Framework, 2013).

At the primary school level, the government introduced English Language as a Medium of Instruction from Grades 1 to 7. There was also the integration of some learning areas such as Homecraft, Needlework and Hospitality as Home Economics; Carpentry and Joinery, Metal Work, Leather Work and Bricklaying to Industrial Arts; while Agricultural Science and Nature Studies

became General Science. In addition, History and Geography were integrated and offered as Social Studies.

3.15.1 The Educational Reform of 1977

This was the first comprehensive reform in the education system, which aimed at making education an instrument for personal and national development. The main features of this reform were the introduction of the Basic and High School education system and the focus on skills orientation in Basic and High Schools. Through the Educational Reform of 1977;

The Primary School and part of the Junior Secondary School Education (Forms 1 and 2) became Basic School Education while the Senior Secondary Education and part of the Junior Secondary School Education (Form 3) became High School Education. Basic School Education was to be completed in nine years – Grades 1 to 9; whereas High School Education became a three year course - Grades 10 to 12 (The Zambia Curriculum Education Framework, 2013, P. 3).

The same Educational Reform of 1977 further brought changes at the Teacher Education level where the Zambia Primary Teacher’s Course was renamed Zambia Basic Education Teacher’s Course in order to link it to the school course. The importance of teaching survival and communication skills underpinned the Basic School Education curriculum. Practical subjects such as Industrial Arts and Home Economics and Hospitality were also revamped and communicative methodology became the main feature in the teaching and learning process. The Act also paved the way for a number of curriculum reforms, for example, the introduction of English as the language of instruction from Grade One to Tertiary (The Zambia Curriculum Education Framework, 2013).

Further, the Educational Reform of 1977 recognised teachers as a key human resource in the entire educational system and programme of the country. The policy entrusted teachers with the responsibility of communicating desirable knowledge in a manner that could help learners to develop both the desire and ability to learn. “The essential competencies required in every teacher are mastery of the material that is to be taught and skill in communicating that material to the pupils” (MoE, p. 108). Teachers are therefore expected to possess subject matter knowledge for teaching and the skill to effectively establish the learning needs of the learners and assess their educational progress. It is expected that this would help learners to realise their hidden potential and eventually achieve them. The 1977 Educational Reform also documented that “The curriculum

should concentrate on enabling trainee teachers to understand the objectives of the school curricula and the underlying principle of learning in the choice and use of teaching materials”, (MoE, 1977).

3.15.2 Focus on Learning of 1992

The declining economy in the 1980s had a negative effect on the provision of social services including education. The proportion of public funds devoted to education fell from 13.8 percent in 1981-85 to 9.8 percent in 1987-91 (MoE, 1992, p.v). This severe drop occurred against a system that was still expanding numerically. The effects of the drop in education related expenditures was worsened by the large proportion that needed to go towards personal emoluments; increasing expenditure on boarding and other student welfare; the disproportionately high spending on university students compared with primary students; and a significant reduction in the share of education budget within the primary sub-sector ((MoE, 1992) . The effects of decreased funding to education resulted in all government institutions of learning experiencing serious inadequate resources of all kinds, including materials to support the curriculum. Against this background, in 1990, Zambia attended the World Conference on Education for All, and in 1991 a National Conference on Education for All was held in Zambia. The proposals and working strategies aimed at improving education delivery were drafted at the conference and compiled as Focus on Learning. The document was used to lobby Government and Cooperating Partners to consider allocating enough resources to the education sector in order to improve the quality and quantity of education in Basic Schools. Focus on Learning of 1992 therefore emphasised the need for the mobilisation of resources for the development of schools.

3.15.3 Educating Our Future of 1996

The Zambian Education Curriculum Framework adheres to the National Policy on Education, Educating Our Future (1996). It was developed according to the aims of education outlined in this Education Policy Document. The *Educating Our Future* Policy document stresses the importance of education for all children in primary, secondary and tertiary educational institutions. Through this National Policy on Education, the government views quality education as emanating from maximising the efforts of those responsible for the education of learners at all levels of the education system so that learning institutions from pre-schools all the way up to the university become places of effective teaching and learning (MOE, 1996).

3.15.4 From ZBEC to ZATEC in 2000

Based on the national policy on education, *Educating Our Future* of 1996, the Teacher Education Department reformed the Zambia Basic Education Teacher's Course to Zambia Teacher Education Course (ZATEC) and this followed a change in the teacher education curriculum. The Zambia Teacher Education Course (ZATEC) was established for the purpose of doubling the teacher output from existing government primary colleges of education. To accomplish this goal the residential programme was reduced from two years to one in college and the second year was reserved for practicals in which student teachers were required to teach in schools under supervision. However, the growth in the number of teachers was insufficient to keep up with the growth of enrolment. The immediate benefit of the ZATEC programme was that;

The total number of teacher graduates increased from 1,850 in 1998 to 3,815 in 2002. The total number of teachers in basic schools grew from 37,000 in 2000 to 50,000 in 2005. In 2007 the number increased to 57,000 (Phiri, 2014, p. 216)

The other argument for the change from the Zambia Basic Education Teacher's Course (ZBEC) to ZATEC was that ZBEC consisted of a large number of separate subjects with little links. It was felt that these subjects competed amongst each other creating both superficiality and overcrowding. It was argued under ZATEC that children do not view their life and their experience in neatly compartmentalised segments but rather holistic with no boundaries. In view of this, a concept of Study Areas in which the subjects were grouped according to clearly definable relationships among them was adopted under ZATEC. Consequently, twelve (12) traditional subjects that ZBEC offered; English, Mathematics, Science, Home Economics and Hospitality, Physical Education, Music, Creative Activities, Industrial Arts, Social Studies, Spiritual and Moral Education, and Zambian Languages were integrated into six (6) study areas namely Literacy and Languages, Education, Mathematics and Science, Expressive Arts, Technology Studies and Social, Spiritual and Moral Education).

The introduction of the ZATEC however, may have solved the deficit in the number of teachers but had its own challenges. Firstly, ZATEC was a fast track programme which was not meant to last. Secondly, it compromised quality in teacher training because with the introduction of ZATEC the concept of teaching student teachers in demonstration schools ended. In other words, the partnership between the colleges and Demonstration schools ceased to exist. Without these schools

of teachers, training was done in a vacuum because colleges did not link what they taught to what was happening in schools (Phiri, 2014).

3.16 Linking the school curriculum to teacher education reform

In the same year, 2000, when the Zambia Basic Education Teacher's Course (ZBEC) was changed to Zambia Teacher Education Course (ZATEC), the Curriculum Development Centre (CDC) also embarked on the school curriculum review starting with the Lower and Middle Basic Education (Grades 1 – 7). The purpose of the review was to link the school curriculum to teacher education. Under this review, the desired learner, the teacher-educator and the teaching-learning outcomes were all redefined in order to make education relevant and responsive to the individual and society. The review also emphasised the need for practical subjects to be given prominence in relation to academic subjects.

3.17 Zambia Education Curriculum Framework 2013

The vision of the revised Zambia education curriculum framework of 2013 is that it should make a real difference to learners both in school and in their lives. This vision is summarized in figure 3.1. This revised curriculum emphasises that this vision should be borne in mind by teachers and teacher educators in all of their interactions with learners so that they can ensure they contribute to the achievement of the vision for the nation in everything they do. The vision of the revised 2013 education curriculum is to produce learners who are active participants in transforming society as leaders; who are creative, innovative and productive, who are active members of their families and communities and as citizens of Zambia and the world; who are active in life-long Learning; and who are active participants in learning and living with others. This vision is line with fundamental curriculum goal of social studies; to help students become responsible, critical, reflective, and active citizens who can make informed and reasoned decisions about the societal issues confronting the local, state, and global community respectively

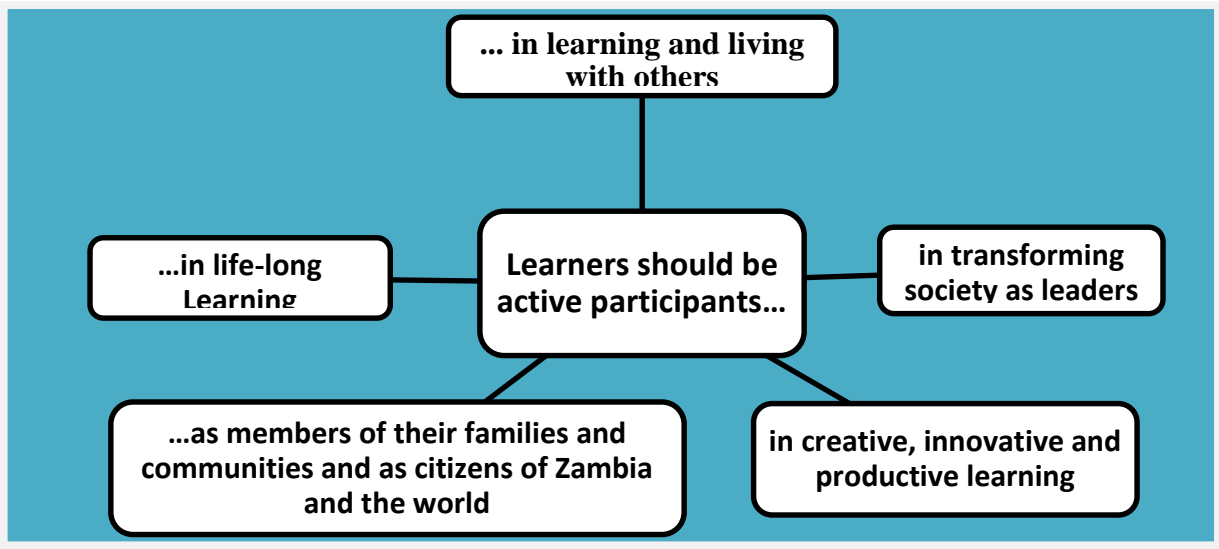


Figure. 3.1 The Vision of revised 2013 education curriculum

Figure 3.2 shows the components of the curriculum that were developed and that informed the curriculum design. As figure 3.2 shows, the key step in ensuring that the aims of the curriculum are met is the key role of teachers in applying appropriate pedagogical approaches.

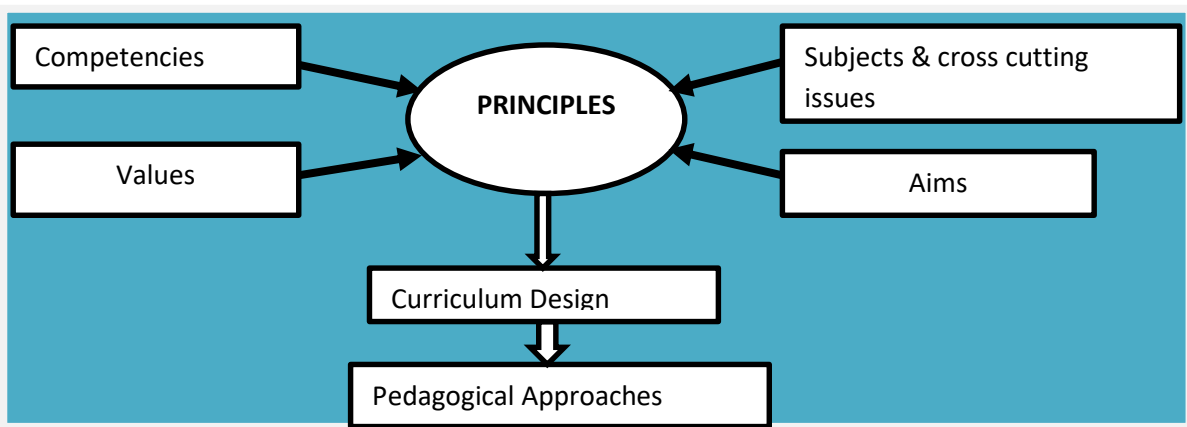


Figure. 3.2 achieving the vision

When it comes to competencies that the education curriculum aspires to develop in learners, six competencies have been identified as key (Figure 3.3). These include developing in learners, critical thinking and problem solving skills, values of cooperation among themselves and within the community in which they live, Creativity and Innovativeness as survival skills in the utilisation of resources, Entrepreneurial skills for them to grow into entrepreneurs, Self-management, and effective communication.



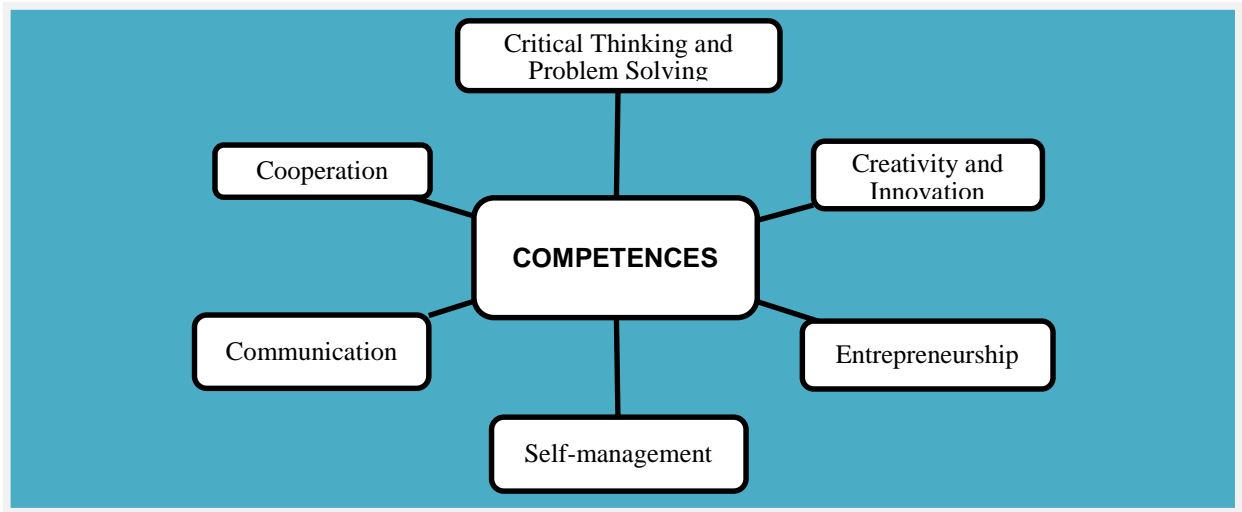


Figure. 3.3 The Competences

On the other hand, the curriculum principles included in the revised 2013 curriculum framework were developed taking into account the direction and the parameters set by the aims, values, competences and the subjects and cross-cutting issues. The principles are represented in Figure 3.4

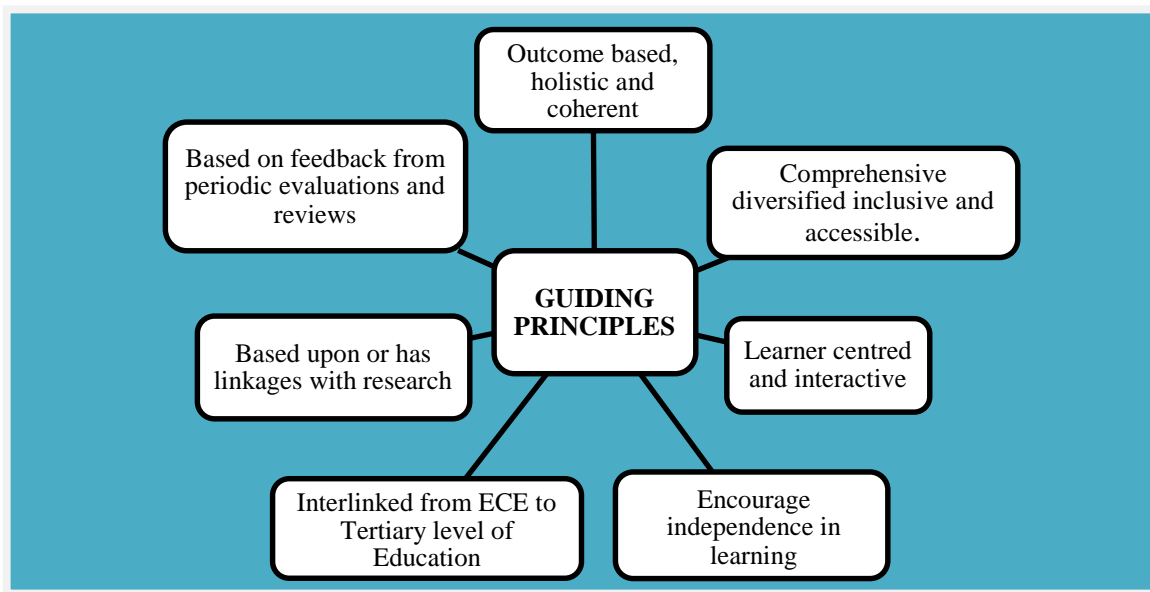


Figure.

3.4 The Principles

3.18 Pedagogical Approaches under the revised 2013 education curriculum framework

Under the revised 2013 Zambia Education Curriculum Framework, one of the guiding principles is that learner-centred and interactive learning should form the centre of classroom pedagogical approach. The curriculum establishes very clearly that learners are at the heart of the revised

curriculum. That under learner-centred approaches, teachers and teacher educators are required to plan, prepare and provide high quality learner-centred learning experiences and to use a variety of strategies that actively engage every learner. These learning experiences must develop competences and knowledge in an environment in which learners both become increasingly independent and draw on teacher support to ensure they make good progress. The argument is that learning gained in this way is deep and serves learners well, as individuals, as members of their communities and in their adult lives. The proposed pedagogical approaches and corresponding characteristics have been presented in Appendix 8.

For the sake of this study, these pedagogical approaches have been grouped into three, namely; *Inductive methods*, *Collaborative methods*, and those *experiential learning* methods as presented in Table 3.1. Experiential learning, self-directed learning, discovery learning, inquiry training, problem-based learning, and reflective practice are examples of constructivist learning models (Gillani, 2003; McLeod 2003; Slavin, 2000).

Table 3.1 Grouping of pedagogical approaches for this study

Inductive methods	Inquiry
	Problem-based
	Project-based
	Modelling
Collaborative or cooperative methods	Pair work
	Group work
	Whole class discussion
Experiential Learning methods	Role play
	Debate
	Field Trips

In terms of how the three groupings of pedagogical approaches above are related to Bloom's Taxonomy, Figure 3.5 illustrates the cognitive domains addressed by *Inductive*, *Collaborative*, and *experiential learning* methods. The pedagogical approaches are therefore meant to engage learners in Higher Order Thinking, Deep Learning and Competences as reflected in Bloom's Taxonomy Pyramid (Figure 3.5).

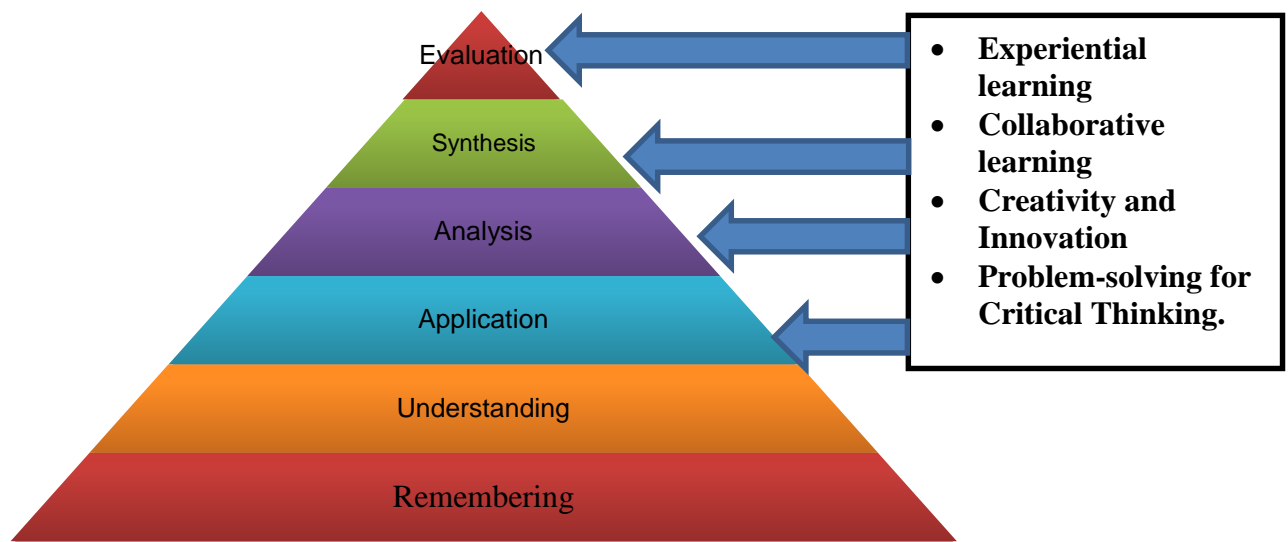


Figure. 3.5 Bloom's Taxonomy for Deeper Learning

3.19 Type of Pedagogical Interactions in a Classroom

3.19.1 Teacher-initiated interactions

In analyses of classroom discourse, one of the first things that stand out is how teacher-student interactions differ from ordinary conversations, particularly in terms of turn-taking (Shepherd, 2010). Although in both situations, generally only one speaker holds the floor at a time, in conversations the number of participants tends to equal the number of individuals (Sacks *et al.*, 1974, cited in Shepherd, 2010). In the classroom, on the other hand, while there may be as many as two dozen or more individuals, there are essentially only two participants: the teacher and the class (Payne & Hustler, 1980; Lerner, 1995; Sahlström, 2002; cited in Shepherd, 2010). Thus, the teacher speaks to the class as a single, collective partner, and the class (most often represented by one student) speaks to the teacher.

Another difference between classroom interactions and ordinary conversations is how participants get the floor to speak. In a conversation, any participant can potentially gain the floor at the end of any other participant's turn (i.e., at a transition relevance place or TRP) either by being selected by that participant or, if the participant who had the floor did not select anyone, by beginning to speak before anyone else does, i.e., by self-selecting (Sacks *et al.*, 1974). In classrooms, by contrast, the floor is controlled by teachers, even when they allocate it (temporarily) to students (McHoul 1978). As Cazden (1988, p.54) puts it, "teachers have the right to speak at any time and to any person; they can fill any silence or interrupt any speaker." Thus, it is from their teachers that students gain the right (and, in some cases, the obligation) to speak in class. With renewed

emphasis on learner-centred education, it would be good to find out how student teacher initiated classroom interactions promote learner-centred learning.

3.18.1.1 Floor allocation methods and their adjacency-pair structure

Mehan (1979, pp.84-95) identifies three ways in which teachers give students the floor to respond to questions and other cues—individual nominations, invitations to bid, and invitations to reply all of which can be usefully described in terms of adjacency pairs (Schegloff, 1968; Goffman, 1971; Schegloff & Sacks, 1973; Levinson, 1983). These are Individual nominations, invitations to bid, and invitations to reply.

Individual nominations involve selecting a specific student either by name or by nonverbal means such as pointing, nodding, or eye contact to respond to a question or other cue. Invitations to bid solicit students to make themselves known if they are able and willing to respond, after which the teacher nominates one of them. Lastly, invitations to reply involve the teacher's opening the floor for any contextually relevant response, allowing students to speak without the need to be selected, (Shepherd, 2010, p.50).

Both individual nominations and invitations to bid end with the teacher nominating an individual student; the crucial difference lies in whether that student bid.

Individual nominations and the single adjacency pair

Individual nominations consist of a single adjacency pair. In the first pair part, the teacher extends a response opportunity to a specific student (identified by name or by nonverbal means such as pointing, nodding, or eye contact), and in the second pair part the selected student responds. Consider the *single adjacency pair 1* below.

- | | | |
|-----|--------------------|-------------------------|
| (1) | Teacher: | What time is it, Faith? |
| | Faith (Pseudonym): | Three o'clock. |

In this case of a *single adjacency pair*, the teacher extends a response opportunity to Faith, and Faith responds.

Invitations to bid and the two adjacency pair

Invitations to bid are similar, but consist of *two adjacency pairs*. In the first part of the first adjacency pair, the teacher extends a response opportunity but, rather than nominating a student,

solicits students to make themselves known by raising a hand quietly if they are able and willing to respond (Sahlström, 2002). In the second part of the first adjacency pair, one or more students bid to respond. The second adjacency pair then resembles an individual nomination—in the first pair part, the teacher selects one of the bidding students, and in the second pair part, the selected student responds. The example in (2) below illustrates how this two adjacency pairs under invitation to bid works out:

- (2) Teacher: Who can tell me the three arms of government?
Students: [Raise hands]
Teacher: *Faith*?
Faith: Executive, Judiciary and Legislature.

In short under the Invitations to bid, the teacher extends a response opportunity, and students bid to respond by raising hands. Then, the teacher selects *Faith* from among the bidding students, and *Faith* responds.

Invitations to reply and the single adjacency pair

Invitations to reply, like individual nominations, consist of a single adjacency pair; however, they forgo the nomination process, allowing one or more students to speak without the need to be selected. In the first pair part, the teacher extends a response opportunity and opens the floor for any contextually relevant response, and in the second pair part one or more students call out their responses. This is illustrated in example 3 below:

- (3) Teacher: Is Faith right? Is it Executive, Judiciary and Legislature?
Students: Yes!

Thus, the teacher extends a response opportunity, and students call out the response in chorus. Student contributions made in violation of these turn-allocation procedures are typically ignored, which serves as a “mild sanction” (Mehan, 1979, p. 111) and effectively strikes the unauthorized material from the official record (Mercer, 1992). Alternatively, the teacher may reprimand the offending student (Lemke, 1990, p. 70) or even individually nominate the student and insist that the contribution be repeated as a way of reaffirming both the rule and the teacher’s authority to allocate the floor (Lemke, 1990, p. 10).

3.19.2 Learner-initiated interactions

Essentially there are two discourse strategies that students can use to initiate interactions with teachers: *bidding to speak and calling out*. A bid to speak has been described as a student raising a hand without the teacher having asked a question (Lemke, 1990, p.29). However, students in the classroom sometimes raise hands in anticipation of an imminent invitation to bid, particularly once the teacher has asked one or more other questions especially in an ongoing teacher-led discussion. In order to avoid over counting, the more conservative definition of bid to speak discourse strategy as provided by Shepherd (2010) was adapted instead.

Bid to speak – An unsolicited student hand-raise occurring outside of any teacher led discussion.

In defining *calling out*, it is essential to distinguish called-out utterances from audible bids to respond and from responses to invitations to reply discussed above under teacher-initiated interactions.

Audible bid to respond – A student vocalization, made in response to an invitation to bid, whose aim is not to provide a response, but to seek nomination.

With this understanding of audible bids to answer (and the discussion of invitations to reply above) calling out is defined for the purpose of this study as follows:

Calling out – Directing an utterance toward the teacher without having been nominated, except as an audible bid to respond or in response to an invitation to reply. It also excludes student-student utterances.

3.19.3 The classroom learning environment

That classroom is also taken into consideration as an important element of the nature of classroom instructional practice because both the teacher and the learner need a physical environment (classroom) that is conducive to learning. According to Kyriacou (1997, p.111), “An effective classroom climate is one in which the teacher’s authority to organise and manage learning activities is accepted by the pupils; there is mutual respect and good rapport and the atmosphere is one of purposefulness and confidence in learning.” The context of a classroom in this study is described in terms of seating arrangements, number of learners present in class, facilities, and

resources available. Table 3.2 below provides a summary of the descriptions given above that were used in the discourse analysis of lessons during classroom observation.

Table 3.2 Nature of classroom instructional practice for learner-centredness

Attributes	Aspects of learner-centred learning
Teacher-initiated Interactions.	Individual Nominations
	Invitations to Bid
	Invitations to reply
Learner-initiated interactions	Bidding to speak
	Calling out
Activities focussing on Learners	Students presented with challenges or solve problems
	Students involved in pair or small group interactions, discuss, explain, debate, brainstorm, e.t.c
	Students participate in assessment activities
Classroom Learning Environment	Classroom Seating arrangement.
	Number of learners present in class
	Adequacy of space.
	Appropriate resources that stimulate learners' interest.

3.20 Linking the revised 2013 Education Curriculum Framework to the Teacher Education Curriculum Framework of 2014

One of the main focus areas of the 2013 curriculum framework was the creation of meaningful curriculum linkages between the different levels of education as well as a review of the teaching methodologies so that they reflect learner-centred education. The introduction of the new Education Curriculum Framework of 2013 also gave rise to the need to review the Teacher Education Curriculum Framework (TECF) for all colleges. The aim was to provide students of Teacher Education with an opportunity to acquire the necessary key competences, skills, values and positive attitudes that are useful in facilitating the learning of the young learners (MoSVTE, 2014). The revised Primary Teachers Diploma Curriculum (PTDC) has been specially designed in such a way that its Content and Pedagogy reflect the education aspiration of the school curriculum at primary school level. It is also meant to “allow trainee teachers to be adequately exposed not only to the school content but also how to deliver it to their prospective learners while still in college” (MoSVTE, 2014, p. 1).

Furthermore and in order to implement the Primary Teachers' Diploma Curriculum (PTD) course of study effectively, lecturers in colleges of education are required to understand the implication of the new Education Curriculum Framework of 2013 for Teacher Education so that they can facilitate effective acquisition of necessary knowledge and skills required for its effective

implementation to their student teachers (MoSVTE, 2014). It is hoped that this approach would strengthen the teacher training process and enable trainee teachers implement the newly introduced School Curriculum effectively once deployed in primary schools. Ultimately, it is hoped that once this adjusted approach to teacher training is implanted, the nation will most likely be headed for production of quality teachers that will enhance learner performance at primary school level (MoSVTE, 2014). As a result, lecturers in primary teacher colleges are urged to intensify on their own capacity development to ably handle the new approach of teacher preparation which emphasises on equipping student teachers with both Content and Pedagogical Know-how that is tailored towards empowering students with skills to develop in learners (pupils) the knowledge, skills and values reflected in the grades 1-7 syllabuses.

The idea behind the preceding curriculum shift and efforts in teacher education by government is to bridge the observed gap between the college curriculum and the school curriculum and to stop preparing teachers in isolation of the realities in schools. Therefore adequate teacher training in both content areas of the subject and pedagogical content knowledge in order that pre-service teacher graduates from colleges can effectively teach in schools has been at the centre of teacher education reforms in Zambia for a long time now.

3.20.1 Policy direction on classroom pedagogical instruction in Zambia.

In Zambia, emphasis on learner-centred pedagogies has been adopted in the national policy on education, Education Our Future (1996) and the 2013 revised curriculum as a response to the Education for All (EFA) goals supported by the United Nations Education and Scientific Culture Organisation (UNESCO) and the International Institute for Capacity building in Africa (IICBA) that have committed to enhancing the quality of education in Africa by assisting in capacity building and promoting learner-centred education. Furthermore, both the Primary Teacher Education Curriculum and the Primary School Curriculum advocate for the use of learner-centred techniques in lesson delivery.

The emphasis of the revised curriculum is on teaching being eclectic and to include various approaches such as question and answer, class discussions, individual work, pair work, group work, role playing of different situations and class presentations among other learner-centred methods (MOE, 2013, p.06).

The 2013 revised education curriculum in Zambia outlines methods which focus on the learners and which take into consideration the potentialities and capabilities of individual learners. In this regard, the national Educating Our Future Policy Document (1996) states that:

Through the inspectorate, teacher training colleges, resource centres and school-based activities, the Ministry of Education (MOE), will promote a variety of teaching strategies with focus on stimulating learning through inquiry, guided-discovery, problem solving, application, and similar activity-based teaching and learning method (MOE, 1996, p.47).

The same document (1996) further emphasises that the child should be at the centre of the entire education process which exists specially for the sake of the child:

Each learner is unique with their own individuality and personality, fashioned in unique family and community backgrounds that are themselves unique. As such this contributes a rich diversity to the entire education enterprise which should seek to cultivate the qualities and potentialities of each learner, without trying to mould all children according to the same pattern (MOE, 1996, p.28).

Based on this policy shift in pedagogical approach, a wide range of teaching and learning strategies that promote active pupil participation and class interaction, in particular methods which stimulate learning through discussions, brainstorming, research, drama, role play, theatre, reflection, debate, investigation, experiment, project work, field work, demonstration, inquiry, problem-solving, application and activity-based teaching and learning methods in line with learner-centred approaches to teaching and learning have been encouraged at all levels of education rather than merely reproducing from memory. For social studies, the educational reform movement has focused on constructivist and inquiry-oriented approaches to teaching (Crocco & Marino, 2017).

3.21 Chapter summary

This chapter has provided the theoretical background and basis of the study. Constructivism theory especially social constructivism informed by the works Vigotsky and Cognitive Constructivism informed by Piaget's works as well as Bandura's Social Learning Theory on self-efficacy have also been presented. A review of related literature on learner-centred approaches, teacher preparation and classroom practice especially as it relates to constructivism theory received extensive coverage in the bid to anchor the study in theory. The importance of learner-centred

pedagogy in realizing the fundamental curriculum goals of Social Studies as a subject have also been covered. A brief overview of the key education policy documents and legal frameworks have also been highlighted in the bid for readers to appreciate how education policies in Zambia have evolved over time as well as appreciate how they have informed learner-centred education provision both at teacher preparation level and classroom level.

CHAPTER FOUR: METHODOLOGY

4.1 Overview

Research methodology is a systematic, theoretical, analysis of the methods applied to a field of study or other theoretical analysis of the body of methods and principles associated with a branch of knowledge (Berry, 2004). This chapter outlines the research methodology and methods utilised in this study to address the research questions. The chapter begins with a discussion of the importance of locating a study within a given philosophical orientation. It further goes on to discuss pragmatism as a philosophical paradigm underpinning the use of the mixed methods approach. The final sections of chapter four provide details of the study context and steps undertaken in reliability and validity testing for both the qualitative and quantitative approaches, including information about samples, inclusion criteria, recruitment and ethical (consent) procedures, measures, data collection and data analyses.

4.2 Philosophical Orientation

Although philosophical ideas remain largely hidden in research (Slife & Williams, 1995), they still influence the practice of research and need to be identified. A philosophical orientation is a general overview about the world and the nature of knowledge that a researcher brings to a study. Thus a philosophical paradigm provides a conceptual framework for seeing and making sense of research. Burrell and Morgan (1979, p. 24) argued that, "to be located in a particular paradigm is to view the world in a particular way". Patton (1990, p. 37) has termed a paradigm a "world view". The significance of paradigms is that they shape how researchers perceive the world around them: within the research process, the beliefs a researcher holds can reflect the way research is designed, how data is both collected and analysed, and how research results are presented. According to Patton (1990), for researchers, it is important to recognize one's own paradigm because it allows one to identify one's role in the research process, determine the course of any research project, and distinguish other perspectives.

Educational research is essentially concerned with exploring and understanding social phenomena that are educational in nature. According to Dash (1993), this form of research deals with educational questions that can be investigated in a satisfactory manner, the methods which enable such satisfactory investigation; and the utility of results emanating from such an investigation. Thus, theoretical research questions in education emerge from different conceptions and interpretations of social reality. In this regard, Kuhn (1962) characterized a paradigm as an

integrated cluster of substantive concepts, variables and problems that are attached to corresponding methodological approaches and tools that are used in the research process. Two philosophical paradigms guided the methodological approach to this study: the positivist and the phenomenological approach. The quantitative aspect of the study was anchored in the positivism framework while the phenomenological approach guided the qualitative aspect of the study.

4.2.1 Positivism

Positivism addressed the nomothetic (quantitative) research methods of the study. Nomothetic research is about attempting to establish general laws and generalisations. The focus of the nomothetic approach is to obtain objective knowledge through scientific methods. Hence quantitative methods of investigation are used, to try and produce statistically significant results. The methods of investigation used by the nomothetic approach collect scientific and quantitative data. To do this, experiments and observations are used, and group averages are statistically analysed to create predictions about people in general. The nomothetic approach is considered scientific due to its precise measurement, prediction and control of behaviour, investigations of large groups, objective and controlled methods allowing for replication and generalisation. In this study, positivism guided the use stratified sampling for the colleges and random sampling of student teachers for the survey questionnaire as well as use of descriptive and inferential statistics for analysis of quantitative data

In terms of epistemology, positivism holds that empirical evidence obtained through the senses is the only firm foundation for knowledge. Further, it insists that valid knowledge can only be assumed if all observers come up with essentially the same description of a thing. Lastly, it requires that these descriptions be uniform across all researchers or observers, which leads to the requirement that measurement is the royal road to knowledge. The study however also used Interpretivism epistemology because the researcher wanted to have meanings to the objective approach by positivists and also to supplement the numerical data arising from the survey questionnaire (informed by positivism) so as to have a full understanding of the why and how questions in the study.

4.2.2 Interpretivism

A second main paradigm or philosophical perspective that was used to guide collection of data for the qualitative aspect of this study is the Interpretivism. This philosophy has been more recent in

development, but its roots are in the philosophy of Plato and his teacher Socrates, who held that the truth, even if it is only dimly shadowed by human approximations of it, can only be approached through careful reflection and dialogue with others. Simply put, we can only interpret the truth, not measure it. That is to say human beings *construct* their realities and truths by talking together about them. Whereas the positivist paradigm leads inevitably to objective, quantifiable methods, the interpretivist paradigm leads to methods that involve qualitative inquiry. That is the researcher and participant talking together in constructing a new reality together.

For this qualitative part of the study, the researcher opted for a phenomenological type of Interpretivism approach to explore student teachers' and lecturers' experiences with learner-centred approaches and their perceptions of learner-centred approaches. Schram (2005) agrees that a researcher can draw upon what a phenomenon or experience means to a particular person through a phenomenological approach. A phenomenological approach was selected because the researcher was interested in investigating the lived experience of individuals (Schram, 2005; Rossman & Rallis, 2003) in relation to learner-centred practices in classes in primary colleges and primary schools.

It can therefore, be said that despite some continuing debate on whether both positivism and interpretivism theories can be used together in one study, use of both theories in one study should be viewed as performing a complementary role by way of qualitative data providing meaning and in-depth understanding to the why and how questions on the phenomenon under study and on the objective (numerical) data.

4.3 Research Design - Descriptive Survey Strategy

A research design includes how data is to be collected, what instruments will be employed, how the instruments will be used and the intended means for analysing data collected (Ader & Mellenbergh, 2008). The centrality of research design in any research endeavours is highlighted by Hall (1996, p. 17) who says that, "the test question for any academic discussion which is based on research findings is whether the conclusions are justified by the research design".

This study adopted the descriptive survey strategy to collect both qualitative and quantitative data because survey research has the capacity to collect data for describing populations that are too large to observe directly (Bebbie & Mouton, 2005). Cohen and Manion (1980) argue that surveys gather data at a particular point in time with the intention of describing the nature of existing

conditions or identifying standards existing which can be compared or used to determine the relationship existing between events. Orodho (2005) further defines descriptive survey as a method of collecting information by interviewing or administering questionnaires to a sample of individuals. Descriptive studies therefore are aimed at finding out "what is," so survey methods are frequently used to collect descriptive data (Borg & Gall, 1989). According to Creswell (2003), a survey design provides a quantitative or numeric description of trends, attitudes or opinions of a population by studying a sample of that population. Using descriptive survey design, this study was able to gain a cross section of views of lecturers and student teachers in six (6) selected primary colleges of education regarding teacher preparation for knowledge and instructional practice of learner-centred methods of teaching. A mixed method approach was used to collect both quantitative and qualitative data.

4.3.1 Mixed Methods Approach

In the last two decades, much debate has occurred on the usefulness of combining qualitative and quantitative research methodologies in the same study (Creswell, 2003; Curlette, 2006). The debate between the two approaches is frequently viewed as a contest between innovative and socially responsible versus conservative methods and sophisticated techniques versus mere common sense (Stewart & Shields, 2001). While many researchers remain entrenched between quantitative and qualitative research methods, others advocate that these two methods are complementary (Johnson & Turner, 2003; Taskakori & Teddlie, 1998; Thomas, 2003). Consequently, despite some continuing debate, mixed methods research has become increasingly recognised as an approach capable of uniting quantitative and qualitative approaches through the creation of a third paradigm (Johnson *et al.*, 2007), and is now thought by some to be a dominant paradigm in research (O’Cathain *et al.*, 2007).

Curlette (2006, p. 345) argued that “beliefs from the qualitative aspect of a mixed methods research design can be combined with data from the quantitative side of the research to reach a belief statement about the existence of a finding from the qualitative study”. In Curlette’s (2006) point of view, data collected by applying qualitative techniques can be used to support conclusions reached by performing tests on quantitative data and vice-versa. In this regard, Frechtling *et al.* (1997) stated that it is beneficial to the researcher to use a mixed-method study combining the two approaches in order to sharpen the understanding of the research findings. Hanson *et al.* (2005, p. 224) stated that the use of “both forms of data allow researchers to simultaneously generalize results from a sample to a population and to gain a deeper understanding of the phenomena of

interest”. This means that researchers are able to generalize from the sample to a population, which is one of the aspects of the quantitative research process, which is done by a quantitative researcher.

On the other hand, these generalizations can be further supported and enhanced through thick description of some aspects of the data, which is an approach that is normally taken by qualitative researchers. According to Denzin (1978), thick description refers to a detailed description of a phenomenon that includes the researcher’s interpretation in addition to the observed processes and context. It also provides a thorough accounting of the methods and procedures followed during and after data collection. However, Creswell (2003) stated that mixed-method researchers have to be knowledgeable in both qualitative and quantitative designs and the understanding of both approaches generally requires more time and effort on the part of the researcher. Greene *et al.* (1989) and Creswell (2002) stated that a mixed-methods design provides a more comprehensive answer to the research questions of the study. They also argued that a research design that integrates different methods is more likely to produce better results in terms of quality and scope. According to Gay and Airasian (2003), the mixed-methods design goes beyond the limitations of a single approach because it integrates both quantitative and qualitative research methods.

The rationale behind this design is that the researcher values equally the two forms of data and treats them as such. Data is thereby merged, and the results of analyses are used simultaneously to understand the research questions through the comparison of findings from the quantitative and qualitative analysis. Creswell and Plano Clark (2007, p. 62) stated that during interpretation, this design helps the researcher, “to directly compare and contrast quantitative statistical results with qualitative findings” in order to elaborate valid and well-substantiated conclusions about the problem under study. The proceeding justifications of mixed methods approach persuaded the researcher to utilise mixed methods in this study in order to complement objective data with subjective meanings regarding the subject of study.

4.3.2 Convergent parallel mixed methods Strategy.

This study used the convergent parallel mixed methods strategy because according to Creswell and Clark (2011), the purpose of this design is to understand or develop a more complete understanding of the research problem by obtaining different but complementary data (the validation purpose). Using this design, the researcher collected in parallel both qualitative and quantitative data, analysed it separately, compared the two data sets, and then used the results to provide answers to the research questions (Creswell, 2012). This design is also appropriate when

the researcher is dealing with a research problem whose questions are designed to elicit different types of data as either qualitative or quantitative (Creswell, 2012). Figure 4.1 below represents the design approach adopted in this study.

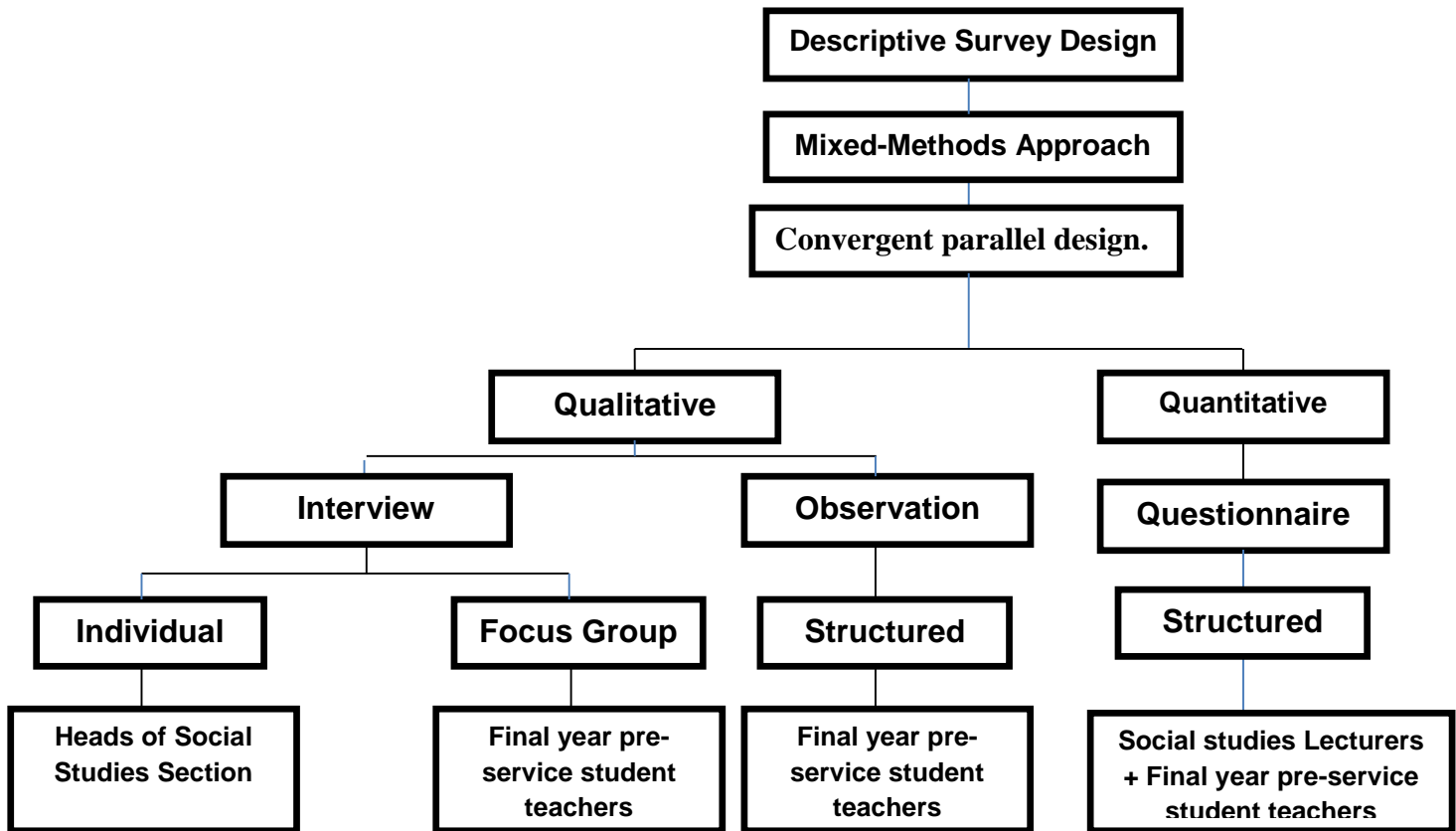


Fig. 4.1 Mixed Methods Framework of this study

4.2.3 Pragmatism as a philosophical underpinning for the mixed methods approach

This study uses pragmatism as a philosophical underpinning for the mixed methods approach adopted in this study. Pragmatism is typically associated with mixed-methods research (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2009). As a philosophical underpinning for mixed methods studies, pragmatism focuses attention upon a research problem in social science research and then uses pluralistic approach to derive knowledge about that problem. According to Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) and Tashakkori and Teddlie (2009), pragmatism embraces features associated with both positivism and constructivism worldviews. However, Tashakkori and Teddlie (2009) stated that both pragmatism and transformative-emancipatory paradigms reject “the dogmatic either-or choice between constructivism and post positivism and the search for practical answers to questions that intrigue the investigator” (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2009, p. 86).

4.4 Study Population

In this study, the investigator targeted all third year student teachers, all Social Studies Lecturers, and Heads of Social Studies Section in six Primary colleges of education which included Public, Grant-aided and Private Colleges. The idea behind selecting participants from the three types of colleges (Public, Grant-aided and Private Colleges) was to ensure that views from students and lecturers in the three types of colleges in Zambia are represented in the study.

In selecting third year student teachers, the researcher assumed that by third year which is the final year of study under the primary diploma programme, student teachers had almost completed all the training courses under the Primary Diploma Programme and hence their views, experience and perspectives would be relied upon for valuable insight into the kind of teacher preparation, knowledge and practice with regard the kind of teacher preparation received in relation to learner-centred based education. Moreover, Mulenga (2015) noted that students were the direct beneficiaries of the teacher education curriculum and thus their views on the programme were regarded as critical to the study.

Part of the aim of this study was to establish classroom instruction practices of Social Studies lecturers and how such instructions related to the implementation of learner-centred education which instruction practice is deemed key in realizing the fundamental goal of social studies. Being teacher educators, the constructions of Social Studies Lecturers and Heads of Social Studies Section in the sampled colleges were therefore deemed key in answering the research questions of this study.

4.5 The Qualitative Phase of the Study

From the mid-1970s, there has been a substantial increase in qualitative methods, traditionally associated with a constructivist paradigm, being used to address particular research questions as researchers became more interested in the context of individual human experience (Schwandt, 2000; cited in Sweeney, 2016). Occupying an ontological position that argues against the notion of an independent reality, qualitative researchers instead assert that multiple constructed realities exist simultaneously, meaning that the identification of an independent reality is neither achievable nor desirable (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). The task of research from this perspective is therefore not to identify generalisable patterns of cause and effect, but to more deeply understand subjective experience. Frequently employed as an inductive approach, qualitative research tends

to be used to develop, rather than to test theories. The researcher is regarded as an integral part of the research, with findings emerging directly from the interaction between the researcher and participants. The researcher is therefore immersed in the research process, rather than regarded as a separate, neutral entity.

In order to tap into the lived experiences of lecturers and student teachers regarding preparation for learner-centred instructional practice, the research incorporated qualitative research approach. For this qualitative part of the study, the researcher opted for a phenomenological approach to explore student teachers' and lecturers' experiences with learner-centred approaches and their perceptions of learner-centred approaches. Schram (2005) noted that a researcher can draw upon what a phenomenon or experience means to a particular person through a phenomenological approach. A phenomenological approach was therefore adopted because the researcher was interested in investigating the lived experience of Social Studies lecturers and student teachers (Schram, 2005; Rossman & Rallis, 2003) in relation to instruction practices during teacher preparation and how they related to implementation of learner-centred methods of learning or strategies. Maxwell (2006, p. 8.) Further argues that along with other generic approaches, using a phenomenological approach in qualitative study is important in "understanding *meaning*, for participants in the study, of the events, situations, and actions they are involved with, and of the accounts that they give of their lives and experiences".

This constructivist-based research approach supported the use of face to face interviews with lecturers who were heads of Social Studies section, focus group discussion and unstructured observations as a means for collecting qualitative data for this study. The idea was to triangulate qualitative data with the view to cross validate qualitative data. This also was meant to help bridge the obvious gap arising from the weakness associated with questionnaires such as people misunderstanding the questions, false information from respondents or wrongly filling of information.

In this study, objective one yielded both qualitative and quantitative data. Qualitative data was collected from student teachers who gave narrations of their experience regarding the type of teaching instruction culture that Social Studies lecturers practiced during the course of teacher preparation. This qualitative data was used to collaborate with quantitative data collected through the questionnaire on the same aspect from Social Studies lecturers themselves. Lesson observations and discourse analysis of Social Studies video lessons were also conducted and

generated the qualitative data that addressed research objective 4. In addition, face to face interviews with three heads of Social Studies Section in three selected colleges were also done in order to capture views of Heads of Social Studies Section (supervisors) on classroom instruction practices that dominated student teachers' classroom during their school experience monitoring process. Qualitative data that addressed research question five was also collected through Focus Group interviews with third year student teachers in public, private, and grant-aided colleges of education.

4.5.1 Sampling strategy

4.5.1.1 Purposive sampling

Purposive sampling, also known as judgmental, selective or subjective sampling, is a type of non-probability sampling technique. Non-probability sampling focuses on sampling techniques where the units that are investigated are based on the judgement of the researcher. Seale *et al.* (2004) states that purposive sampling is the most important kind of non-probability sampling because researchers rely on their experience, ingenuity and or previous research findings to deliberately obtain participants. Purposive sampling allows the researcher to select the participants who could provide the richest information, more interesting and who would manifest interesting characteristics. Kombo and Tromp (2006) confirms that in purposive sampling, the researcher purposely targets a group of people believed to be reliable for the study and thus the power of purposive sampling lies in selecting information rich cases related to the central issues being studied.

This study is situated in the Social Studies field and addressed itself to the classroom instructional practices of Social Studies lecturers' and how they related to preparation of students for learner-centred education. Social Studies lecturers and the heads of Social Studies Section in primary colleges of education were therefore, purposely sampled because they were deemed to possess critical information to address the aim of this study. The following purposive sampling techniques were employed in this study.

4.5.1.1.1 Maximum Variation (Heterogeneous) Sampling

This is a purposive sampling technique used to capture a wide range of perspectives relating to the question under study; that is, maximum variation sampling is a search for variation in perspectives, ranging from those units or respondents (i.e., people, cases/organisations, events, pieces of data) that are of interest to the researcher. These units may exhibit a wide range of attributes, behaviours, experiences, incidents, qualities, situations, and so forth. The basic principle behind maximum

variation sampling is to gain greater insights into a phenomenon by looking at it from all angles. This can often help the researcher to identify common themes that are evident across the sample. Maximum variation sampling in this study was used to recruit participants based on Public, Private and Grant-Aided Colleges because these are the three types of management under which colleges of education fall in Zambia. The idea therefore, was to document any variation in classroom instructional practices of Social Studies lecturers and student teachers in the public, grant-aided, or private college of education.

4.5.1.1.2 Homogeneous Sampling

Homogeneous sampling is a purposive sampling technique that aims to achieve a homogeneous sample; that is, a sample whose units (e.g., people, cases, etc.) share the same (or very similar) characteristics or traits (e.g., a group of people that are similar in terms of age, gender, background, occupation, etc.). A homogeneous sample is often chosen when the research question that is being addressed is specific to the characteristics of the particular group of interest, which is subsequently examined in detail. In this study, homogeneous sampling was used to recruit final year pre-service student teachers for both the Focus Group Discussion (FGD) and the questionnaire. The idea was that being in their final year, these students had covered most of the training courses under the teacher education curriculum programme, shared similar experiences that were deemed useful to the study and hence were better placed to provide information that could be relied upon.

4.5.1.1.3 Expert sampling

Expert sampling was used to recruit college instructors (lecturers) and Heads of Social Studies Section for the Face to Face interview. The assumption was that being teacher educators themselves, Social Studies lecturers were deemed experts on the variable of study; learner-centred instructions.

The units of sampling related to the type of purposive sampling are summarised in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Purposive Sampling Matrix

Units of sample	Type of sampling
Public, Grand-Aided, and Private Colleges	Maximum Variation Sampling
third Year Student Teachers	Homogeneous availability sampling
Social Studies Heads of section	Expert sampling

4.5.1.2 Convenience (availability) Sampling

Convenience sampling (also known as availability sampling) is a specific type of non-probability sampling method that relies on data collection from population members who are conveniently available to participate in study. In this study, willingness, volunteerism, and availability of respondents to participate in the study was used to recruit student teachers and Social Studies lecturers into the study for purposes of responding to the survey questionnaire and for participation in the focus group discussion and the interviews. This deemed fit because the lecturers had already defined the population that needed to participate in the study.

4.5.2 Sample size

Three heads of Social Studies Sections from three colleges of education that represented public, grant-aided, and private colleges were purposely sampled. For the focus group interview with student teachers in public, private, and grant-aided colleges, convenience sampling was used to recruit five (5) participants per each focus group discussion. Using the principle of saturation point, a total of seven focus group discussions were held in which 35 student teachers drawn from public, private and grant-aided colleges of education participated. Effort was also made to ensure that participants on the focus group represented different streams of the classes with the help of a local lecturer in each participating college.

4.5.3 Data collection Instruments

Research instruments are testing devices that are used for measuring a given phenomenon. These instruments are made up of questionnaires, interviews, and surveys, which are a set of research tools and protocols that serve as a guideline for data collection. Based on the research questions, two interview question protocols were developed: one for the lecturers heading the Social Studies Section and one for student teachers. The research questions guided the formulation of the Interview Guide and the Focus Group Discussion questions, as well as the lesson observation protocol. The following instruments were developed in order to collect data that addressed the qualitative aspect of this study.

4.5.3.1 Interviews

Interviews can be structured or semi-structured. In this study, semi-structured interviews were adopted because they are considered the most effective form of interviews (Patton, 1990). This is because the interview questions are designed to elicit a broad range of detailed responses, lending

depth to the information that is obtained in interviews. In this approach, Lincoln and Guba (1985) recommended that interview questions be asked in an open-ended fashion to ensure neutrality, to avoid leading the participants, and to "minimize the imposition of predetermined responses when gathering data" (Patton, 1990, p. 295). Interviews were sought necessary for this study because the researcher wanted to collect views from the respondents regarding their experience with learner-centred instructions both during teacher preparation and school experience.

4.5.3.2 Semi Structured Interviews with 3 Heads of Social Studies Section

In this study, semi structured face to face interviews were conducted with three Heads of Social Studies Section selected from public, grant-aided and private colleges in August 2018. In selecting Heads of Social Studies Section from colleges of education to participate in the semi-structured interviews, the researcher ensured that views from private, public, and grant-aided colleges were represented. Hence, through maximum variation sampling, one Head of Social Studies Section was recruited per type of college (private, public, and grant-aided) making a total three Heads of Social Studies Section. The Heads of Section were engaged on issues to do with their experiences regarding the implementation of learner-centred approaches in teacher preparation. They were also asked to comment on their experiences regarding student teachers' implementation of learner-centred based learning during the monitoring exercise of student teachers on school experience. This qualitative data was used to supplement data collected through student teachers' lesson observations and discourse analysis of Social Studies video lessons. It was also used to collaborate data collected from student teachers during focus group discussion. This entire information helped address research question four; what aspects of teacher and learner-initiated interactions were present in student teachers' lessons?

4.5.3.3 Focus Group Discussion (FGD) with student teachers

A focus group discussion (FGD) is a good way to gather together people from similar backgrounds or experiences to discuss a specific topic of interest (Toolkits, 2009). The strength of FGD relies on allowing the participants to agree or disagree with each other so that it provides an insight into how a group thinks about an issue, about the range of opinion and ideas, and the inconsistencies and variation that exists in a particular community in terms of beliefs and their experiences and practices (Toolkits, 2009; Krueger, 1988). FGDs can be used to explore the meanings of survey findings that cannot be explained statistically, the range of opinions or views on a topic of interest and to collect a wide variety of views on a topic of interest. In this study, Focus Group Discussion

(FGD) with student teachers was used to address objectives two, and five which sought to examine; a) investigate the teaching instruction practices of Social Studies lecturers in implementing learner-centred methods in primary colleges of education; b) to describe factors perceived by student teachers as impeding successful implementation of learner-centred approaches in primary schools.

Seven focus group discussions consisting of five members per focus group were held: three in one public college, and two from one private and one grant-aided college as reported above. The results were reported narratively and the responses were not categorized according to the type of college from which student teachers were drawn. Members of these focus groups were assigned numeral numbers 1 to 35. These numbers have been used and referred in the narrative presentations for purposes of giving an indication of which participants said what. Efforts were also made to report the responses as given by a number of student teachers except where responses seemed to be similar, same or close. In such a situation, only the response that seemed to represent a better summary of the common view (s) was reported. The responses were also edited for grammar in order to make their responses meaningful to would be readers of this work.

Focus Group Discussion with student teachers was thought to be appropriate because it was seen as a good way to gather together student teachers who had similar experiences of the kind of teacher preparation experienced on the primary diploma programme. There was also a higher number of student teachers willing to participate in the study. The investigator made this decision firstly to avoid losing volunteers. Also interviewing each individual participant would not have been feasible. Secondly the researcher wanted to explore the extent to which participants agreed or disagreed when they were in a group. Such qualitative data helped:

- a) To cross validating data obtained on the same items included in the survey questionnaire in relation to preparation of teachers for learner-centred based education.
- b) To learn more on students' experience with a learner-centred approaches during their school experience.
- c) To validate the information obtained from the face to face interviews with the 10 student teachers whose lessons in Social Studies were observed during school experience.
- d) Helped to bridge the gap arising from the weakness associated with questionnaires such as people misunderstanding the questions, false information from respondents or wrongly filling of information.

4.5.3.4 Classroom Observation

Observation is a pre-planned research tool which is carried out purposefully to serve research questions and objectives. Observation research is a valuable method for studying classroom contexts because it allows researchers to collect detailed information about environmental characteristics and student and teacher behaviours within natural and authentic settings, (Dubinski *et al.*, &2016). Observation research has also been widely used to collect data with respect to student-teacher interactions (Pianta, et al.,& Bradley, 2002), instructional quality (Stuhlman & Pianta, 2009), and specific teaching and learning behaviours (Waxman, Padron, Franco-Fuenmayor, & Huang, 2009). When using this method, the researcher observes the “classroom interactions and events, as they actually occur” (Burns, 1999, p. 80). Flick (2006, p. 219) also contends that observation “is an attempt to observe events as they naturally occur.” More importantly, observation enables the researcher to combine it with questionnaires and interviews to collect “relatively objective first-hand information” (Johnson & Turner, 2003, p. 314). To this end, Merriam (1998, p. 96) believes that observation is a kind of data triangulation in order to “substantiate the findings. Fraenkel and Wallen (2003, p. 453) further add that during observation, the observers “study the subjective factors objectively.”

Inside the classroom, it is proposed that the observer pays particular attention to details in order to record them objectively without personal bias. In this regard, Fraenkel and Wallen (2003, p. 452) propose two types of observations: “narrow focus and broad focus observations.” Narrow focus observation usually concentrates on a single element and broad focus on an overall picture of what is happening in the classroom. In this study, broad focus observations were used and focused on types of teacher and learner initiated interactions.

In terms of number of lesson observations, 10 students drawn from public, private and grant aided primary colleges of education were observed in Social Studies lessons in upper primary grades to check for aspects of learner-centred approaches during teaching experience (school attachment). The lessons were also video recorded to allow for discourse analysis thereafter. Each of these lessons lasted for 40 minutes and each student was observed once giving a total of 10 lessons.

4.5.3.4.1 Mitigating the observer effect

A primary concern in any study of human behaviour is what psychologists call the observer effect (first described by Francis Galton in the 1870s), which refers to people’s tendency to behave differently typically in a way that they expect will improve how they are perceived when they

believe they are being observed (Webb *et al.* 1966). To mitigate the observer effect, the researcher did the following: The researcher and the teacher worked together and mounted the digital video camera and the digital audio recorder during the first period in the morning and left the gadgets there until the 6th period when the lesson observation and recording was done. This was meant to take advantage of the effect of time in mitigating the teachers' and students' consciousness of being video-recorded. According to Deutsch (1949), subjects' consciousness of being observed has been found to diminish to the point of being undetectable with time.

During the lesson, the video camera and supplemental audio recorder were fixed in one position at the back as unobtrusively as possible out of the teacher's and students' immediate lines of sight; and were not moved during the lessons. Besides not drawing attention to the camera, a fixed position helps to minimize the influence of the observer's perspective with respect to what is and is not worth focusing on from moment to moment (Erickson, 2006). At the end of each lesson, the equipment was taken down as the teacher and students prepared to leave the

4.5.3.4.2 Nonparticipant observation approach.

This also helped mitigate observer effects. In the main, observation can take place through two methods: nonparticipant and participant. In nonparticipant observation, the observer only watches and records the classroom activities without any involvement. Burns (1999, p. 82) expresses that the inquirer's goal "is to remain aloof and distant and to have little or no contact with the subjects of the research." Also, Fraenkel and Wallen (2003, p. 451) confirm that "researchers do not participate in the activity being observed but rather sit on the side-lines and watch." However, in participant observation the observers enter the classroom and integrate with the students directly. The study adopted a non-participant observation approach but took note of the teacher and learner-initiated interactions during the course of the lesson. This had the advantage of not influencing the classroom discourse.

4.5.3.4.3 Sites for lesson observations

Lesson observations were done in government schools selected from three zones of Mpika District. The rationale for this selection was that the researcher was familiar with the geographical set up of the district which made it easy for him to traverse the geographical terrain where the schools were located. Also using informers from the three targeted zones, the researcher established that the targeted zones hosted a number of student teachers from private, government and grant-aided colleges during school experience making it an ideal place for doing observations. It was also

cheaper for the researcher since the study area already had free accommodation to house the researcher during the period of the study.

4.5.4 Data Collection Procedures

To ensure that the interview questions were aligned with the research questions, the researcher conferred with his academic advisor before entering the field. In addition, the interview questions were presented to two other experienced faculty members in the field. They reviewed the questions, checking for language use and clarity of the questions. The supervisor suggested some changes in the use of learner-centred jargon, such as being consistent with one terminology as opposed to using learner-centred learning, learner-centred methods, learner-centred approaches, and learner-centred education in one document. However, for the purpose of this study, it was agreed that these could be used interchangeably. The advisor also recommended that only aspects of learner-centred methods needed to be captured in the interview protocol.

4.5.4.1 Access to research sites and participants

In addition to obtaining permission from the Permanent Secretary for the Ministry of Education, Principles of participating colleges, and District Education Board Secretary (DEBS), the researcher also worked with focal persons in the participating colleges who happened to be lecturers. These focal persons presented and explained the topic and focus of the research to third year student teachers in advance before the researcher could visit the sampled colleges. The students were also encouraged to volunteer, and participate in the study. This made it easy for the researcher to conduct the study and helped increase student volunteers who participated in the study. The researcher was also cautious with who took part in the study and ensured that only third year student teachers participated in the study because as alluded to earlier, they were considered to have covered most of the training courses under the programme and were better placed to provide information that could be relied upon.

For the Heads of Social Studies Sections, they were contacted by phone in advance and the study explained to them. Their voluntary participation in the interview was also sought. Before each interview, the researcher checked his recorder to make sure it worked properly. During the interview, the researcher took notes about the key points the participants mentioned in case the recorder malfunctioned. After each interview, the investigator transferred all the data to the Laptop. During the interviews, participants were also assured that the collected data would not be

disclosed to the third party and codes would be used instead of participants' names to make sure their identities were protected.

To get access to these student teachers during school experience, the researcher obtained permission from the Ministry of General Education for the whole research (Appendix 8) and later on this was used to obtain permission from the principals of colleges (Appendixes 9, 10). Information about the schools where student teachers were attached for their school experience was obtained from the registrars of sampled primary colleges. This was followed by the researcher conveniently selecting the schools where to do school lesson observations. 10 students were observed from three schools spread in three zones in Mpika District. These student teachers came from public, grant-aided and private colleges of education.

To get access to the schools, the researcher visited the District Education Board Secretary (DEBS) office where the study was explained and permission sought through a written letter (Appendix 11, 12, 13). Thereafter these letters were presented to the Head Teachers of sampled schools and permission to observe lessons for student teachers from their schools. Through the Head teachers, student teachers on school experience (school attachment) were contacted, had the research explained to them, and requested for their voluntary participation. With student teachers' consent, 10 student teachers with upper primary grades (grades 5-7) had their lessons in Social Studies observed, video recorded as well as audio recorded. Table 4.2 shows the number of interviews, focus group discussions, and lesson observations.

Table 4.2 Methods of Data Collection for the Qualitative Research Part

Methods of data collection	Public college	Private college	Grant-aided college	Total
Interviews with Heads of Social Studies Section	2	1	1	4
Focus Groups with student teachers. (5 participants per group)	3	2	2	7
Lesson Observations of student teachers from	4	2	4	10

4.5.4.2 Justification for Number of sites and Participants recruited for the qualitative section.

One issue to be addressed under qualitative research is the number of sites and participants to be involved in a study. Aside from the small number that characterizes qualitative research, how many

sites and participants should be included in a research is key. First of all, there is no specific answer to this question; although according to Creswell (2013) the sample size depends on the qualitative design being used (e.g., ethnography, case study). Review of many qualitative research studies according to Creswell (2013) have found narrative research to include one or two individuals; phenomenology to typically range from three to ten; grounded theory twenty to thirty; ethnography to examine one single culture-sharing group with numerous artefacts, interviews, and observations; and case studies to include about four to five cases.

In this study, three Heads of Social Studies Section in three selected colleges of education were interviewed. According to Creswell (2013), samples for phenomenological studies that try to understand the phenomenon from the lived experience of an individual typically range from three to ten. Therefore a sample of three Heads of Social Studies Section meets the minimum criterion. For lesson observations, ten (10) student teachers' Social Studies lessons were observed. The reason for observing more than one lesson was to obtain insights into student teachers' practice of learner-centred lessons from a multiple case study point of view bearing in mind that each classroom situation presents a dynamic environment with learners and teachers that possess different characteristics (Glesne, 1999; Merriam, 1998). In this case, public, private and grant-aided primary colleges were the basis of multiple case study point of view since students were selected on the basis of these three types of colleges. As stated above, Creswell (2013) reveals that case studies usually include four to five cases and therefore ten (10) case studies of student lessons was thought appropriate for this study because it meets this criterion.

For the Focus Group Discussion, five participants were recruited for each focus group session. Accordingly, it is generally accepted that between six and eight participants are sufficient (Krueger & Casey, 2000), although some studies have reported as few as four and as many as fifteen participants (e.g. Fern, 1982; Mendes de Almeida, 1980). Therefore the size of five adopted for this study meets the recommended minimum number of participants per focus group. The idea of saturation coming from grounded theory is one viable approach used to recruit participants in the study. This is because qualitative research seeks saturation and not how many. Using the saturation approach, Charmaz (2006) pointed out that the researcher stops collecting data when the categories (or themes) are saturated: when gathering fresh data no longer sparks new insights or reveals new properties. This approach was used to guide the number of focus group discussions that were conducted in this study.

4.5.5 Dependability and Consistency (Reliability) of qualitative research findings

Obtaining similar results (reliability) in quantitative research is rather straightforward because data is in numerical form. However, achieving reliability (identical results) in qualitative approaches is very demanding and difficult because the data is in narrative form, subjective, and also the participants do not always behave the same way to the same stimuli.. To this end, Lincoln and Guba (1985, p. 288) point out that instead of focussing on obtaining the same results, it is better in qualitative approaches to think about the dependability and consistency of the data as a measure of reliability. In this case, the purpose is not to attain the same results rather to agree that based on the data collection processes the findings and results are consistent and dependable. In general, Lincoln and Guba (1985) and Merriam (1998) suggest that the dependability of the results can be ensured through the use of three techniques: the investigator's position, triangulation and audit trail:

4.5.5.1 The investigator's position. In order to increase the reliability of the qualitative section of this research, the study explains explicitly the different processes and phases of the inquiry including the rationale of the study, design of the study and the subjects or participants.

4.5.5.2 Triangulation. In a bid to increase reliability, the study solicited for information from different sources who included student teachers and college instructors. The study also used different methods of collecting information that included semi-structured interviews, Focus Group Discussions and Classroom Observations. Therefore, collecting varied types of information through different sources helped enhance the reliability of the data and the results of this study. In this way the replication of the study can be carried out fairly easily.

4.5.5.3 Audit trail. In order to fulfil this procedure, the researcher described in detail how the data was collected, analysed, how different themes were derived and how the results were obtained. This detailed information was important in helping replicate the research and contribute to its reliability.

4.5.6 Trustworthiness

Validity in qualitative research does not carry the same connotations as it does in quantitative research; nor is it a companion of reliability (examining stability) or generalizability (the external validity of applying results to new settings, people, or samples. Qualitative validity implies trustworthiness of the data or findings.it refers procedures that the researcher uses to check for accuracy of the findings. Terms abound in the qualitative literature that address validity include *trustworthiness*, *authenticity*, and *credibility* (Creswell & Miller, 2000). Generally, researchers use

different instruments to collect data. Therefore, the quality of these instruments is very critical because “the conclusions researchers draw are based on the information they obtain using these instruments” (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003, p. 158). Thus, it is imperative that the data and the instruments be validated. On the whole, some of the procedures that helped validate the instruments and the data included the following.

To this end, the research instruments and the data were reviewed by two experts in the field of teacher education who included my supervisors and were further validated by the School of Humanities, Social Science and Education ethical committee. Based on the reviewers’ comments, the unclear and obscure questions were revised and the complex items reworded. Also, the ineffective and non-functioning questions were discarded altogether.

Furthermore, to boost the trustworthiness of the qualitative data, the researcher applied the following six methods recommended by Merriam (1998): triangulation, member checks, Use of rich, thick description to convey the findings, Self-reflection, Presenting both affirmative and contradicts information, long-term observation at research site, and debriefing.

4.5.6.1 Triangulation

Different data sources of information were used to examine evidence and to build a coherent justification for themes. According to Cresswell (2014), if themes are established based on converging several sources of data or perspectives from participants, then this process can be claimed as adding to the validity of the study. To this effect, information from face to face interviews, focus group discussion and non-participant observations were triangulated within the same study.

4.5.6.2 Member Checking

This is used to determine the accuracy of the qualitative findings through taking the final report or specific descriptions or themes back to participants and determining whether these participants feel that they are accurate. This does not mean taking back the raw transcripts to check for accuracy; instead, the researcher takes back parts of the polished or semi-polished product, such as the major findings, the themes, the case analysis, the grounded theory, the cultural description, and so forth. This procedure can involve conducting a follow-up interview with participants in the study and providing an opportunity for them to comment on the findings. Lincoln and Guba, (1985,p.314, in Seale, 2000, p. 45) argued that the surest way of upholding reliability is by what they called “member checks” which meant going back to the people researched on and showing

them the data derived from their submissions so that they judge for themselves if they have been properly represented. Bearing this in mind, responses were double checked with respondents to ascertain if what was captured and recorded is really what respondents said and meant.

4.5.6.3 Use of rich, thick description to convey the findings

This description may transport readers to the setting and give the discussion an element of shared experiences. When qualitative researchers provide detailed descriptions of the setting, for example, or offer many perspectives about a theme, the results become more realistic and richer. Effort was made in this study to collect as many views from participants as possible and to present them as they were narrated by participants. This was in an effort to add to the credibility of the findings.

4.5.6.4 Presenting both affirmative and contradictory information

Negative or discrepant information that runs counter to the themes were also presented because real life is composed of different perspectives that do not always coalesce. The researcher accomplished this by discussing evidence that built a case for the chosen theme as well as presenting information that contradicted the general perspective of the theme if any. Thus discussing contrary information in this way added to the credibility of an account.

4.5.6.5 Spending more time in the field collecting data

Having more time in the field helped the researcher develop an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon under study. It also helped convey detail about the site and the people and this lends credibility to the narrative account. “The more experience that a researcher has with participants in their settings, the more accurate or valid will be the findings” (Cresswell, 2014, p.202). A lot of time was spent in the field interacting with participants who included student teachers and lecturers.

4.5.6.6 Debriefing

This helps enhance the accuracy of the account. The researcher in the course of the study shared the qualitative findings with the supervisor and other identified scholars within the field of education. This was meant to ensure that the research account resonated with people other than the researcher. This strategy of opening up to interpretation beyond the researcher and invested in another person helped add validity to an account.

4.5.7 Data analysis

According to De Vos (2005) data analysis entails the process of bringing order, structure and meaning to the mass of collected data. Data analysis also entails evaluating data using analytical and logical reasoning to examine each component of the data provided. It is a process of inspecting, cleaning, transforming, and modelling data with a goal to discover useful information, suggesting conclusions and support decision making (Creswell, 2014). Currently, research studies largely use either narrative or statistical strategies or both. The type of analysis methods used depend on the research and the method by which the data is collected or measured (Berry, 2004). For this study, both qualitative and quantitative analysis methods were used. What follows is the way qualitative analysis was handled.

4.5.7.1 Qualitative Content Analysis

Qualitative content analysis is one of the numerous research methods used to analyse text data. According to Hsieh and Shannon (2005, p. 1278), qualitative content analysis is defined as a “research method for the subjective interpretation of the content of text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns”. Research using qualitative content analysis focuses on the characteristics of language as communication with attention to the content or contextual meaning of the text (Budd, Thorp, & Donohew, 1967; Lindkvist, 1981; McTavish & Pirro, 1990; Tesch, 1990) cited in Hsieh and Shannon (2005). According Kondracki & Wellman (2002) cited in Hsieh and Shannon (2005), text data might be in verbal, print, or electronic form and might have been obtained from narrative responses, open-ended survey questions, interviews, focus groups, observations, or print media such as articles, books, or manuals. Qualitative content analysis goes beyond merely counting words to examining language intensely for the purpose of classifying large amounts of text into an efficient number of categories that represent similar meanings (Weber, 1990). The goal of content analysis is “to provide knowledge and understanding of the phenomenon under study” (Downe-Wamboldt, 1992, p. 314).

All interviews and focus groups discussions were recorded and transcribed. Guided by elements of constant comparison coding methods (Glaser, 1965), all interviews and focus group transcripts were analysed by the researcher. The identification and grouping of themes for Objective 5, was guided by, but not limited to, Ertmer’s barriers to change framework. Ertmer (1999) identified first and second-order barriers to change. First-order barriers include lack of resources, knowledge, and skill. Second-order barriers are based on teachers’ mind-sets, values, and beliefs. While first-order

barriers are relatively easy to overcome when resources are secured, second-order barriers are more persistent because they “may not be immediately apparent to others or even to the teachers themselves” (p. 51). Based on Ertmer’s (1999) barriers to change framework, this study has proposed the ‘*First and Second order Barriers Framework* to the integration of Earner-centred approaches in primary classrooms of Developing Countries’.

4.5.7.1.1 Conventional Content Analysis

Conventional content analysis is generally used with a study design whose aim is to describe a phenomenon, in this case narrative responses of participants. This type of design is usually appropriate when existing theory or research literature on a phenomenon is limited. Researchers avoid using preconceived categories (Kondracki & Wellman, 2002), instead allowing the categories and names for categories to flow from the data. Researchers immerse themselves in the data to allow new insights to emerge (Kondracki & Wellman, 2002), also described as inductive category development (Mayring, 2000). In this study, conventional content analysis was used to scrutinize text data obtained from narrative responses obtained through face to face interviews and focus group discussion. This was in response to objective five of the study.

Conventional data analysis involved carefully reading each transcript from beginning to end, highlighting text that appeared to describe learner-centred based education and writing in the margin of the text a keyword or phrase that seemed to capture the learner-centred construct, using the participant’s words. As the researcher was reading and working through the transcript(s), effort was made to try and limit the developing codes as much as possible.

After this process of open coding of transcripts, the researcher decided on preliminary codes. This process was repeated for all other transcripts adding new codes whenever data that did not fit into the existing codes was encountered. After all transcripts were coded, the researcher examined all data within a particular code. Some codes were combined during this process, whereas others were split into subcategories. Finally, the final codes were examined and where possible organized into a hierarchical structure.

Because text and image data was so dense and rich, not all of the information was used in a qualitative study. Thus during data analysis, the researcher had to “winnow” the data (Guest, MacQueen, & Namey, 2012). This process focused on retaining some of the data and disregarding other parts of it. This process is different from quantitative research in which researchers go to great lengths to preserve all of the data and reconstruct or replace missing data. In qualitative

research, the impact of this process is to aggregate data into a small number of themes, something like five to seven themes (Creswell, 2014). The researcher in this study therefore generated seven (7) themes under which objective 5 were discussed.

4.5.7.1.2 Directed Content Analysis

Directed content analysis is another qualitative content analysis technique or approach used to interpret meaning from the content of text data. The difference with conventional content analysis is that the coding categories in conventional content analysis are derived directly from the text data whereas in directed content analysis, analysis starts with a theory or relevant research findings as guidance for initial codes (Hsieh & Shannon, 2014). In this study, directed content analysis was used to direct discourse analysis of lesson videos aimed at addressing the teacher and learner-initiated interactions under objective 4.

4.5.7.3 Lesson Discourse Analysis

Discourse Analysis is a method of analysing a naturally occurring talk (spoken interaction) and all types of written texts. This was used to address objective 4. In this study, all the observations were video-recorded since “audio-visual data collection has the capacity for completeness of analysis and comprehensiveness of material” (Cohen *et al.*, 2004, p. 313). Discourse analysis of video recorded lessons focussed on a number of different types of interaction moves made by teachers and pupils. In particular, classroom discourse analysis was done in terms of Teacher-Initiated Interactions based on individual nominations, invitations to bid, and invitations to reply while Pupil-Initiated Interactions were based on *bidding to speak and calling out* (refer to chapter three for details). Nvivo 10 and 12 qualitative analysis software was used to analyse the video recorded lessons.

Therefore, for the purposes of coding in this study, the researcher adopted Shepherds’ (2010) definitions of teacher-initiated interactions as follows:

Individual nominations - an interaction in which the teacher nominates a student who had not raised a hand or otherwise bid.

Invitation to bid – An interaction in which the teacher directs to the class a response opportunity other than an invitation to reply and subsequently nominates a student who bid to respond.

Invitation to reply – An interaction in which the teacher directs to the class a yes/no question or a cue requiring reading or recitation.

Discourse analysis was also based on the number and type of pupil initiations in the form of *bidding to speak and calling out* as discussed in chapter three. Learner-centred classroom discourse including teaching exchanges exhibited by teachers and the average length of teacher and pupil utterances was also evaluated to compare levels of participation in the classroom discourse.

4.6 The Quantitative Phase of the Study

Besides the depth of the qualitative data, the researcher was also interested in the breadth of study, including as many participants as possible so that he could base his interpretation on richer data. It was against this background that this study incorporated a quantitative approach. Quantitative methods traditionally operate within a positivist paradigm. Based on the ontological position of an objective measurable reality. Research within this field employs techniques consistent with this view of meaningful knowledge acquisition which includes the use of deductive reasoning to test hypotheses within a laboratory environment, and aiming to control for specific variables. Objective measurement and quantitative analysis seek to be representative and to establish causal relationships between factors of interest using large samples. This enables findings to be generalised to a wider population. The stance of the researcher under the objective ontology aims to be that of a neutral observer and strenuous efforts are made to minimise the risk of the researcher directly influencing or biasing findings (Firestone, 1987).

Three research questions in this study required nomothetic (quantitative) approach to collect data;

- i. How prepared were Social Studies lecturers' to support student learning that requires collaborative, inductive, and experiential learning in primary colleges of education?
- ii. How did the teaching instruction practices of Social Studies lecturers relate to the implementation of learner-centred education in primary colleges of education?
- iii. What were the Social Studies lecturers' and final year pre-service student teachers' sense of efficacy in selected instruction activities related to collaborative, inductive, and experiential learning strategies?

4.6.1 Data collection instruments

Nomothetic methods that were used to collect data to address these three research objectives included a Likert scale survey questionnaire for the student teachers and lecturers (Appendix 4 and 6). The Factor variables or constructs used in these two instruments were based on a thorough literature review of researches on learner-centred based education underpinned by constructivist epistemology which informs constructivist pedagogy.

4.6.1.1 Survey Questionnaire

Questionnaires are doubtless one of the primary sources of obtaining data in any research endeavour. According to Fowler (2001), survey is one of the most important forms of measurement in research. Sapsford (2006) stated that one of the main benefits of a survey is its flexibility because it may deal with different types of data. In this regard, Thomas (2003, p. 44) affirms, “surveys are useful in revealing the current status of a target variable within a particular entity”. In this study, a survey was elaborated using different point Likert scales.

4.6.1.2 The Education Development Centre, Inc. (EDC) and Nellie Mae Education Foundation (NMEF) Learner-centred learning (SCL) Questionnaire for Teachers 2016.

In order to address *objectives 1, 2, and 3* of this study, the researcher adapted the Education Development Centre, Inc. (EDC) and Nellie Mae Education Foundation (NMEF) Student-Centred Learning (SCL) Questionnaire for Teachers 2016 (accessible at https://www.edc.org/sites/default/files/uploads/EDC_NMEF_SCL_Student.pdf). EDC is a non-profit organization that creates and delivers effective programs, services, materials, and products to improve learning and teaching, health and human development, and economic opportunity for people of all ages worldwide. Collaborating with both public and private partners, EDC is committed to education that builds knowledge and skill, makes possible a deeper understanding of the world, and engages learners as active, problem-solving participants. While the issues that EDC address are diverse, all that the organisation does is united by its conviction that learning is a liberating force in human development. Founded in 1958, EDC currently employs 1,200 staff in the United States and around the world, including teachers, health and social science professionals, mathematicians, professional development experts, scientists, researchers, and management and technology specialists.

On the other hand, The Nellie Mae Education Foundation (NMEF) is the largest philanthropic organization in New England that focuses exclusively on education. The Foundation supports the promotion and integration of student-centred approaches to learning at the high school level across New England where learning is personalized; learning is competency-based; learning takes place anytime, anywhere; and students exert ownership over their own learning. To elevate student-centred approaches, the Foundation utilizes a four-part strategy that focuses on: building educator ownership, understanding and capacity; advancing quality and rigor of SCL practices; developing effective systems designs; and building public understanding and demand.

The EDC/NMEF Student-Centred Learning (SCL) Questionnaire for Teachers 2016 that this study adapted for this study was originally designed to evaluate the implementation and impact of the District Level System Change (DLSC) initiative, an effort to establish, sustain, and expand learner-centred learning (SCL) in a selected set of public school district in the New England region. The DLSC initiative aimed to support sites where Learner-centred learning was implemented in an effort to accomplish the Learner-centred learning initiative's core components: personalized learning, competency-based learning, anytime/anywhere learning, and student-owned learning. For this study, the survey questionnaire was used to collect data from student teachers and lecturers in an effort to address objectives 1, 2, and 3.

4.6.1.3 How the Learner-centred learning (SCL) Questionnaire for Teachers 2016, was Created by EDC/NMEF

To create the original EDC/NMEF Learner-Centred Learning(SCL) Questionnaire for Teachers 2016, an extensive review of the literature on student-centred learning, competency-based learning, proficiency-based learning, and standards-based learning, and collaborative culture was conducted, (EDC, 2016). Other documents were also consulted to come up with the 2016 DLSC questionnaire and these included a draft version of the Innovative Teaching and Learning questionnaire, the 2009 PISA Student Questionnaire, the Horizon Institute LSC Teacher Questionnaire (HRI LSC Teacher Questionnaire 1997), the Research Assessment Package for Schools (RAPS), the Quantifying Student Engagement Research Report (by the National Centre for Student Engagement), and the Stanford CRC Questionnaire. The 2016 DLSC questionnaire contains 20 items and 98 sub-items organized into five sections. The questionnaire was used in an evaluation study titled: 'Measuring the implementation and impact of student-centred learning: Teachers' experience and attitudes', funded by the Nellie Mae Education Foundation (NMEF) in 2016 in New England. The researcher also reviewed existing works that addressed learner-centred

learning as a major topic within Zambia and Africa including but not limited to (Banda, 2014; Nyimbili, 2018; Namngolwa, 2013; Amakli, 2017; Mtika and Gates, 2010; Chiphiko & Shawa, 2014).

4.6.1.4 Piloting of the EDC/NMEF Learner-centred learning (SCL) Questionnaire for Teachers 2016

Based on the rich literature review that shaped the formulation of EDC/NMEF Learner-centred learning (SCL) Questionnaire for Teachers 2016, the researcher in close consultation with the supervisor developed the first draft survey questionnaire in 2017 and piloted it with 5 lecturers and 30 third year student teachers sampled from one primary teachers' college of education to determine the questionnaires' clarity, technical functionality, and capacity to measure underlying constructs. Based on this pilot study, indicated adjustments were made and then the questionnaire was administered in 6 primary colleges of education between June and July of 2018. Among the things that emerged from the pilot study were that the questionnaire had too many sub-category items some of which were not relevant to the objectives. Also section C titled: College Support Towards Learner-centred Learning was found to have sub-categories that were deemed irrelevant to the objectives and were removed. The Likert scales were also reworked leading to the questionnaire having different scales based on the type of question and the information it sought to provide. The same questionnaire was administered to student teachers and lecturers in order to urge comparison of results.

4.6.1.5 Likert Scale

A Likert Scale asks participants to respond to a series of statements that are based on a limited range of possible answers. Trochim and Donnelly (2007) stated that in a Likert scale, participants are asked to rate each of their responses on a 1 to 5 scale, in which 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Undecided, 4 = Agree, and 5 = Strongly Agree. They also stated that there are different possibilities for the response scales such as 1 to 7 and 1 to 9, which are odd-numbered scales that have middle value, which may be labelled as neutral or undecided. On the other hand, Trochim and Donnelly (2007, p. 137) stated that:

It is also possible to use a forced-choice response scale with an even number of responses and no middle neutral or undecided choice. In this situation, respondents are forced to decide whether they lean more toward the “agree” or “disagree” end of the scale for each item.

However, the critical point is that when designing a questionnaire, the researcher should ensure that it is “valid, reliable and unambiguous” (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, p. 438). On the whole, questionnaires can appear in three types:

- 1- closed-ended (or structured) questionnaires
- 2- Open-ended (or unstructured) questionnaires
- 3- A mixture of closed-ended and open-ended questionnaires.

Closed-ended questionnaires provide the inquirer with quantitative or numerical data and open-ended questionnaires with qualitative or text information. This study used a self-administered closed ended questionnaire adapted from the Education Development Centre (EDC) and Nellie Mae Education Foundation (NMEF) Student-Centred Learning (SCL) Questionnaire for Teachers 2016. The choice of self-administration approach for the questionnaire was meant to limit the effect of interviewer bias. Interviewers can vary in their ability to appear or sound neutral, to listen, to probe adequately, and to use techniques to aid recall and to record responses, factors which are avoided through self-administered questionnaires.

4.6.2 Data collection procedure

Using a Likert scaled questionnaire for Social Studies lecturers and for student teachers respectively, lecturers and student teachers responded to a number of questions focusing on learner-centred learning. Specifically the questionnaire sought to collect perspectives of Social Studies lecturers’ and student teachers’ on their preparedness for student-centred instructional practice. The survey was designed for participants to take between 15 and 20 minutes, and surveying occurred only once for each participant. Table 4.5 is the summary of the design matrix showing the relationship between the research objectives and the methodology.

4.6.3 Sampling Frame

The study targeted all Social Studies lecturers and all third year student teachers in six colleges of primary education. Using register statistics obtained from the College Registrars as of 2018 academic year, there were a total of 56 Social Studies lecturers in the six colleges sampled and an estimated total of 2,076 third year student teachers enrolled.

4.6.4 Sample size for student respondents: The Cochran's Sample Size Formula

The Cochran (1963, p.75) formula for calculating a sample for proportions was adopted in this study. The Cochran formula was considered especially appropriate for this study because in a research dealing with large population like this one, it allows to calculate an ideal sample size given a desired level of precision, desired confidence level, and the estimated proportion of the attribute present in the population (Cochran's formula is considered especially appropriate in situations with large populations).

The Cochran formula is:

$$n_0 = \frac{Z^2 pq}{e^2} = \text{Equation 1}$$

According to Israel (1992), this formula is valid where;

n₀ -----is the sample size,

Z²----- is the abscissa of the normal curve that cuts off an area α at the tails,

1- α ----- equals the desired confidence level, which was **95%** in this study,

e----- is the desired level of precision, which was **0.05** ($\pm 5\%$) in this study

p ----- is the estimated proportion of the population which has the attribute in question (**0.5** in this study), and

q ----- is the 1-p.

Z ----- the value for Z is found in the statistical Tables which contain the area under the normal curve. For populations that are large like the one in this study (third year student teachers in six selected primary colleges of education and all lecturers of Social Studies in the six selected colleges), Cochran formula yielded a representative sample for proportions.

4.6.4.1 Assumptions made to use Cochran' formula in this study

It was assumed in this study that lecturers' and third year student teachers' population was large and that it was difficult to know the variability in the proportion of adoption of learner-centred methods by both lecturers and student teachers. Therefore, $p= 0.5$ was taken to represent maximum variability. Furthermore, confidence level (1- α) of 95% was desired and precision level (e) of $\pm 5\%$ was desired. The value of Z is found in statistical Tables which contain the area under the normal curve. I.e. for 95% level of confidence, $Z = 1.96$.

4.6.4.2 Sample size determination (calculation) procedure

$$n_0 = \frac{Z^2 pq}{e^2} = \frac{(1.96)^2 (.5) (.5)}{(.05)^2} = 385 \text{ STUDENTS}$$

z^2	p	q	e^2
1.96*1.96	50%	1-0.50	0.05*0.05
3.8416	0.5	0.5	0.0025
0.9604			
385			

According to Cochran (1963) cited in Israel (1992), if the population is small then the sample size can be reduced slightly using the Finite Population Correction for Proportions Formula below.

$$n = \frac{n_0}{1 + \frac{(n_0 - 1)}{N}}$$

where n is the sample size.

“This is because a given sample size provides proportionately more information for a small population than for a large population”, (Israel, 1992, p. 3). In this study, the estimated population of final year pre-service student teachers for the 2018 academic calendar under the Diploma Primary Teacher Programme in the targeted six colleges was 2076. These statistics were obtained from Registrars of Colleges of Education. Using the Finite Population Correction for Proportions Formula, the final sample size for final year pre-service student teachers that was deemed necessary for this study was calculated as shown in the equation below.

$$n = \frac{385}{1 + \frac{(385 - 1)}{2,076}} = 325 \text{ Student teachers}$$

4.6.5 Sample size for Lecturer participants

According to records obtained from the office of College Registrars of the six colleges, there were a total of 56 lecturers of Social Studies altogether as of 2018 and at the time when the data was collected. A total 36 questionnaires were distributed in all the six colleges out of which 25 questionnaires were collected back. This represented a 69.4% return rate and a 44.6%

representation of the total 56 target population for lecturers. Table 4.3 below shows the survey questionnaire distribution and return rates for both student teachers and lecturers.

Table 4.3 Questionnaire distribution and return rates for both student teachers and lecturers.

Participants	Number of survey questionnaire distributed	Number of survey questionnaire returned	Percentage (%)
Student teachers	600	561	93
Social Studies Lecturers	36	25	69.4

4.6.6 Sampling Techniques

4.6.6.1 Stratified Random sampling procedure for the student teachers

Sampling method refers to the way that population members are selected to participate in the survey. Polit *et al.* (2001, p.234) defined a sample as “a proportion of a population”. This study used stratified random sampling without replacement to select student teachers. The type of college (public, private and grant aided) was used as strata. Unlike simple random samples and the systematic random sample, stratified random sampling is used if the researcher is interested in particular strata (groups) within the population. With stratified random sampling, there is a probability of each unit from within a particular stratum (group) of the population being included in the sample. Therefore stratified random sampling was deemed suitable for sampling of student teachers because it ensured heterogeneity of the sample by including student teachers from public, grant-aided and private colleges.

$$\text{Sampling Scale Factor} = \text{SSF} = \frac{\text{Total Population}}{\text{Sample Size}} = \frac{2076}{325} = 6.4$$

Therefore the stratified sample size for each of the sampled college was arrived at using the formula:

$$\text{Sample Size} = \frac{\text{Total Population of final year pre-service student teachers}}{\text{Sampling Scale Factor (SSF)}}$$

The sample size calculation for each of the participating colleges is shown Table 4.4.

Table 4.4 sample size calculation matrix

College strata	Number of final year pre-service student teachers per college (stratum) enrolled during the 2018 academic year	Stratified Sample size
College A (Public)	271	271/6.4= 43
College B (Public)	544	544/6.4= 85

College C (Public)	353	353/6.4= 55
College D (Private)	200	200/6.4=32
College E (Private)	250	250/6.4= 39
College F (Grant-aided)	458	450/6.4=71
Total Sample size for students		325

However in order to cater for anticipated non response cases and missing survey questionnaires, a total of 600 questionnaires were distributed to final year pre-service student teachers in the six colleges selected. Of the 600 questionnaires, only 561 were returned representing a 93% return rate. For lecturers, 36 questionnaires were distributed and 25 were collected back representing a 69.4% return rate.

4.6.6.2 Convenience sampling approach

According to Etikan, *et al.* (2015), it would be superlative in every type of research to use the whole population, but in most cases, it is not possible to include every subject because the population is almost finite. This is the rationale behind using sampling techniques like convenience sampling by most researchers (Explorable.com. 2009, Sep 16). This is a type of nonprobability sampling where members of the target population that meet certain practical criteria, such as easy accessibility, geographical proximity, availability at a given time, or the willingness to participate are included for the purpose of the study (Dörnyei, 2007). Although, nonprobability sampling has a lot of limitations due to the subjective nature in choosing the sample and thus it is not good representative of the population, it is useful especially when randomization is impossible like when the population is very large, when the researcher has limited resources, time and workforce (Etikan, *et al.*, 2015). It was on the same basis as argued by Etikan, *et al.* (2015) that this study found convenience sampling appropriate for this study. The student teachers and Social Studies lecturers who participated in the survey and interviews were therefore recruited by their availability and willingness to participate in the study (convenience).

Table 4.5 Summary of Design Matrix for This Study

Research questions	Research objectives	Population and sampling	Data collection tool	Data analysis
1. How prepared were Social Studies lecturers' to support student learning that requires collaborative, inductive, and experiential learning in primary colleges of education?	1. To examine Social Studies lecturers' perceived preparedness to support student learning that requires collaborative, inductive, and experiential learning.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social Studies Lecturers • Convenience sampling 	Survey questionnaire for Lecturers	Descriptive & Inferential statistics with <i>Kruskal-Wallis H Test</i>
2. How did the teaching instruction practices of lecturers relate to implementation of learner-centred approaches?	2. To analyse the classroom instructional practices of Social Studies lecturers during teacher preparation.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social Studies Lecturers • Convenience sampling • Final year Pre-service Student Teachers • Stratified sampling 	Survey questionnaires (Lecturers & student teachers) FGDs with student Teachers. Semi-Structured Interviews with the Heads of Social Studies Section	Descriptive & Inferential statistics with <i>Kruskal-Wallis H Test</i> Qualitative Content Analysis using Nvivo version 10 and 12
3. What were the Social Studies lecturers' and final year pre-service student teachers' sense of efficacy in selected instruction activities related to LCE (collaborative, inductive, and experiential learning strategies)?	3. To examine Social Studies lecturers and final year pre-service student teachers' sense of efficacy in facilitating learning using selected inductive, collaborative, and experiential learning strategies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social Studies Lecturers and final year Pre-service Student Teachers • Stratified sampling Convenience sampling. 	Survey questionnaires for Lecturers and student teachers	Descriptive and Inferential statistics (Kruskal-Wallis H Test)
4. What aspects of teacher and learner-initiated interactions were present in final year student teachers' lessons?	4. To analyse final year student teachers' lessons for aspects of teacher and learner-initiated interactions during school experience.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Final year pre-service student teachers' Social Studies lessons. • By convenience sampling. 	- Video recorder to record Social Studies Lessons - Note pads to take note of observations during Lessons	Directed Content Analysis of lesson discourse using Nvivo version 10 and 12 &
5. What factors affected the implementation of learner-centred learning methods in primary schools?	5. To describe factors perceived by final year student teachers, as affecting implementation of learner-centred methods in primary schools.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Final year Pre-service Student Teachers by stratified sampling 	FGDs	Conventional Content Analysis using Nvivo version 10 and 12

4.6.7 Reliability and Validity of quantitative research findings

4.6.7.1 Reliability Estimation Using Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient

One of the main requirements of any research process is the reliability of the data and findings. In social sciences, reliability deals with whether a study can be repeated and yields the same results (Bryman, 2008). In this way reliability is a measure of how stable or true a concept is. Sanders (1992, p.33) portrays reliability as, "being concerned with error of measurement or whether the instrument or method is giving you a stable reading". It deals with the consistency, dependability and replicability of "the results obtained from a piece of research" (Nunan, 1999, p. 14).

To ensure reliability of data and findings, the researcher conferred with his academic advisor on the questionnaire to ensure that the items were aligned with research questions before entering the field. In addition, the questionnaire was presented to two other experienced faculty members in the field who reviewed the items, checking for language use and clarity. The supervisor suggested some changes in the use of learner-centred jargon, such as being consistent with one terminology as opposed to using learner-centred learning, learner-centred methods, and learner-centred approaches in one document. However, for the purpose of this study, it was agreed that these terms could be used interchangeably. The advisor also recommended that only aspects of learner-centred methods needed to be captured in the questionnaire protocol.

Piloting or pre-testing of the research instruments was conducted prior to the actual data collection. This was aimed at ascertaining the consistency in the understanding and interpretation of the meaning of each question, sentences, instructions, adequacy of response options and other trends that may have affected the reliability of the findings.

The researcher also established the degree of internal consistency of the survey instrument used in this study through the application of a coefficient alpha, known as Cronbach's Alpha (Huck, 2000). Cronbach's alpha test is a measure of internal consistency, that is, how closely related a set of items are as a group. The rule of thumb is that a Cronbach's alpha of .70 and above is acceptable. It is also considered to be a measure of scale reliability. A Cronbach's Alpha test was run on each of the survey's subscales to check whether the questions in the questionnaire all consistently measured the same latent variable on the Likert item provided. This was important because without reliability, it was going to be difficult to be sure about the validity of the data collected. The survey was considered reliable based on its reliability coefficient, which was .931 for lecturers' survey and 0.960 for student survey. In other words, the survey had a reliability score above 90%.

4.6.7.2 Validity

To enhance the validity of the study, the investigator triangulated the data by using both qualitative and quantitative approaches: within the qualitative section, he conducted interviews, focus group discussion and observations, and in quantitative section, he administered a survey questionnaire. In addition, the researcher collected the data from a diverse range of individuals who were involved in the study, such as the lecturers and student teachers from the six colleges. The reason for broadening the participants was because he wanted to draw his findings based on a rich source of data. Maxwell (2005) and Rossman and Rallis (2003) support the idea that by triangulation a researcher can reduce the risk of one singular method or the risk of covering only one aspect of the phenomenon which results in using a specific method. Triangulation allows “a better assessment of generality of explanations that one develops” (Rossman & Rallis, 2003, p. 32).

4.6.7.3 Construct Validity

Construct validity which refers to the measure of the degree to which the data obtained using an instrument meaningfully and accurately reflects or represents a theoretical concept was also adhered to. Mugenda and Mugenda (1999 cited in Mulenga, 2015) explains that to assess construct validity, there should exist in a study a theoretical foundation regarding the concept to be measured. To ensure construct validity, variables present in constructivist pedagogy as informed by constructivist epistemology were operationalised during data collection through survey questionnaire.

4.6.7.4 External Validity

A researcher often cannot work with the entire population of interest but instead must study a smaller sample of that population in order to draw conclusions about the larger group from which the sample is taken. External validity involves the extent to which the conclusions can be generalized to the broader population. In order to ensure external validity, the researcher obtained authentic statistics of the target population for both student teachers and lecturers from the Registrars of selected colleges of education. Using the college Figures, Cochran’s (1963, p.75) Sample Size Formula was used to calculate the sample size for student teachers. The formula was used for student teachers only because the student population was large. Having calculated the sample size (325) and using a Sampling Scale Factor (SSF), the proportionate stratified random sampling was used to draw the sample for third year student teachers from each of the sampled

colleges as shown in the Table 3.4. Social Studies lecturers were also stratified sampled to ensure representation of all the six colleges. This procedure ensured external validity of the findings.

4.6.8 Quantitative Data Analysis

Univariate analysis was used in this study to produce descriptive statistics using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 23.0. This is because quantitative data in this study was used to describe and find patterns that existed within the data and not to deal with causes or relationships. As such, some ways that were used to describe patterns that emerged from univariate data included central tendency (mean, mode and median) and standard deviation. In addition, frequency distribution Tables, frequency graphs, bar charts and pie charts wherever possible were used to display the data. The Kruskal-Wallis H test was also performed to test for differences in student teachers' preparedness for learner-centred learning as well as student-centred instructional practice. This was meant to give meaning to the findings from the questionnaire. The Kruskal-Wallis H test is a non-parametric which does not assume that the data comes from a normal distribution. The Kruskal-Wallis H test (which is an alternative to the ANOVA) was used because the data was not normally distributed. The following were the assumptions for using the Kruskal-Wallis H test;

4.6.8.1 Assumption to use Kruskal-Wallis H test

Assumption #1:the dependent variable was measured at the ordinal scale.

Assumption #2: The independent variable consisted of three categorical, independent groups. Example, Public, Grant-aided and Private Colleges

Assumption #3:There is independence of observations, which means that there is no relationship between the observations in each group or between the groups themselves. For example, there are different participants in each group with no participant being in more than one group.

Assumption #4: The distributions in each group of the independent variable do not have the same shape (had different variability). Hence, the researcher interpreted mean ranks rather than medians.

4.6.9 Ethical Considerations

The study was approved by the Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee (HSSREC) and recruitment to the study only commenced following approval of the final protocol

and associated material by the HSSREC (see Appendix 6). The research considered the following in order to address ethical concerns.

4.6.9.1 Anonymity and Confidentiality

All respondents were not required to write any name on the research instruments. The respondents were also assured of confidentiality by assuring them that every response concerning the study was to be treated with high level of confidentiality and were to be used only for the purpose of the study.

4.6.9.2 Informed Consent

Informed consent was sought from respondents by explaining to them what the study was all about and what was expected of them so that they made an informed decision. A consent form was also presented for respondents to sign.

4.6.9.3 Voluntary participation

Respondents were free to decide whether to participate in the study or not to participate. They were also free to decide withdraw from participating anytime. However the importance and benefits of their participation in the study was explained to them for them to use it as a basis for decision regarding the decision to participate or not to participate.

4.6.9.4 Permission

Permission was sought before interviewing the respondents. This was done by obtaining an introduction letter from the School of Education, postgraduate office and obtaining permission from the Permanent Secretary of Ministry of Education as well as ensuring that all protocols were observed and courtesies paid at principal officers of the research sites who included Principals of colleges, District Board Secretaries, and Head teachers of the primary schools (where lesson observations was undertaken).

4.6.9.5 Choice of Language

The researcher endeavoured to remain neutral, respectful, and sensitive to participants in the choice and use of language during the course of soliciting for data. In this regard, Cresswell (2003) records that a researcher is not supposed to use the language and words that are regarded as being biased against persons because of gender, ethnic group, disability or age (Cresswell, 2003).

4.7 Summary

This chapter has provided information about the quantitative and qualitative methods and procedures employed to address the objectives of this study. The discussion is based on the following headings: research design, study site, target population, sample size, sampling technique, data collection instruments, validity and reliability, data collection procedure, data analysis as well as ethical considerations. All these methodological procedures are aimed at providing both quantitative and qualitative data to the research objectives of this study in order to fulfil the primary aim: to investigate preparedness of Social Studies lecturers and student teachers in selected primary colleges of education in Zambia to facilitate knowledge and instructional practice of learner-centred methods of teaching social studies. The results of each approach are reported in the next chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE

PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

5.1 Overview

This chapter presents the results from the quantitative and qualitative analyses carried out in this study. It begins by giving the background information of respondents, descriptive statistics and summarising data preparation and preliminary analyses conducted. This approach is supported by Rudestam and Newton (2001) who observed that results chapters begin with a description of the sample from which the data was collected by giving, for instance, demographic details relating to participants or respondents before presenting findings for each research question. The themes that guided the presentation of the results arose from the research questions as provided in 1.4 under chapter one.

Generally, two main types of results are presented under this chapter, quantitative and qualitative results. The quantitative results mainly addresses research question one, two, and three of the study which mainly addressed: how prepared Social Studies lecturers' were to support student learning that requires collaborative, inductive, and experiential learning; how the teaching instruction practices of Social Studies lecturers related to the implementation of learner-centred methods in teacher preparation; and lecturers' and pre-service final year student teachers' level of self-efficacy in facilitating learning using collaborative, inductive and experiential instructional strategies. However, research question two also collected qualitative data from student teachers through focus group discussions. This study also adopted a 0.05 level of significance and 95% confidence interval to determine the level of significance.

5.2 Background Information of Respondents.

Lecturers and student teachers were the respondents in this study. Table 5.1 shows the background information of lecturers who took part in the study. Concerning gender, the majority were males (60%), and the rest were females (40%). In terms of the type of college, 48% per cent of the lecturers were from Public colleges, 36% from Grant Aided College and 16% from Private colleges. In terms of years of service at a given college at the time of the study, 44% of lecturers at their respective colleges had served for 2-5 years, 32% had served for 6-10 years, and 16% 11-20 years and 8% had served for more than 20 years.

Table 5.1 Background information of Social Studies lecturers sampled from Six Primary Colleges of Education (n = 25).

Characteristics	Frequency	Percent
Gender		
Male	15	60
Female	10	40
Type of college		
Grant Aided college	9	36
Public college	12	48
Private college	4	16
Years of service at the college		
2-5 years	11	44
6-10 years	8	32
11-20 years	4	16
More than 20 years	2	8
Total	25	100

The third-year pre-service student teachers under the Primary Diploma Programme were the other target population for this study. Background information shows that most of the student teachers drawn from 6 colleges (public, private, and Grant-aided) were females (62.9%), and 37% were male. Furthermore, Table 5.2 shows that 50.8% were from Public colleges, 27.6% from Grant-aided and 21.6% were from private colleges.

Table 5.2 Background information of final year student teachers from six primary colleges of education (n = 561)

Characteristics	Frequency	Percent
Gender		
Male	208	37.1
Female	353	62.9
Type of college		
Grant Aided college	155	27.6
Public college	285	50.8
Private college	121	21.6
Total	561	100

5.3 Collaborative, Inductive, and Experiential Learning

For purposes of this study, collaborative learning was used to refer to the kind of learning where group work, pair work, and whole-class discussion dominate the learning instruction while inductive learning was used to refer to the type of learning that invoke higher-order thinking through problem-solving, Project-based, inquiry, and modelling. Experiential learning, on the other hand, was used in this study to refer to the kind of learning that involves role-playing, debate, and fieldwork.

5.4 Findings related to specific questions

As mentioned earlier in chapter four, research objectives one, two, and three elicited both quantitative and qualitative data while research objectives four and five elicited qualitative information only. The data for research question four was reported in terms of the frequency of teacher and pupil-initiated interactions using discourse analysis of the video lessons. Focus Group Discussions, on the other hand, was used to collect data that addressed research question five and reported verbatim. However, for the sake of coherence, the researcher punctuated most of the responses to allow easy reading and comprehension of what the participants expressed. Although the two data sets are presented separately according to their respective research questions and objectives, this report keeps on referring to other questions and the relevant data in cases where they are suggesting similar conclusions. However, in chapter five, where the findings have been discussed, the interpretation compares and mixes them to facilitate the researcher's holistic understanding of the problem that was studied.

5.4.1 Social Studies lecturers' preparedness to support student teachers in the use of learner-centred practices.

Item 8 of the lecturers' questionnaire required lecturers on a 4 Likert Scale of (1 = not at all prepared, 2 = minimally prepared, 3 = adequately prepared, and 4 = very well prepared) to rate themselves how well prepared they felt to support student learning that required collaborative, inductive and experiential learning (see Appendix 5). Table 5.3 shows descriptive statistics of lecturers' responses.

Table 5.3 Social Studies lecturers' responses on their preparedness to support student learning that required collaborative, inductive, and experiential learning (n = 25).

Item	Response			
	Not at all prepared	Minimally prepared	Adequately prepared	Very well prepared
Requires collaboration. E.g. Group work, pair work, and whole class discussion	0 (0.0%)	2 (8.0%)	16 (64.0%)	7 (28.0%)
Requires Inductive learning E.g. problem solving, Project-based, inquiry, modelling etc.	0 (0.0%)	3 (12.0%)	11 (44.0%)	11 (44.0%)
Requires experiential learning. E.g. Role playing, debate, and field work	0 (0.0%)	9 (36.0%)	7 (28.0%)	9 (36.0%)
Average	0.0 (0.0%)	4.7 (18.7%)	11.3(45.3%)	9.0 (36.0%)

As depicted in Table 5.3, the average percentages show that most of the lecturers were either adequately prepared (45.3%) or very well prepared (36.0%) to support student learning that

required collaborative, inductive and experiential learning. On the other hand, however, 18.7% of the lecturers indicated being minimally prepared at the time of the survey.

5.4.1.1. Social Studies lecturers’ views on their sense of preparedness to support student learning that required collaborative, inductive, and experiential learning by type of college

Table 5.4 is a cross-tabulation that shows the distribution of lecturers’ views on how prepared they felt to support student learning that required collaborative, inductive and experiential learning across the three types of colleges that made the basis of this study. The views were measured on a Likert scale of 3; minimally prepared (3), adequately prepared (2), and Very well prepared (1). Overall, most of the lecturers from public, grant-aided and private colleges felt prepared to support student learning that required collaborative, inductive and experiential learning as depicted in Table 5.4. The percentages show that Social Studies from grant-aided colleges felt that they were either adequately prepared (44.4%) or very well prepared (44.4%) to facilitate learning that requires collaborative learning. On inductive learning, 66.7% felt adequately prepared, while 33.3% felt very well prepared. In public and private colleges, the picture was similar to that of grant-aided colleges on collaborative and inductive learning except on experiential learning where 50% of lecturers in private colleges (2 out 4) felt minimally prepared.

Table 5.4 Social Studies lecturers’ responses related to their sense of preparedness to support collaborative, inductive and experiential learning (n = 25).

Requires collaborative learning E.g. Group work, Pair work, whole class discussion.				Requires Inductive learning E.g. problem solving, Project-based, inquiry, modelling.			Requires experiential learning E.g. Role playing, fieldwork, and debate.			
College type	3	2	1	3	2	1	3	2	1	3
Grant-aided	1 (11.1%)	4 (44.4%)	4 (44.4%)	0 (0.0%)	6 (66.7%)	3 (33.3%)	3(33.3%)	3 (33.3%)	3 (33.3%)	9 (36.0%)
Public college	1 (8.3%)	8 (66.7%)	3 (25.0%)	2 (16.7%)	3 (25.0%)	7 (58.3%)	4(33.3%)	4 (33.3%)	4 (33.3%)	12 (48.0%)
Private college	0 (0.0%)	4 (100.0%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (25.0%)	2 (50.0%)	1 (25.0%)	2(50.0%)	0 (0.0%)	2(50.0%)	4(16.0%)
Total	2 (8.0%)	16 (64.0%)	7 (28.0%)	3 (12.0%)	11 (44.0%)	11 (44.0%)	9(36.0%)	7 (28.0%)	9 (36.0%)	25 (100%)

5.4.1.2 Comparison of lecturers’ sense of preparedness to support collaborative, inductive and experiential learning across public, grant-aided, and Private colleges.

This study used Kruskal-Wallis H test (an alternative to Anova) to test for differences in lecturers’ preparedness to support student learning that required collaborative, inductive and experiential

learning across the three types of colleges (Public, Grant-aided and Private Colleges. The results are presented in the Table 5.4.1

Table 5.4.1: Kruskal-Wallis H test on lecturers’ sense of preparedness in inductive, collaborative and experiential learning methods

Ranks			
	Type of college	N	Mean Rank
Collaborative method	Public college	9	14.61
	Grant Aided college	12	12.63
	Private college	4	10.50
	Total	25	
Inductive method	Public college	9	12.67
	Grant Aided college	12	14.25
	Private college	4	10.00
	Total	25	
Experiential method	Public college	9	13.00
	Grant Aided college	12	13.00
	Private college	4	13.00
	Total	25	

Test Statistics ^{a,b}			
	Collaborative	Inductive method	Experiential method
Chi-Square	1.289	1.241	.000
Df	2	2	2
Asymp. Sig.	.525	.538	1.000
a. Kruskal Wallis Test			
b. Grouping Variable: Type of college			

The results showed that lecturers’ preparedness to support student learning that requires collaborative learning did not differ across the three types of colleges $\chi^2(2) = 1.289$, $p = 0.525$, with a mean rank preparedness score of 14.61 for public colleges, 12.63 for grant-aided college and 10.50 for private colleges. Similarly, lecturers’ preparedness to support student learning that requires inductive and experiential learning did not differ across the three types of as shown in Table above. Based on these findings, it would appear that lecturers across the three types of colleges felt similar in their preparedness to support student learning that requires collaborative, inductive, and experiential learning.

5.4.1.3 Lecturers' professional development opportunities related to learner-centred teaching.

As a way of addressing objective one, the study collected information from lecturers on professional development opportunities related to learner-centred teaching. Responses from lecturers were rated on a 5 Likert scale of Strongly Disagree (5), Disagree (4), Neutral (3), Agree (2), and Strongly Agree (1) based on three items as presented in Table 5.5. As reflected in Table 5.5, a cumulative percentage of 52.0% of the lecturers expressed satisfaction with the opportunities for professional development on learner-centred learning with 11 lecturers (44.0%) agreeing and two lecturers (8.0%) strongly agreeing. On the other hand, three lecturers (12.0%) remained neutral and could neither agree nor disagree. On whether lecturers were receiving the professional development needed to implement learner-centred learning practices in the classroom, the results showed a cumulative percentage of 48.0% agreement with nine lecturers (36.0%) agreeing and three lecturers (12.0%) strongly agreeing with the statement. In addition, the cumulative percentage showed that 48.0% of the lecturers agreed with the statement that they were receiving the professional development needed to implement learner-centred learning practices in the classroom while four lecturers (16.0%) indicated neutral. Regarding lecturers' interest in pursuing professional development opportunities focusing on student-centred learning, 23 lecturers (92.0%) responded in affirmative.

Table 5.5 Lecturers' responses to items related to their professional development opportunities over the years (n = 25).

Item	Response					Cumulative	
	5	4	3	2	1	Disagree %	Agree %
I am interested in pursuing professional development opportunities focused on learner-centred learning.	1 (4.0%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (4.0%)	12 (48.0%)	11 (44.0%)	1 (4.0%)	23 (92.0%)
I am satisfied with the opportunities I have for professional development on learner-centred learning.	2 (8.0%)	7 (28.0%)	3 (12.0%)	11 (44.0%)	2 (8.0%)	9 (36.0%)	13 (52.0%)
I am receiving the professional development I need to implement learner-centred learning practices in my classroom.	1 (4.0%)	8 (32.0%)	4 (16.0%)	9 (36.0%)	3 (12.0%)	9 (36.0%)	12 (48.0%)

During interviews, however, one head of the Social Studies Section from a public college reported not receiving professional development opportunities through CPDs for examples on learner-centred education. The respondent reported that they rarely had professional development opportunities that were academic in nature and especially to do with how to teach or focussing on learner-centred methods.

In most cases, what we have is information sharing and this usually take place when some people return from a workshop. Such cases usually have to do with human resources related matters such as transfers, discipline, and professional conduct among others. We don't normally have workshops in academic related issues; say for example on how to teach with leaner-centred methods. The last time I remember we had a workshop as a college on how to teach focussing on language where everyone including those not belonging to language department were required to attend which didn't benefit us as Social Studies lecturers per say. (Head of section from a public college)

5.4.1.3.1 Cross-tabulations of Lecturers' responses to items related to their professional development opportunities over the years according to type of college

Table 5.6 represents a cross-tabulation that shows the distribution of lecturers' responses to items related to their professional development opportunities over the years based on the type of college. On being satisfied with the professional development focussing on student-centred learning, 55.6 % of lecturers from grant-aided colleges disagreed compared to lecturers from the public (33.3%) and private (0.0%) colleges. However, on average, all the lecturers from public, grant-aided and private colleges expressed strong willingness (92.0%) to pursue professional development opportunities focused on student-centred learning.

Table 5.6 Lecturers' responses to items related to their professional development opportunities over the years according to type of college (n =25).

College type	I am satisfied with the opportunities I have for professional development focussing on student-centred learning.			I am interested in pursuing professional development opportunities focused on student-centred learning.			I am receiving the professional development I need to implement learner-centred learning practices in my classroom.		
	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree
Grant-aided	5(55.6%)	1(11.1%)	3 (33.3%)	0 (0.0%)	0(0.0%)	9(100%)	4(44.4%)	2(22.2%)	3(33.3%)
Public college	4(33.3%)	2(16.7%)	6 (50.0%)	1 (8.3%)	1(8.3%)	10(83.3%)	5(41.6%)	2(16.7%)	5(41.6%)
Private college	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	4 (100%)	0 (0.0%)	0(0.0%)	4 (100%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	4 (100%)
Total	9(36.0%)	3(12.0%)	13(52.0%)	1(4.0%)	1 (4%)	23(92%)	9(36.0%)	4(16.0%)	19(76%)

5.4.2 Classroom instructional practices of Social Studies lecturers during teacher preparation

For the sake of this study, classroom instructional practices of Social Studies lecturers were grouped into three; *Inductive*, *Collaborative*, and *experiential* classroom instructional practices (*learning methods*). Data on lecturers' classroom instructional practices was collected based on nine constructs as presented in the following subthemes.

5.4.2.1 Social Studies lecturers' frequency of providing instructional activities that required collaborative, inductive, and experiential learning.

The study through the questionnaire also required lecturers to respond to items that needed them to indicate the frequency of providing instructions that encouraged learner-centred through collaborative, inductive and experiential learning activities to which lecturers indicated their views in the form of Never (1), Occasionally (2), Often (3), or All the time (4), as depicted in Table 5.7. The results show that by providing instructional opportunities that required students to engage in collaborative learning, seven lecturers (28.0%) reported occasionally, 13 (52.0%) said often, and 5 (20.0%) reported All the time. On providing instructional opportunities that required students to engage in inductive learning, 15 lecturers (60.0%) reported occasionally utilising this instructional strategy while 5 (20.0%) lecturers rated this strategy as often and another 5 (20.0%) as all the time. Concerning lecturers providing instructional opportunities that required students to engage in experiential learning, nine lectures (36.0%) reported occasionally, 12 lecturers (48.0%) indicated often, and four lecturers (16.0%) indicated all the time.

Table 5.7 Social Studies lecturers' responses to items related to how often they provided instruction that requires collaborative, inductive, and experiential learning

Item	Response			
	Never (1)	Occasionally (2)	Often (3)	All the time (4)
Requires collaboration. E.g. Group work, pair work, and whole class discussion	0 (0.0%)	7 (28.0%)	13(52.0%)	5 (20.0%)
Require Inductive learning. E.g. problem solving, Project based, Inquiry, and Model making etc.	0 (0.0%)	15 (60.0%)	5 (20.0%)	5 (20.0%)
Requires experiential learning. E.g. Role playing, debate, and field work	0 (0.0%)	9 (36.0%)	12(48.0%)	4 (16.0%)
Average percentage	0 (0.0%)	10.3 (41.3%)	10(40.0%)	4.7 (18.7%)

5.4.2.2 Social Studies lecturers' responses to items related to how often they provided instructions that required collaborative, inductive and experiential learning by type of college.

Table 5.8 shows that lecturers from private colleges (100%) were more likely to occasionally use collaborative learning methods compared to lecturers in public (25.0%) and grant-aided colleges (22.2%). On inductive learning, lecturers from public colleges (58.3%) and lecturers from grant-aided colleges (55.6%) were more likely to often use inductive learning compared to lecturers in private colleges (25.0%). When it came to experiential learning, lecturers from public colleges

(75.0%) were more likely to occasionally use experiential learning methods compared to lecturers from private (50.0) and grant-aided colleges (44.4%).

Table 5.8 Social Studies lecturers’ responses related to frequency of providing instruction that requires collaborative, inductive and experiential learning according to type of college.

	Requires collaborative learning E.g. Group work, pair work, and whole class discussion			Requires inductive learning such as problem solving, etc.		
College type	<i>Occasionally</i>	<i>Often</i>	<i>All the time</i>	<i>Occasionally</i>	<i>Often</i>	<i>All the time</i>
Grant aided	2 (22.2%)	4 (44.4%)	3 (33.3%)	3 (33.3%)	5 (55.6%)	1 (11.1%)
Public college	3 (25.0%)	8 (66.7%)	1 (8.3%)	3 (25.0%)	7 (58.3%)	2 (16.7%)
Private college	4 (100%)	0(0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (25.0%)	1(25.0%)	2 (50.0%)
Total	9 (36.0%)	12 (48.0%)	4 (16.0%)	7 (28.0%)	13 (52.0%)	5 (20.0%)
	Requires experiential learning. E.g. Role playing, debate, and field work					
	<i>Occasionally</i>	<i>Often</i>	<i>All the time</i>	<i>Total</i>		
Grant aided	4 (44.4%)	4 (44.4%)	1(11.1%)	9 (36.0%)		
Public college	9 (75.0%)	1(8.3%)	2(16.7%)	12 (48.0%)		
Private college	2 (50.0%)	0 (0.0%)	2(50.0%)	4 (16.0%)		
Total	15 (60.0%)	5 (20.0%)	5(20.0%)	25 (100%)		

5.4.2.3 Social Studies lecturers’ ratings of instructional activities regarding their importance in the classroom.

Strong research evidence exists to support the use of learner-centred methods as opposed to teacher-centred methods. Many teacher educators have alleged that learner-centred methods equip teachers with the needed concepts, knowledge, attitudes, skills and techniques to efficiently handle Social Studies at the primary level (Evans, 1972). An extensive literature review conducted by McKeachie (1994, p.77) on school teaching methods concluded that “If we want learners to become more effective in meaningful learning and thinking, they need to spend more time inactive, meaningful learning and thinking, not just sitting and passively receiving information”.

Therefore, envisioned benefits of learner-centred learning approach could only be realized if the teacher educators (lecturers) attach great importance to instructional activities that help promote learner-centred learning. Against this background, one of the items in the survey questionnaire required lecturers to rate instructional activities regarding their importance to classroom instructions. A 4 Likert Scale on 14 items that required lecturers to indicate not important, less important, important, and very important (Table 5.9) was used to solicit for information. Data on

this aspect was important as it was meant to make meaning of the study by collaborating with earlier data on lecturers' rating of instructional activities which took up most of their time over the course of a typical week and lecturers' responses on how often student teachers were engaged in selected types of instructional activities in class. The argument is that the level of importance that teacher educators attach to a given instruction activity will influence its frequency use and engagement of learners in such instruction activities. The general picture that emerged was that lecturers rated highly important the instructional activities used in this study (see Table 5.9). The problem, however, was low implementation or practice of these instructional activities, especially those that facilitated inductive learning such as critical thinking or problem-solving. For example, instruction activities such as leading a class of students doing an investigation that demands complex reasoning (56.0%); facilitating a whole discussion where students present ideas or give/receive feedback (56.0%); and providing instruction through extended formal presentation/lecture (52.0%) were rated as important.

Table 5.9 Lecturers' ratings of instructional activities regarding their importance in the classroom.

Item	Response			
	Not important	Less important	Important	Very important
Lead a class of students doing an investigation that demands complex reasoning	4 (16.0%)	0 (0.0%)	14 (56.0%)	7 (28.0%)
Provide instruction through extended formal presentation/lecture	5 (20.0%)	0 (0.0%)	13 (52.0%)	7 (28.0%)
Facilitate a whole discussion where students present ideas or give/receive feedback	4 (16.0%)	0 (0.0%)	14 (56.0%)	7 (28.0%)
Organize and facilitate a student-led activity	3 (12.0%)	2 (8.0%)	9 (36.0%)	11 (44.0%)
Provide students with in-depth guidance on the content or organization of their work	5 (20.0%)	6 (24.0%)	6 (24.0%)	8 (32.0%)
Answer procedural questions about individual or group work and/or help students stay on task	5 (20.0%)	4 (16.0%)	8 (32.0%)	8 (32.0%)
Ask open-ended questions to promote engagement with big ideas	4 (16.0%)	2 (8.0%)	10 (40.0%)	9 (36.0%)
Give written feedback on student work	3 (12.0%)	3 (12.0%)	8 (32.0%)	11 (44.0%)
Give oral feedback on student work	6 (24.0%)	2 (8.0%)	5 (20.0%)	12 (48.0%)
Have students explore alternative methods for solving problems/conducting investigations	5 (20.0%)	0 (0.0%)	9 (36.0%)	11 (44.0%)
Modify or adjust instruction based on informal class assessments	7 (28.0%)	2 (8.0%)	9 (36.0%)	7 (28.0%)
Model for students how to approach a problem or task	6 (24.0%)	3 (12.0%)	12 (48.0%)	4 (16.0%)
Differentiate activities or instruction to meet individual students' needs	5 (20.0%)	2 (8.0%)	8 (32.0%)	10 (40.0%)
Make connections between content and/or activities and students personalized learning plans of pathways	5 (24.0%)	1 (4.0%)	9 (36.0%)	9 (36.0%)

5.4.2.4 Social Studies Lecturers' rating of instructional activities which took up most of their time over the course of a typical week.

It can be argued that the amount of importance a teacher attaches to a particular type of instructional activity or practice will inevitably influence or persuade the frequency of its usage in the classroom. Based on this argument, the study elicited for lecturers' rating of instructional activities which took up most of their time over the course of a typical week according to type of college. The following instructional activities were utilised in this study as a basis for data collection.

- 1) Lead a class of students doing an investigation that demands complex reasoning
- 2) Provide instruction through extended formal presentation/lecture
- 3) Facilitate a whole class discussion where students present ideas or give/receive feedback
- 4) Organize and facilitate a student-led activity
- 5) Answer procedural questions about individual or group work and/or help students stay on task
- 6) Ask open-ended questions to promote engagement with big ideas
- 7) Have students explore alternative methods for solving problems/conducting investigations
- 8) Model for students how to approach a problem or task
- 9) Differentiate activities or instruction to meet individual students' needs
- 10) Make connections between content and/or activities and students personalized learning plans of pathways

The 10 instructional activities if utilised in the teaching and learning process provide an indication of learner-centred approaches being utilised in teacher preparation. Table 5.10 presents views of Social Studies lecturers drawn from public, private and grant-aided colleges regarding instructional activities that took up most of their time over the course of a typical week.

Table 5.10 Lecturers' rating of instructional activities which took up most of their time over the course of a typical week.

Instructional activities	Response			
	Always	Frequently	Rarely	Never
Lead a class of students doing an investigation that demands complex reasoning	7 (28.0%)	5 (20.0%)	3 (12.0%)	10 (40.0%)
Provide instruction through extended formal presentation/lecture	13(52.0%)	5 (20.0%)	2 (8.0%)	5 (20.0%)
Facilitate a whole class discussion where students present ideas or give/receive feedback	6 (24.0%)	5 (20.0%)	3 (12.0%)	11 (44.0%)
Organize and facilitate a student-led activity	4 (16.0%)	4 (16.0%)	6 (24.0%)	11 (44.0%)
Answer procedural questions about individual or group work and/or help students stay on task	4 (16.0%)	4 (16.0%)	3 (12.0%)	14 (56.0%)
Ask open-ended questions to promote engagement with big ideas	4 (16.0%)	5 (20.0%)	0 (0.0%)	16 (64.0%)

Have students explore alternative methods for solving problems/conducting investigations	6 (24.0%)	2 (8.0%)	5 (20.0%)	12 (48.0%)
Model for students how to approach a problem or task	2 (8.0%)	3 (12.0%)	8 (32.0%)	12 (48.0%)
Differentiate activities or instruction to meet individual students' needs	3 (12.0%)	7 (28.0%)	3 (12.0%)	12 (48.0%)
Make connections between content and/or activities and students personalized learning plans of pathways	7 (28.0%)	2 (8.0%)	4 (16.0%)	12 (48.0%)

The first instructional activity addressed the issue of engaging students in complex reasoning activities. It required lecturers to indicate how often they engaged students in investigations that demanded complex reasoning such as engaging students in tasks with no single correct answer, application of previously learnt content to new problems and new contexts and or support ideas with evidence. Table 5.10 shows that of the 25 lecturers whose views are presented, 10 lecturers (40.0%) indicated never to engaging students doing an investigation that demands complex reasoning and 3 lecturers (12.0%) rated it as rarely while 7 lecturers (28.0 %) rated engaging students in complex reasoning activities as always, and 5 lecturers (20.0%) rated it as frequently

In terms of facilitating a whole-class discussion where students presented ideas or gave feedback during lessons, six lecturers (24.0%) rated it as always, five lecturers (20.0%) rated it as frequently, and three lecturers (12.0%) rated it as rare. The remaining 11 lecturers (44.4%) never facilitated a whole class discussion where students presented ideas or gave feedback during lessons. Furthermore, on instructional activities that required student teachers to answer procedural questions at individual or in groups as well as helping students stay on task, more than half of the lecturers (56.0%) indicated never to using this instruction activity while 3 lecturers (12.0%) rated it as rarely while 4 lecturers (16%) rated it as always and frequently respectively. With regard to asking open-ended questions meant to promote engagement in big ideas, 16 lecturers (64.0%) rated this instructional activity as never in terms of it taking up most of the teaching time. The picture is not very different from other instructional activities. In practice, lectures' ratings did not reflect a deep sense of implementation of learner-centred instruction activities.

Figure 5.1 is a graphical representations of lecturers' rating of instructional activities which took up most of their time over the course of a typical week. It is evident from figure 5.1 that instructional activities that evoked independence and higher order thinking skills on the part of student teachers were not frequently utilised instead, there was a persistent presence of a lecturer-led or controlled type of classroom instructional activities.

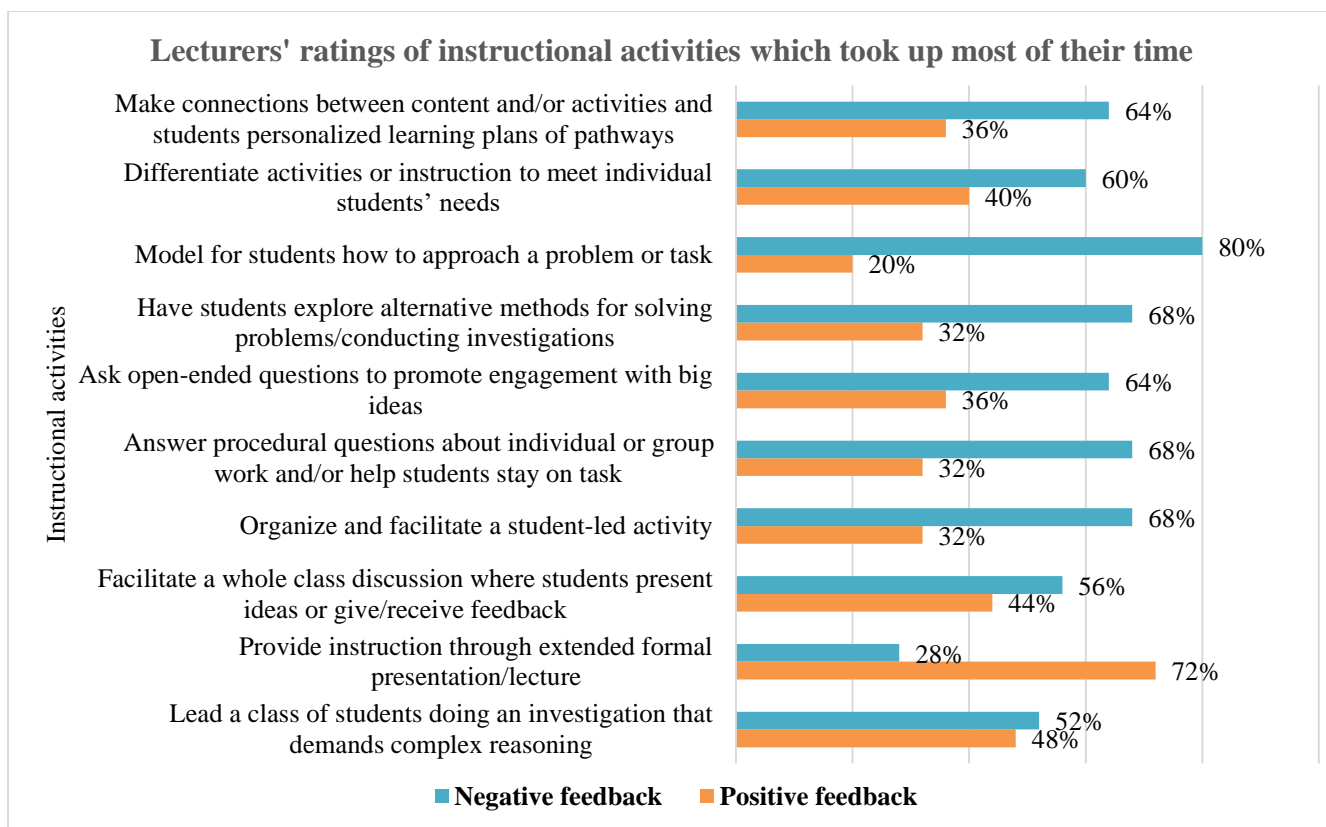


Figure 5.1 Lecturers' ratings of instructional activities

5.4.2.5 Social Studies lecturers' ratings of student teachers' engagement in learner- centred related instructional activities in class during teacher preparation

Since learner-centred instruction urges students to actively construct meaning and understanding during every phase of the learning process, it can serve as an invaluable tool to help realise the vital goals of Social Studies education. In order to address objective two on lecturers' teaching instruction practices and how they related to implementation of learner-centred methods, the survey questionnaire included an item that solicited for lecturers' response to frequency of engaging student teachers in selected types of instructional activities in class using a five Likert Scale which ranged from Never, Rarely, Sometimes, Often and Everyday (see Table 5.11 and Figure 5.2).

Table 5.11 Social Studies lecturers' responses on how often student teachers were engaged in selected types of instructional activities in class.

Item	Response				
	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Everyday
Participate in student-led discussions or activities	1 (4.0%)	1 (4.0%)	6 (24.0%)	13 (52.0%)	4 (16.0%)
Participate in discussions led by the teacher	1 (4.0%)	1 (4.0%)	5 (20.0%)	16 (64.0%)	2 (8.0%)
Listen to teacher presentation/lecture	1 (4.0%)	1 (4.0%)	5 (20.0%)	11 (44.0%)	7 (28.0%)
Make formal presentations to the class	1 (4.0%)	0 (0.0%)	12 (48.0%)	8 (32.0%)	4 (16.0%)
Work together in pairs or small groups on an assigned task	1 (4.0%)	1 (4.0%)	12 (48.0%)	8 (32.0%)	3 (12.0%)
Work individually on an assigned task	1 (4.0%)	1 (4.0%)	9 (36.0%)	10 (40.0%)	4 (16.0%)
Explain their reasoning or defend a position orally or in writing	1 (4.0%)	2 (8.0%)	13 (52.0%)	4 (16.0%)	5 (20.0%)
Answer textbook/worksheet questions	2 (8.0%)	7 (28.0%)	9 (36.0%)	6 (24.0%)	1 (4.0%)
Work on solving a real-world problem or hands-on experiments	1 (4.0%)	11 (44.0%)	5 (20.0%)	5 (20.0%)	3 (12.0%)
Design or implement their own investigations or research projects	2 (8.0%)	4 (16.0%)	15 (60.0%)	2 (8.0%)	2 (8.0%)
Write reflections on progress	4 (16.0%)	11 (44.0%)	5 (20.0%)	3 (12.0%)	2 (8.0%)
Work on materials for a portfolio	2 (8.0%)	9 (36.0%)	7 (28.0%)	5 (20.0%)	2 (8.0%)
Engage in performance assessments involving teachers and peers	2 (8.0%)	6 (24.0%)	7 (28.0%)	6 (24.0%)	4 (16.0%)
Take notes	0 (0.0%)	2 (8.0%)	6 (24.0%)	11 (44.0%)	6 (24.0%)
Incorporate feedback into their work	1 (4.0%)	3 (12.0%)	13 (52.0%)	5 (20.0%)	3 (12.0%)

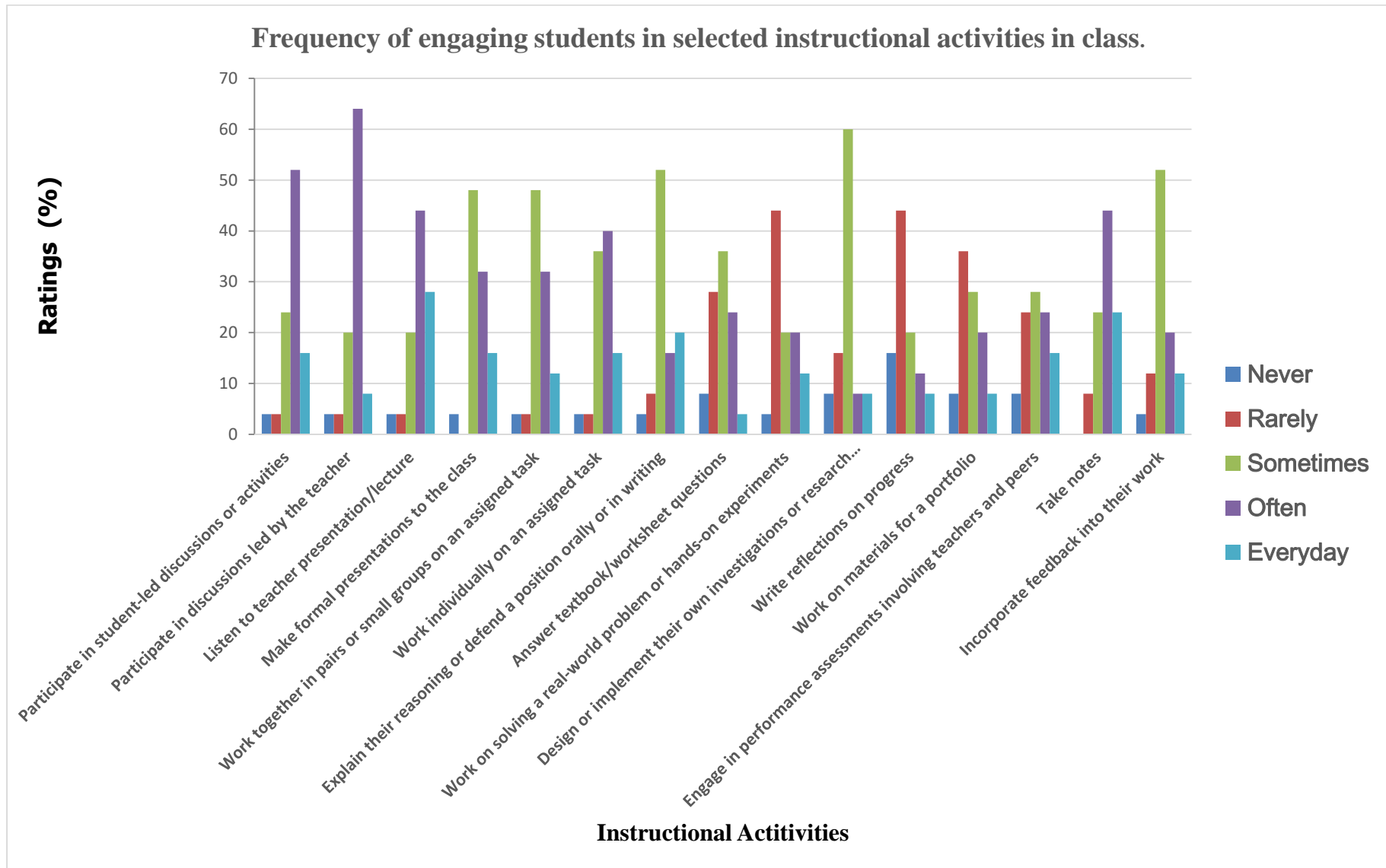


Figure 5.2 Frequency of engaging students in selected instructional activities in class

Some worth noting results from Table 5.11 and Figure 5.2 with regard to lecturers' engaging their students in work related to solving a real-world problem or hands-on experiments were that 11 lecturers (44.0%) rarely indicated, 5 lecturers (20.0%) sometimes indicated, 3 lecturers (12.0%) every day, and one lecturer indicated never (4.0%). In addition, 15 lecturers (60.0%) indicated that they sometimes engaged student teachers to design or implement their own investigations or research projects. Furthermore, four lecturers (16.0%) indicated rarely; 2 (8.0%) never, 2 (8.0%) often, and 2 (8.0%) every day to engage student teachers to design or implement their own investigations or research projects.

On listening to the teacher presentation or lecture type of instructional activities, 11 lecturers (44.0%) rated it often; 7 (28.0%) everyday; 5 (20%) sometimes; and 1 (4%) rarely and never respectively. With regard to student participation in discussions led by the teacher, 16 lecturers (64.0) rated it as often; 5 (20.0%) sometimes; and two lecturers (8.0%) every day. Taking notes in class, on the other hand, was rated as often by 11 lecturers (44.0%); every day and sometimes by six lecturers (24%) respectively; and rarely by 2 (8.0%). It is also clear from Table 5.11 that 13 lecturers (52.0%) rated engagement in student-led discussions or activities as often; 6 lecturers (24%) as sometimes, and 4 lecturers (16.0%) rated as every day. Making formal presentations to the class was another activity that was popular with 12 lecturers (48.0%) rating it sometimes, eight lecturers (32.0%) often, and four lecturers (16.0%) rating it as every day.

Collaborative work in pairs or small groups on assigned tasks also came out as one of the most common instructional activities that student teachers were engaged in with 12 lecturers (48.0%) indicating sometimes; 8 lecturers (32.0%) as often; and three lecturers (12.0%) every day. Work on materials for a Portfolios was unpopular with nine lecturers (36.0%) rating it as rare; 7 lecturers (28.0%) as sometimes; and only two lecturers (8.0%) reported every day to use materials for portfolios.

5.4.2.6 Classroom instructional practices that dominated most of the student teachers' classrooms during school experience

Apart from the quantitative data collected from the lecturers on instruction activities that took up most of the teaching time and student teachers' engagement in the learner-centred related instructional activities in class during teacher preparation, the study also collected qualitative data from student teachers through Focus Group Discussion. The idea was to tap into student teachers' experiences on classroom instruction methods that dominated their teaching during school

experience and compare it with the quantitative data collected from lecturers on instruction activities that took up most of their teaching time during teacher preparation. The rationale was to use student teachers' experiences as a basis for judging whether the learner-centred approaches to learning took centre stage in student teachers' lessons during school experience.

It was observed from the focus group discussions that most of the classroom instructional practices that dominated student teachers' classrooms during school experience included group work, class discussion, and question and answer. The following were the views and perspectives of student teachers on classroom instruction practices that dominated most of their classrooms during school experience.

During focus group discussion in one of the public colleges' survey, one male participant expressed his views that;

"I, for one, put them in groups when I had double periods. Single periods I used question and answer methods. This is because whenever I used group work in a single period, the possibility of achieving the objectives was slim unless otherwise (Participant 11).

During the same focus group discussion, another male participant commented;

"I think in our discipline as social scientists when you weigh all the best approaches in a learner-centred approaches; group discussion is much efficient, cheaper in terms of resources and very accommodative where time is concerned" (Participant 14).

In agreeing with the views of participant 14, a female participant told the researcher that;

"Yes, sir most teachers at our school have resorted to group work because it's the easiest way to help children grasp the concepts. They helped identify those that were not attentive and of course the slow learners. This sir helped because I only ended up with few pupils to help during and after a lesson" (Participant 20).

In another separate focus group discussion at a grant-aided college, one participant narrated;

"In the upper section, learner-centred is the best. I normally used the reflection method by asking each pupil to say anything they have learnt. In this way, learners were able to bring up even the information I had forgotten as a teacher. Pupils enjoyed, and there was full participation" (female Participant 5).

During the same focus group discussion, another female participant informed the researcher that;

"Question and answer method. It helped find out whether learners understood what they were taught and gave them an opportunity to participate fully and effectively.

Also Group work method. This encouraged learners to participate fully in a lesson and to interact with each other and express their views” (Participant 6).

Another participant commented that;

“Class discussion because the method encouraged learners to participate in the lesson” (Male participant 7).

The following views were also shared by participants 4, 8, 9, 10, 12.

“I used a group work method in order to ensure that all the learners were actively involved in the lesson. I also used the class discussion method. Through this, more ideas about the subject were gotten from the learners. It also helped me to know what learners knew about the subject (participant 8).

“I used group work because in group work children interacted more thereby involving the slow learners as well” (participant 9)

“I use group work to make learners interact among themselves. They are free to learn from one another” (participant, 10).

“I used a group work method because it enabled learners to freely interact with their fellow learners as they are put in groups. It also accommodates even those learners who are closed up for they are able to contribute something as they discuss with their fellow learners” (participant 12).

“Groups work and discussion reasons being that group work involves all learners in the lesson, learners participate fully with the peers and learners express themselves confidently” (participant 4).

Other participants during focus group discussions also cited group work and class discussion methods as some of the common learner-centred methods used during school experience. These participants (13, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, and 20) had the following to say;

“Class discussion and group work. It made learners think aloud together. It also helped to correct misunderstanding” (Participant 13).

“Group work reason being that I had a lot of pupils in my class. It served me time, and on the part of the pupils, it made everyone participate and work together and even help themselves. Pupils actually learnt well from one another” (Participant 15).

“Group work. I usually asked my learners to do group work and discuss and share ideas on the things I want them to learn. This was helpful to both me, the teacher and the learners in that the learners interacted in finding the answers to the question. Learners also shared ideas and agreed on one thing, which was good because working together is part of learning. It was even easy for me to evaluate my learners” (Participant 16, 17).

“From my experience, there were few methods of learner-centred approaches that were used by student teachers. I noted that mainly, group work, discussion and question and answer were the main methods that were common, the rest were in a bin” (Participant 18).

“I used group discussion, and this was always done perfectly. When it came to the presentation, they did well, especially the girls. They were able to write and read on their own, especially that it was in the local language for a lower grade” (Participant 19).

“I mainly used group work because, in group work, learners achieve skills such as leadership, work independently, and share ideas” (Participant 20).

In addition, another participant from a private college acknowledged that the Discovery method was sometimes used to facilitate learning during school experience. The participant informed the researcher that;

“Discovery method- because it makes learners think critically even as they try to find out what really goes on with the area of discovery given” (Male participant 26).

When asked about the reasons for embracing methods that encouraged learner-centred learning, the following statements were expressed by most participants.

- a. The learner-centred approaches is very important because it brings about improved participation, Improved retention of knowledge, develops problem-solving skills, and Makes learning more fun.
- b. Learners are active, there is good pupil-pupil interaction, and Learners develop high self-esteem.

- c. Learners are involved in the lesson and feel motivated, Learners' ideas and contributions are acknowledged and praised, instils critical thinking, allows learners to participate fully and with confidence, helps develop leadership skills, helps learners not to forget concepts easily learn especially after experiencing it through such methods as fieldwork.
- d. Learners get to participate actively, it's a good way of managing the class, Learners effectively learn when they participate, allows learners to share ideas, and it stimulates competitiveness and boosts confidence in the learners.
- e. Encourages learner participation, encourages more interactions between learners and the teacher, pupil to pupil interaction, and pupil to material interaction, a good way of managing the class
- f. It helps Learners to learn through friends, it is a good way of managing the class, learners effectively learn when they participate, allows learners to share ideas, and it stimulates competitiveness and boosts confidence in the learners.

It was clear from the students that mostly they used question and answer, class discussion and group work instructional practice. In terms of the reasons why they resorted to such methods, students seemed to suggest a whole lot of reasons to justify their classroom instructional practice some of which bordered on encouraging pupil participation and sharing of views, ideas and knowledge; large numbers of pupils per class, time factor to complete the planned work among other reasons.

5.4.2.7 Views from three Heads of Social Studies Sections from public, grant-aided, and private colleges on common classroom instructional practices employed by student teachers during school experience.

In addition, the Heads of Social Studies Section in three colleges were also interviewed to give their perspective on the classroom instruction practices (methods) that dominated student teachers classrooms during their school experience monitoring exercise. This was meant to add a voice from teacher trainers (supervisors) on classroom instructional practices that dominated classroom instructional practices. The views were on the common classroom instructional practice of student teachers during school experience, as observed during school experience monitoring exercise. Following this paragraph are the narrations from the three Heads of Social Studies Section.

One head of section at a private primary teacher college informed the researcher that;

“The practices that we have seen as we monitor teachers is that sometimes students still want to go back to the old methods (lecture/teacher exposition) where a teacher wants to explain everything to the learners, yes we have that in most observations” (Head of section 1).

In another separate interview at a grant-aided college, the head of the section for Social Studies reported that;

“The common learner-centred method is group work. Then also they use the probe for answers from learners (question and answer). At times they would like to do it themselves where the teacher is just talking, but we discourage the teacher exposition and encourage the group work and question and answer so that as you probe you will be leading pupils into coming up with answers” (Head of section 2).

Another Head of the section for Social Studies at a public college narrated that;

“We have monitored some lessons, our main focus is outcome-based, are they archiving, and are the outcomes or objectives reached. What approaches is the teacher using to achieve those outcomes? Then we also look at how did the pupils benefit from the lesson, how where they participated in that lesson, how was the relation between the teacher and pupils and pupils to pupils, *these* are issues we look at when observing a lesson which is delivered. Yes, we have an instrument we use for monitoring these lessons” (Head of section 3).

5.4.2.8 Opportunities for pedagogical practice in learner-centred methods during teacher preparation.

Teacher education curriculum needs to include at its core opportunities to learn to perform a repertoire of teaching tasks and to choose among them with deliberate attention to pupils, as well as opportunities to acquire content and foundational knowledge centrally crucial to the work of teaching. It is against this background that this study as a way of addressing objective three sought to investigate the teaching instruction practices of lecturers in implementing learner-centred approaches in primary teacher colleges. Data on this construct was collected from the heads of section through interview and student teachers through both focus group and questionnaire.

a) Interview with the Heads of the Social Studies Section

Regarding opportunities for students to experience various teaching cultures including learner-centred practices during teacher preparation, the Heads of sections narrated the different ways used to expose student teachers to good teaching practices including those related to learner-centred approaches. Four Heads of Section; one from grant aided college, one from private, and two from

public colleges of education shared similar views on this subject. The Heads of section reported that student teachers were usually exposed to a three weeks macro teaching in demonstration primary schools and to peer teaching within the college. The Heads added that during this period, student teachers were expected to do lesson preparations together with practicing (experienced) teachers in the first week and two weeks was reserved for actual teaching.

It was further reviewed that lecturers in respective study areas were also transported around this collaborative schools daily from Monday to Friday in order for them to be part of the students' macro experience and offer scaffolding help whenever needed together with the local teachers. The problem however was that the practice of exposing students to macro teaching in demonstration schools was not a common practice in all the colleges. Even those colleges that practiced macro teaching as a way of exposing students to more real classroom experience during teacher preparation, had expressed fear of the sustainability of this practice citing logistical challenges related to transport and financial aspect attached to the exercise. These challenges limited the frequency of students being exposed to such real time experiences in primary schools. There was in fact an indication from one of the Head of section that macro teaching in demonstration schools may come to an end and instead peer teaching to be the main activity. The following accounts reports what the Heads of section had to say on the matter.

We have a working relationship with about 10 to 12 schools around this area where we attach our students for micro teaching. The first week is usually spent on lesson preparation with the help or guidance of local teachers who act as mentors. The last two weeks is spent on actual teaching. The students are taken in the morning and brought back later in the afternoon. The lecturers are also transported to these schools to be part of the exercise and to help guide students. The activity however has its own logistical challenges and most likely this may not continue going forward. We shall just intensify on peer teaching (Head of section from a grant-aided college).

Another Head of section reported the following;

Yes we do have three demonstration schools. So before students start peer teaching, we arrange with teachers from demo schools to come into college with their learners (pupils), sit with students and do demo with them. This is usually organised by the CPD committee and the school experience committee. Though we do have a challenge because those teachers want to be paid. For example if it is mathematics or social studies, those teachers would come and demonstrate to the learners on how they are supposed to go about a given lesson on a certain topic. Thereafter the student teachers are given topics which they go and teach in those demonstration schools

under the guidance of teachers from demonstration schools. This is done in first term of second year beginning week seven. This is done for three weeks by demo teachers. Thereafter lecturers start their peer teaching activities (Head of section from a public college).

In addition, one Head of section from a public college also had the following to say on opportunities given to student teachers to learn and practice good teaching cultures while in college before graduation;

We are collaborating with about four schools where we implement a programme called macro teaching. So when that time comes, we send our students to observe the practicing teachers on how they teach and sometimes we ask the teachers to come into the college. This is organised by the school experience committee and macro teaching is done in all the study areas. But because the number of subjects is many (7), students are only exposed to one observation per study area in order to accommodate all the students and also cater for all the subjects. So depending on the situation, students may start with peer (micro) teaching and then after they go for macro teaching in the schools or vice versa. While in these schools, lecturers also accompany them to provide guidance. Though we do have some challenges more especially in terms of transport and large class sizes. You know they need to observe those teachers teach, so they need to be in those classes...again looking at the number of pupils in those classes plus our student, it's clouded making the whole exercise ineffective.

On the same issue of opportunities for students to practice learner-centred instructions during teacher preparation, one Head of section from a private college reported that the college only organised peer teaching and that there was no macro teaching done by students in surrounding schools before going for a full term on school experience (teaching practice).

We only manage to organise peer teaching within the college but not micro teaching in the surrounding schools. Macro teaching used to be there sometime back but we no longer do that. Peer teaching has its own challenges but we try by all means to ensure every student presents.

b) Questionnaire data from student teachers across public, grant-aided, and private colleges of education

Table 5.12 also presents student-teacher' responses from a questionnaire on opportunities given to student teachers to practice learner-centred related instructional activities. As depicted in Table 5.12, most of the student teachers disagreed with being given opportunities for pedagogical practice of different learner-centred methods. The cumulative percentages show that 48.0% of the

student teachers disagreed compared to 29.6% of student teachers who agreed to being given opportunities for pedagogical practice of different learner-centred methods, while 22.5% were undecided.

Table 5.12 Distribution of student teachers' views on whether teacher preparation provided adequate opportunities for pedagogical practice of learner-centred methods

Statement	SA		A		UD		D		SD		Cumulative	
	N	(%)	N	(%)	n	(%)	n	(%)	n	(%)	Agree (%)	Disagree (%)
Teacher preparation provides adequate opportunities to learn, observe and practice learner-centred methods	95.0	16.9	71	12.7	126	22.5	143	25.5	126	22.5	29.6	48.0

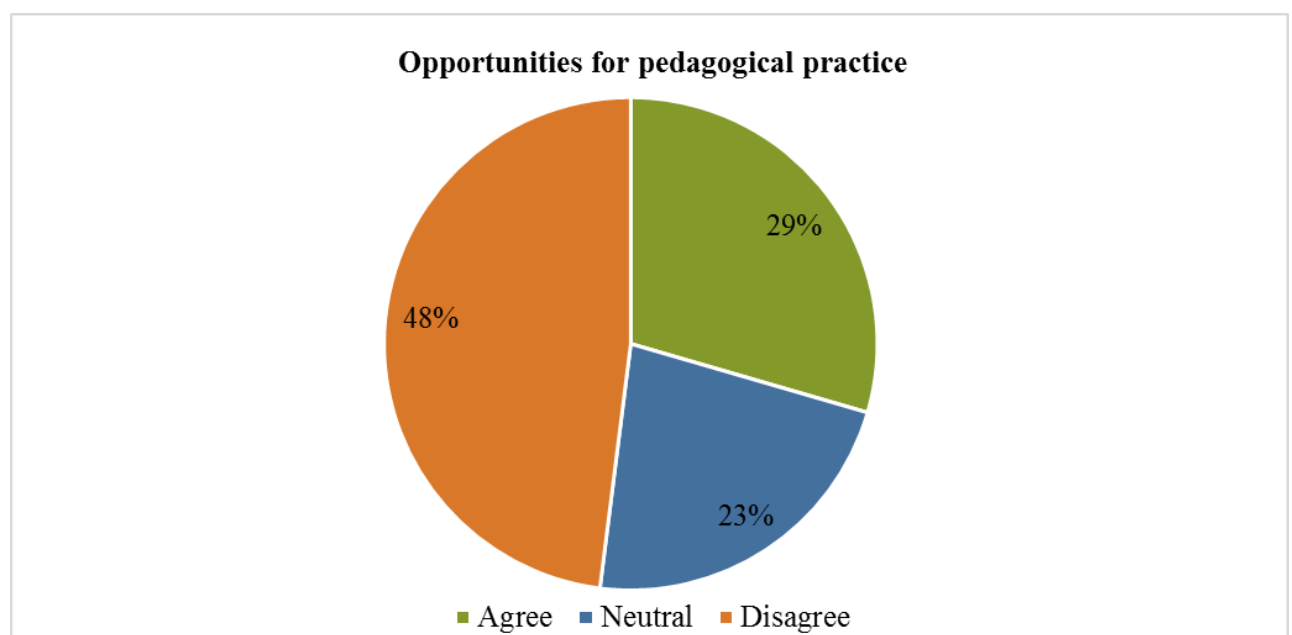


Figure 5.3 Opportunities for pedagogical practice

Results from Figure 5.3 showed that 48.0% of student teachers disagreed with being given opportunities for pedagogical practice in inductive, collaborative, and experiential learning methods while 29% agreed, and 23% were neutral on this matter. These results affirm the findings from a 10 month ethnographic study done at teachers' college by Vavrus (2009) in Tanzania. The aim of Vavrus' (2009) was to assess the implementation of constructivist approaches advocated in policy and curriculum in Tanzania. The study revealed that student teachers did not have time, support, and training opportunities to practise enacting more constructivist viewpoints. As a result, student teachers did not fully grasp LCE by graduation. Nakabugo et al. (2006) who investigated possible forms of class organisation and teaching styles that are suitable for mediating learning in large classes in Primary schools in Uganda also revealed that daily homework given to students was too much;

that too little time was given to students to practice what was taught; and that too many exercise books per subject and student.

The study used the Kruskal-Wallis H test to test for differences in student teachers' views on being given opportunities to practice how to teach using learner-centred learning methods across three types of colleges (Private, Grant-aided and Public colleges). As reflected in Table 5.12.1, a Kruskal-Wallis H test results revealed that there was no statistically significant difference in pre-service student teachers' views about being given adequate opportunities to practice how to teach using learner-centred learning methods between the different types of colleges, $\chi^2(2) = 0.370$, $p = 0.831$, with a mean rank opportunity score of 287.51 for private colleges, 276.42 for grant-aided college and 280.74 for public colleges. This meant that the differences in pre-service student teachers' views about being given opportunities to practice how to teach using learner-centred learning methods did not differ statistically. In other words, there was no significant difference in the way student teachers from the three types of college felt about being given adequate opportunities to practice how to teach using learner-centred methods. Therefore, we can confidently state that students across the three types of colleges were not given enough opportunities to practice how to teach using learner-centred learning methods.

Table 5.12.1: Kruskal-Wallis H test results on students' views on opportunities for pedagogical practice

Ranks			
	Type of college	N	Mean Rank
Pre-service student teachers' views about being given opportunities to practice how to teach using learner-centred learning methods	Private college	120	287.51
	Grant-aided college	154	276.42
	Public college	287	280.74
	Total	561	
Test Statistics^{a,b}			
	Pre-service student teachers' views about being given opportunities to practice how to teach using learner-centred learning methods		
Chi-Square	.370		
df	2		
Asymp. Sig.	.831		
a. Kruskal Wallis Test			
b. Grouping Variable: Type of college			

c) Qualitative data from Focus Group Discussions with Student Teachers

Data on opportunities to practice learner-centred methods during teacher preparation was also collected from student teachers through focus group discussions. During the focus group discussion, student teachers were also asked to give their views on opportunities given to them to learn, observe and practice learner-centred methods during teacher preparation. The views collected during focus group interviews support the above quantitative findings. During focus group discussions, most of the student teachers were of the view that they were not given enough opportunities to learn, observe and practice learner-centred learning methods. Below are some of the views as expressed by student teachers;

“Learner-centred approaches are emphasised by our lecturers. You score fewer marks if you don’t employ learner-centred methods during school attachment or school experience. However, lecturers should demonstrate to us how to organise and apply these methods. We have not been given a lot of time to use this LCM. We were only taught what these methods are, but not how to use them” (female participant 1 in a grant-aided college).

The view by participant 1 was shared by others during the focus group interview. Another view which was shared by other participants during the focus group discussion was that many participants felt Peer Teaching was not adequate as it did not avail everyone an opportunity to practice or observe how to teach using various learner-centred methods. The following is how one female participant from a grant-aided college put it;

“During peer teaching, I presented on settlement and used discussion methods and group work, but not all the students were given a chance to present during peer teaching because of time. We were a lot in class; time was a challenge. Mostly those who presented used discussion, group work and question and answer. I did not observe a lesson where Map study, Picture study, Project, Debate, or role-play was used “(Female Participant 4).

In expressing her dissatisfaction with pedagogical practice during teacher preparation, female participant 3 from a grant-aided college stated her views as follows;

“When I was coming here I thought, we were going to learn how to teach not to learn things like digestion, living together, settlements because those things we already did at the secondary school level, primary and then we come here (college) and continue learning the same things. That time when we learnt digestion of which we already learnt it was the time we were supposed to learn how to use those methods like fieldwork and other methods including learner-centred ones to go

deep into how those methods should be applied, not you come here again and learn digestion of which we already did. Maybe they should pick a topic and show us how the lesson should be delivered. Otherwise, there is no difference between us and those in the secondary school level; what they are learning is what we are learning also”.

When the researcher probed further on what could have been the contributing factor to the expressed lack of instruction practice in learner-centred methods, participants responded in chorus that there were too many per class. One male participant narrated that;

“Maybe we were too many by then (57 in class). The last time when we had peer teaching, it’s not everyone who did that peer teaching because of time”. And almost all of us we just concentrated on discussion, question and answer and pair work methods. Not all students presented during peer teaching and those who did not present were assessed by observing how the others were doing” (male participant 5 from grant aided college).

Similar views were expressed by students from public colleges during focus group discussion. During the third focus group interview conducted in a public college, a male participant argued that;

“Not everyone is allowed to practice teaching methods through peer teaching. In fact, we are given 10 minutes to do that, so when you want to do an introduction it’s two minutes, and sometimes you won’t even reach 10minutes, maybe 5 minutes or 4, you will hear its time up. We are not given enough time to practice; it becomes a challenge when you go now to teach in schools.” (Participant 12).

Other members during the third focus group discussion conducted in a public college shared the following view expressed by male participant 15.

“Sometimes when we are only remaining with a few weeks to the end of a term is when we start peer teaching, and only a few manage to do peer teaching because instructors (lecturers) say there is not enough time, so you will only present what you have using your own methods.”

Some students during focus group discussion also lamented the continued use of lecture methods by most lecturers in class as a reason why students felt not competent enough (low self-efficacy) to use a number of learner-centred methods. A female participant during the fourth focus group interview in yet another public college expressed her views as follows;

“Lecturers mostly used lecture methods. We rarely are prepared in learner-centred methods like problem-based learning, project-based and all that. Yes, group work

is usually emphasised, but even then, it is more of telling us what they are, advantages and disadvantages and not the application of it. So I wouldn't say that I have Knowledge in a number of learner-centred methods because at this college they mentioned some methods and some they didn't. So if I say that I have Knowledge in a number of methods, it means I am lying." (Female participant 17).

Another participant chipped in while participant 17 was expressing her views and stated that;

"In fact, mostly we are taught what these methods are, the definition, advantages and disadvantages of some of these methods but not really like teaching us when they are supposed to be used in a lesson and how. Truly speaking, most of these methods are not taught." (Female participant 16)

Participant 21 during the fifth focus group discussion in a public college also narrated that;

"We do have peer teaching, but if there were other opportunities where you go there and teach for one day, it would be good. People should have more practical work rather than just doing it for the sake of practicing. When it comes to peer teaching, we participate but with a minimal time limit, in which people are judged based on what they have introduced. There is no interrogation among the students." (Male participant).

As if to support what had been expressed in other focus group discussions conducted in grant-aided and public colleges, a male participant from a private college had his views expressed during the sixth focus group discussion as follows;

"I feel there is more to be done in the sense that in classes, we are a lot. So it is very difficult for each individual to have teaching experience by way of peer teaching. What happens when they (lecturers) are teaching is that they teach the methods theoretically, but during the peer teaching period where we teach our fellow students who act as learners, it's not everyone who teaches, so some are not familiar with the methods they have learnt because they don't practice them when it comes to peer teaching" (Participant 27).

On the issue of what student teachers' expectations were regarding teacher preparation in learner-centred methods, the views of student teachers across public, grant-aided, and private colleges could be summed up in what female participant 3 from a grant-aided college said;

"Lecturers should teach us how to use learner-centred related methods of teaching ... get a topic and then you discuss how it is supposed to be taught even the methods how they should be applied. We spend much time being taught what these methods are and not how they should be applied; we thought that this is what we were going to do here, to be taught how to teach using these methods especially those relevant to primary children".

Another student in expressing her views on what her expectation was regarding teacher preparation indicated that lecturers needed to prepare students on how to use various methods of teaching other than teaching what these methods were. She expressed her views as follows;

“I think Lecturers should teach us how to use these methods so that we don’t make mistakes because this is lacking in our training. Because when you say map study, I have never done map study. How can I go and teach my pupils when I haven’t really practised how to do it. Also for instance when you say dramatization, singing, and problem-solving, I have never done these so how can I go and teach my students even role play, mostly it is a discussion method” (Female participant 10 from public college).

Collaborating both quantitative and qualitative data above, it was evident that student teachers expressed dissatisfaction with the pedagogical practicing opportunities during teacher preparation arguing that more time was spent on teaching what the methods were in terms of definition, advantages, and disadvantages and not demonstrating to them by way of lecturers modelling during teacher preparation how these methods should be used.

5.4.2.9 Social Studies lecturers’ ratings of assessment strategies in terms of their frequency of use in assessing student learning in class.

One way of ascertaining whether classroom instructional practice is learner-centred or not is by examining the assessment instructional practice of the teacher or classroom. Some assessment instructional practice put the learner at the centre of the assessment practice, thereby promoting greater student retention and class participation (Rich et al., 2014). The theoretical framework of learner-centred assessment emphasizes problem-solving, higher-order thinking skills, the promotion of a sense of ownership in learning, and a dialogic approach to instruction (Rich, 2011 cited in Rich, et al., 2014). Despite this, many teachers still use assessment to measure how much the students have already learned. However, under learner-centred learning, the focus of assessment strategies is not on whether students have learned anything but rather creating assessments which double as learning experiences themselves. In this respect, assessments do not have to measure what was learned merely; rather, they should be methods for getting students to learn while they are completing the task you have given them. The six research-based strategies that provide a learner-centred assessment as provided by Rich et al., (2014) are;

1. ensure students have read the material;
2. the use of take-home examinations;

3. giving short answer tests with questions at an integrative and/or applied level on Bloom's taxonomy;
4. using Formative Summative Assessments during class time (FSA);
5. being responsive to results from Audience Response Systems (ARS); and
6. Student learning style inventories.

It is against this background that this study used the following assessment activities to elicit for lecturers' ratings of assessment strategies regarding their importance in assessing student learning in class. This was done in order to infer if classroom assessment practices of lecturers were pro learner-centred.

1. Traditional quizzes or tests
2. Portfolio submissions and accompanying rationale
3. Classroom participation
4. End-of-course or end-of-term exams
5. Extended (more than a week long) individual projects
6. Extended (more than a week long) collaborative projects
7. Daily homework and daily check-ins
8. Student writing (essays, reports, etc.)
9. Journals, Lab books or Notebooks
10. Student presentation to class

Most of the lectures rated the assessment strategies that put the learner at the centre of the assessment practice as either rarely or never used in assessing student learning in class. The results as indicated in Tables 5.13 show that traditional quizzes or tests, portfolio submissions and accompanying rationale, classroom participation, extended (more than a week-long) individual projects, extended (more than a week-long) collaborative projects, daily homework and daily check-ins, and journals, lab books or notebooks were mostly rated as never in terms of their frequency of use in assessing student learning in class. Specifically, traditional quizzes or tests, portfolio submissions, and daily homework and daily check-ins all scored 52.0%. In addition, classroom participation (56.0%); extended (more than a week-long) individual projects (68.0%); extended (more than a week-long) collaborative projects (68.0%); and lab books or notebooks (64.0%) were also rated as never in terms of their frequency of use in assessing student learning in class

Table 5.13 Social Studies lecturers' ratings of assessment strategies in terms of how often they used them in assessing student learning in class

No.	Item	Response			
		Always	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
1	Traditional quizzes or tests	4 (16.0%)	3 (12.0%)	5 (20.0%)	13 (52.0)
2	Portfolio submissions and accompanying rationale	3 (12.0%)	5 (20.0%)	4 (16.0%)	13 (52.0)
3	Classroom participation	9 (36.0%)	2 (8.0%)	0 (0.0%)	14 (56.0%)
4	End-of-course or end-of-term exams	9 (36.0%)	5 (20.0%)	5 (20.0%)	6 (24.0%)
5	Extended (\geq week long) individual projects	1 (4.0%)	4 (16.0%)	3 (12.0%)	17 (68.0%)
6	Extended collaborative projects	2 (8.0%)	4 (16.0%)	2 (8.0%)	17 (68.0%)
7	Daily homework and daily check-ins	6 (24.0%)	5 (20.0%)	1 (4.0%)	13 (52.0)
8	Student writing (essays, reports, etc.)	4 (16.0%)	9 (36.0%)	6 (24.0%)	6 (24.0%)
9	Journals, Lab books or Notebooks	2 (8.0%)	4 (16.0%)	3 (12.0%)	16 (64.0%)
10	Student presentation to class	8 (32.0%)	4 (16.0%)	7 (28.0%)	4 (24.0%)

On assessment strategies that were always used, end-of-course or end-of-term exams was rated 36.0%; and student presentation to class was rated 32.0%. Further analysis showed that student writing (essays, reports, etc.) was rated as sometimes by nine lecturers (36.0%) in terms of using it in assessing student learning in class. Figure 5.4 is a graphical representation of Table 5.13 in terms of how lecturers rated assessment strategies in times of their frequency of use to assess student teachers as explained above.

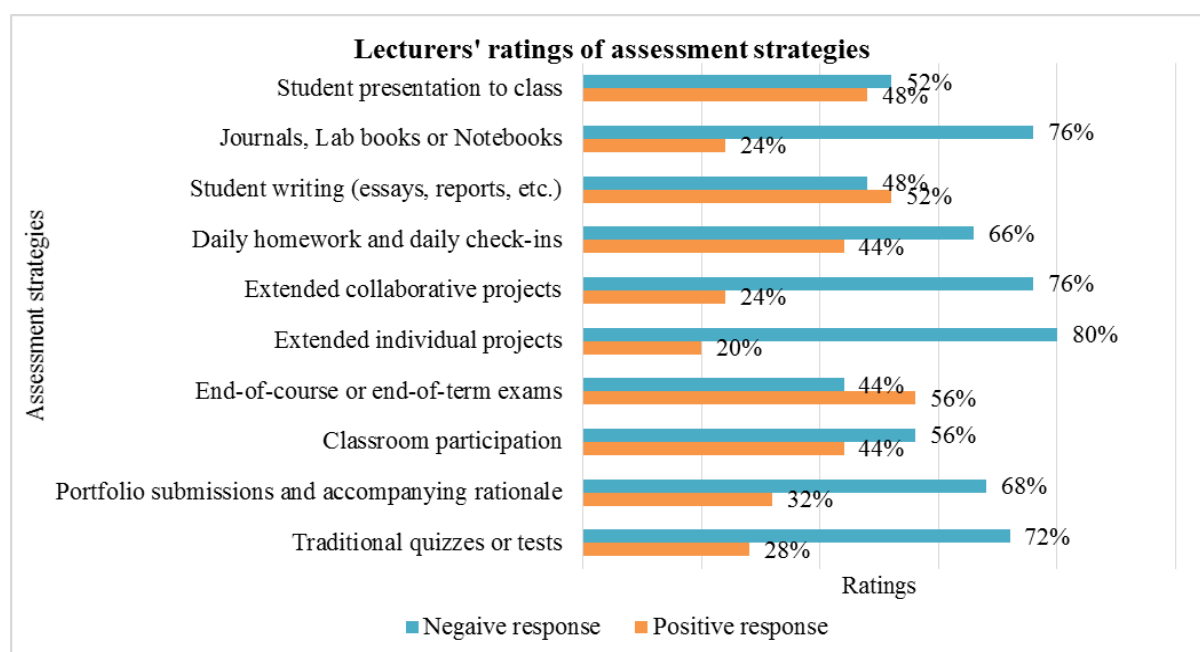


Figure 5.4 Lecturers' ratings of assessment strategies

Assessment strategies that evoked higher-order thinking were rated as either rarely or never used by lecturers in assessing student learning in class, indicating a negative response. However, assessment strategies like end-of-course or end-of-term exams (56%) and student writing essays,

reports e.t.c (52%) showed a positive response in terms of frequency of use. Lecturers' classroom assessment practices were mostly teacher dominated in nature as can be seen from Table 5.13 and Figure 5.4.

5.4.2.9.1 Social Studies lecturers' rating of assessment methods that are most important for assessing student *learning* in class according to type of college

The study used the cross-tabulation technique to compare lecturers' ratings of assessment strategies by types of colleges. Table 5.14a shows that private colleges were first (75.0%) in terms of rating Traditional quizzes or tests as never used for assessing learning class compared to the public (66.7%) and Grant-aided colleges (22.2%). With regards to portfolio submissions and accompanying rationale, private colleges ranked first (100.0%) in terms of rating as never used for assessing learning class compared to the public (58.3%) and Grant-aided colleges (22.2%). The picture was the same for classroom participation. Table 5.14b also shows that lecturers from grant-aided colleges (44.4%) were more likely to rate End of-course or end-of-term exams as always in terms of using it for assessing student learning in class compared to lecturers from public (33.3%) and private colleges (25.0%). On the other hand, lecturers from private (100%) and public colleges (91.7%) rated extended individual and collaborative projects highest in terms of never using them to assess student learning in class compared to lecturers from grant-aided colleges (22.2%).

The results in Table 5.14c further presents lecturers rating of daily homework and daily check-ins, journals, lab books or notebooks, and writing of essays, reports, etc. regarding their frequency of use in assessing learners in class by type of college. With regards to daily homework and daily check-ins, lecturers from private colleges (100%) rated it highest followed by public colleges (75.0%) in terms of never used in assessing student learning in class. In journals, lab books or notebooks as important assessment strategies, lecturers from public colleges rated it highest in terms of never using it to assess student learning in class (83.3%) followed by private college lecturers (75.0%) and grant-aided last with 33.3%. When it came to rating of writing of essays, reports, etc., lecturers from grant-aided colleges rated this assessment strategy sometimes at 55.6% followed by lecturers from public and private colleges at 25.0% respectively. Table 5.14d equally presents results of lecturers' ratings of student presentation to class in terms of its importance for assessing learning in class. The results show that student presentation to class was rated highly by lecturers from grant-aided colleges (55.6%) and private colleges (50.0%) who rated it as always using assessment strategy compared to lecturers from public colleges (8.3%).

Table 5.14a Social Studies lecturers' ratings of assessment strategies in terms of their frequency of use in assessing student learning in class according to type of college.

College type	Traditional quizzes or tests				Portfolio submissions and accompanying rationale				Classroom participation				Total
	Always	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	Always	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	Always	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	
Grant aided	1(11.1%)	3(33.3%)	3(33.3%)	2(22.2%)	2(22.2%)	2(22.2%)	3(33.3%)	2(22.2%)	7(77.8%)	1(11.1%)	0 (0.0%)	1(11.1%)	9(36.0%)
Public college	2(16.7%)	0 (0.0%)	2(16.7%)	8(66.7%)	1 (8.3%)	3(25.0%)	1 (8.3%)	7(58.3%)	2(16.7%)	1 (8.3%)	0 (0.0%)	9(75.0%)	12(48.0%)
Private college	1(25.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	3(75.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	4 (100%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	4 (100%)	4 (16.0%)
Total	4(16.0%)	3(12.0%)	5(20.0%)	13(52.0%)	3(12.0%)	5(20.0%)	4(16.0%)	13(52.0%)	9(36.0%)	2 (8.0%)	0 (0.0%)	14(56.0%)	25(100%)

Table 5.14b Social Studies lecturers' ratings of assessment strategies in terms of their frequency of use in assessing student learning in class according to type of college.

College type	End-of-course or end-of-term exams				Extended (more than a week long) individual projects				Extended (more than a week long) collaborative projects				Total
	Always	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	Always	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	Always	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	
Grant aided	4(44.4%)	2(22.2%)	2(22.2%)	1(11.1%)	1(11.1%)	3(33.3%)	3(33.3%)	2(22.2%)	2(22.2%)	3(33.3%)	2(22.2%)	2(22.2%)	9(36.0%)
Public college	4(33.3%)	1 (8.3%)	3(25.0%)	4(33.3%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (8.3%)	0 (0.0%)	11(91.7%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (8.3%)	0 (0.0%)	11(91.7%)	12(48.0%)
Private college	1(25.0%)	2(50.0%)	0 (0.0%)	1(25.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	4 (100%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	4 (100%)	4 (16.0%)
Total	9(36.0%)	5(20.0%)	5(20.0%)	6(24.0%)	1 (4.0%)	4(16.0%)	3(12.0%)	17(68.0%)	2 (8.0%)	4(16.0%)	2 (8.0%)	17(68.0%)	25(100%)

Table 5.14c Social Studies lecturers' ratings of assessment strategies in terms of their frequency of use in assessing student learning in class according to type of college.

College type	Daily homework and daily check-ins				Student writing (essays, reports, etc.)				Journals, Lab books or Notebooks				Total
	Always	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	Always	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	Always	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	
Grant aided	3 (33.3%)	5 (55.6%)	1 (11.1%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (11.1%)	5 (55.6%)	1 (11.1%)	2 (22.2%)	2 (22.2%)	3 (33.3%)	1 (11.1%)	3 (33.3%)	9 (36.0%)
Public college	3(25.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	9(75.0%)	3(25.0%)	3(25.0%)	3(25.0%)	3 (25.0%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (8.3%)	1 (8.3%)	10(83.3%)	12 (48.0%)
Private college	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	4 (100%)	0 (0.0%)	1(25.0%)	2(50.0%)	1 (25.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	1(25.0%)	3 (75.0%)	4(16.0%)
Total	6 (24%)	5 (20%)	1 (4%)	13(52%)	4 (16%)	9 (36%)	6 (24%)	6 (24%)	2(8.0%)	4 (16%)	3 (12%)	16(64%)	25(100%)

Table 5.14d Social Studies lecturers' ratings of assessment strategies in terms of their frequency of use in assessing student learning in class according to type of college.

College type	Student presentation to class				Total
	Always	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	
Grant aided	5 (55.6%)	2 (22.2%)	1 (11.1%)	1 (11.1%)	9 (36.0%)
Public college	1 (8.3%)	2 (16.7%)	5 (41.7%)	4 (33.3%)	12 (48.0%)
Private college	2 (50.0%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (25.0%)	1 (25.0%)	4 (16.0%)
Total	8 (32.0%)	4 (16.0%)	7 (28.0%)	6 (24.0%)	25 (100%)

5.4.3 Lecturers and student teachers' sense of efficacy in the use of learner-centred instructional practices¹ across public, grant-aided and private colleges of education.

Research question three addressed lecturers' and pre-service student teachers' level of self-efficacy in using collaborative, inductive, and experiential learning methods or strategies. To address this question, a 5 Likert scale of Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Not Sure (NS), Disagree (D), and Strongly Disagree (SD) was used.

5.4.3.1 Lecturers and student teachers' sense of efficacy in Inductive Methods.

Lecturers and student teachers in the survey were asked to examine their ability to teach Social Studies using selected learner-centred methods that are inductive such as inquiry, problem-solving, project-based, and modelling and their responses are displayed in Table 5.15

Table 5.15 Lecturers and student teachers' views of efficacy in knowledge and skills to facilitate learning in selected inductive learning methods.

		SA		A		Not sure		D		SD		Cumulative	
		n	(%)	N	(%)	n	(%)	n	(%)	n	(%)	Agree (SA+A) (%)	Disagree (D+SD) (%)
Inquiry	Students	10	1.8	90	16.0	77	13.7	191	34.0	193	34.4	17.8	68.4
	Lecturers	7	28.0	16	64.0	0	0.0	2	8.0	0	0.0	92.0	8.0
Problem-based	Students	8	1.4	32	5.7	92	16.5	242	43.1	187	33.3	7.1	76.4
	Lecturers	9	36.0	12	48.0	4	16.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	84.0	0.0
Project-based	Students	7	1.2	57	10.2	66	11.8	238	42.4	193	34.4	11.4	76.8
	Lecturers	5	20.0	18	72.0	2	8.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	92.0	0.0
Modelling	Students	11	2.0	47	8.4	142	25.3	185	33.0	176	31.4	10.4	64.4
	Lecturers	2	8.0	16	64.0	7	28.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	72.0	0.0
Average	Students	9	1.6	56	17.4	94.2	16.8	214	38.1	187	33.4	11.7	71.5
	Lecturers	6	23.0	15.5	62.0	4.3	17.3	2	8.0	0	0.0	85.0	8.0

As depicted in Table 5.15, the average cumulative percentages of students who disagreed to having the knowledge and skills to facilitate learning in selected inductive-based methods stood at 71.5% while those who were not sure of what inquiry, problem-based, project-based, and modelling methods were, stood at 16.8%. On the other hand, cumulative results in the Table show that 85.0% of the lecturers believed they had the knowledge and skills (ability) to facilitate learning in the above selected inductive learning methods.

5.4.3.2 Comparison of student teachers' sense of efficacy in inductive learning methods across type colleges (Public, grant-aided and Private).

Kruskal-Wallis H test was also used to test for differences in pre-service student teachers' sense of efficacy in facilitating learning using selected inductive methods across the three types of colleges (Public, Grant and Private). The aim was to further appreciate and collaborate data by way

of establishing whether student teachers' self-efficacy level on using inductive methods was significantly different across public, grant-aided, and private colleges. In other words, the study tried to test for differences in student teachers' sense of efficacy in inductive learning methods across public, grant-aided and private colleges. SPSS was used in carrying out the Kruskal-Wallis H test.

Table 5.16: Kruskal-Wallis H test on student teachers' sense of efficacy in selected inductive learning methods by type colleges

Ranks				
	Type of college	N	Mean Rank	
Use of inquiry methods	Private college	120	276.91	
	Grant-aided college	154	303.51	
	Public college	287	270.63	
	Total	561		
Use of problem-based	Private college	120	253.62	
	Grant-aided college	154	286.41	
	Public college	287	289.55	
	Total	561		
Use of project based	Private college	120	271.85	
	Grant-aided college	154	295.14	
	Public college	287	277.24	
	Total	561		
Use of model building	Private college	120	256.98	
	Grant-aided college	154	286.38	
	Public college	287	288.16	
	Total	561		
Test Statistics^{a,b}				
	Use of inquiry methods	Use of problem-based	Use of project based	Use of model building
Chi-Square	5.028	5.139	2.001	3.825
Df	2	2	2	2
Asymp. Sig.	.081	.077	.368	.148
a. Kruskal Wallis Test				
b. Grouping Variable: Type of college				

The results showed that there was no statistically significant difference in pre-service student teachers' sense of efficacy in facilitating learning using inquiry $\chi^2(2) = 5.028$, $p = 0.081$, with a mean rank inquiry score of 276.91 for private colleges, 303.51 for grant-aided college and 270.63 for public colleges. This entails that differences in pre-service student teachers' sense of efficacy in facilitating learning using inquiry method were not statistically significant. Similarly, the results showed no statistically significant difference in pre-service student teachers' sense of efficacy in facilitating learning using problem based method $\chi^2(2) = 5.139$, $p = .077$, with a mean rank

problem based score of 253.62 for private colleges, 286.41 for grant-aided college and 289.55 for public colleges. Furthermore, the results also showed no statistically significant for the other two methods (project-based method and model building).

5.4.3.3 Lecturers and student teachers' sense of efficacy in Collaborative Methods (CM).

Lecturers and student teachers' sense of efficacy in facilitating learning using collaborative instructional methods was based on Pair work, Group work, and whole-class discussion methods of teaching. A series of statements reflecting positive and negative attitudes to which respondents indicated their agreement; disagreement and being not sure were included in the survey questionnaire. On average, both lecturers and student teachers expressed high levels of self-efficacy on being able to teach using Collaborative Methods (CM). As depicted in Table 5.17, the average cumulative percentages of students' views who believed they had adequate knowledge and skills to facilitate learning through pair work, whole-class discussion, and group work methods were 87.4%. Specifically, the average percentages show that the majority of the students agreed to being able to teach using Pair work (71.3%), group work method (87.5 %) and whole-class discussion (90.6%). The same picture emerged out of lecturers' responses with the cumulative percentage of 93.3%, agreeing that they had knowledge and skills to teach using collaborative methods.

Table 5.17: Distribution of lecturers and student teachers' sense of efficacy in their knowledge and skills (ability) to teach using Collaborative Learner-Centred Methods (CLM).

CLM		SA		A		Not sure		D		SD		Cumulative	
		n	(%)	n	(%)	N	(%)	n	(%)	n	(%)	Agree (%)	Disagree (%)
Pair work	Students	181	(32.3)	219	(39.0)	81	(14.4)	59	(10.5)	21	(3.7)	(71.3)	(14.2)
	Lecturers	9	(36.0)	11	(44.0)	3	(12.0)	0	(0.0)	2	(8.0)	(80.0)	(8.0)
Group work	Students	316	(56.3)	175	(31.2)	37	(6.6)	21	(3.7)	12	(2.1)	(87.5)	(5.8)
	Lecturers	20	(80.0)	5	(20.0)	0	(0.0)	0	(0.0)	0	(0.0)	(100)	(0.0)
Whole Class discussion	Students	383	(68.3)	125	(22.3)	43	(7.7)	8	(1.4)	2	(0.4)	(90.6)	(1.8)
	Lecturers	18	(72.0)	7	(28.0)	0	(0.0)	0	(0.0)	0	(0.0)	(100)	(0.0)
Average	Students	293	(52.3)	173	(30.8)	53.7	(9.6)	29	(5.2)	11.7	(1.8)	(87.4)	(4.9)
	Lecturers	16	(62.7)	8	(30.7)	3	(12.0)	0	0.0	2	(8.0)	(93.3)	(8.0)

5.4.3.4 Lecturers and student teachers' sense of efficacy in experiential learning.

Lecturers' and student teachers' ability to teach Social Studies using experiential learning was examined based on three teaching methods. These included role-playing, debate, and fieldwork

(see Table 5.18). In the survey questionnaire, a series of statements reflecting positive and negative attitudes to which respondents indicated their agreement; disagreement and being not sure were asked. In general, lecturers and student teachers broadly agreed that they had adequate knowledge and skills to facilitate learning using experiential learning methods. As depicted in Table 5.18, the average cumulative percentage of student teachers who agreed to have the knowledge and skills to teach using experiential learning stood at 76.1% while that for lecturers was 86.7%. Specifically, the cumulative percentages of the students who agreed to have the knowledge and skills to teach using Role Playing were 75.9%, debate (77.7 %), and fieldwork (74.7%). As for Lecturers, the cumulative percentages of those who agreed to have the knowledge and skills to teach using Role Playing was 92.0%, debate (92.0 %), and fieldwork (76.0%).

Table 5.18 Distribution of lecturers and student teachers’ sense of efficacy in their knowledge and skills to teach using experiential learning methods.

Experiential Methods		SA		A		Not sure		D		SD		Cumulative	
		n	(%)	n	(%)	n	(%)	n	(%)	n	(%)	Agree (%)	Disagree (%)
Role play	Students	220	39.2	206	36.7	61	10.9	71	12.7	3	0.5	75.9	13.2
	Lecturers	11	44	12	48	0	0	0	0	2	8	92	8
Debate	Students	219	39	217	38.7	55	9.8	54	9.6	16	2.9	77.7	12.5
	Lecturers	11	44	12	48	2	8	0	0	0	0	92	8
Fieldwork	Students	220	39.2	199	35.5	64	11.4	63	11.2	15	2.7	74.7	13.9
	Lecturers	7	28	12	48	4	16	2	8	0	0	76	8
Average	Students	220	39	207	37	60	10.7	63	11	11	2	76.1	13.2
	Lecturers	10	38.7	12	48	3	12	2	8	2	8	86.7	8

5.4.4 Aspects of teacher and learner-initiated interactions present in student teachers’ lessons

Research question four was aimed at eliciting information on the aspects of teacher and learner-initiated interactions that were present in student teachers’ lessons during school experience.

Discourse analysis of recorded video lessons was done to understand the balance between teacher control over lesson content and student participation in educational interactions. This was on ten student teachers whose lessons in Social Studies were observed and video recorded during school experience. This discourse analysis of lesson videos was aimed at describing the nature of teacher and learner-initiated interactions. Below is a brief description of the framework used for discourse analysis of lessons for teacher and learner-initiated interactions.

5.4.4.1 The nature of classroom Instructional practice

In this study, the term ‘nature of classroom instructional practice’ was defined in the context of two attributes namely; teacher-initiated and learner-initiated interactions. This was used to explain the interaction practices between the teacher and the learners, and among the learners themselves.

5.4.4.1.1 The teacher

The teacher in this context is described in terms of classroom management, teaching strategies (methods) used as well as the kind of interactions involved with the learners. The scaffolding role of the teacher is also noted.

5.4.4.1.2 Teacher initiated interactions

As discussed in Chapter 3, there are three ways in which teachers initiate interactions with students. These are Individual Nominations, Invitations to Bid, and Invitations. Figure 5.5 is a diagrammatical representation of the teacher-initiated interactions.

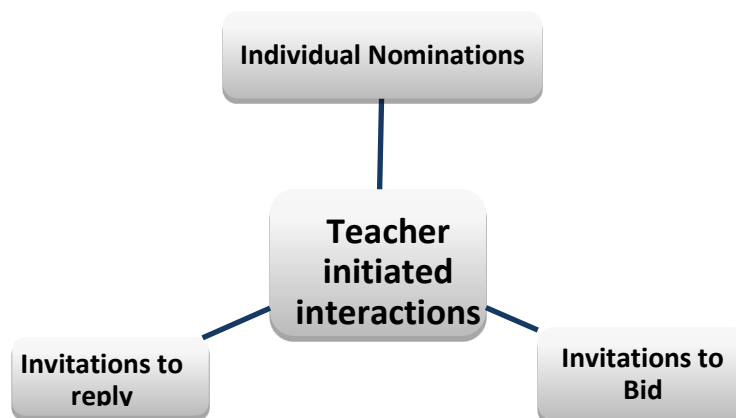


Figure 5.5 Teacher initiated interactions

5.4.4.1.3 The learner

The second attribute in the description of the nature of classroom practice is the learner. Likewise, learners were described in terms of their dispositions towards learning and how they used the resources, including those provided by teachers in their actions. Under the learner-centred approaches, the learner is at the centre of any learning activity.

5.4.4.1.4 Learner initiated interactions

As noted in chapter 3, there are essentially two discourse strategies that students can use to initiate interactions with teachers: *bidding to speak* and *calling out*. Figure 5.6 is a diagrammatical representation of the learner-initiated interactions.



Figure 5.6 Teacher initiated interactions

5.5 Lesson Discourse Analysis

It is within the classroom setting that teachers must recreate problems which exist in the society and guide learners in the direction of solving them. Table 5.19 is a discourse presentations of ten lessons from the field observations based on teacher-initiated dialogue and learner-initiated dialogue. It presents the number of times teacher and learner initiated interactions reflected individual nominations, invitation to bid, and invitation to reply for teacher initiated interactions as well as calling out, and bidding to speak for learner-initiated interactions.

Table 5.19 Frequency of teacher and learner initiated interactions

Number of observed lessons in Social Studies	Nature of interactions	Frequency	Total	Average per lesson
10	Teacher initiated interactions		252	25.2
	Individual nominations	46		
	Invitation to bid	137		
	Invitation to reply	69		
	Learner initiated interactions		112	11.2
	Bidding to speak	33		
	Calling out	78		

Discourse analysis of the lessons as depicted in Table 5.19, presents an average per lesson of 25.2 teacher-initiated interactions and 11.2 for learner-initiated interactions. With such averages, it is very clear that student teachers' lessons were mainly dominated by teacher-initiated interactions in which invitation to bid (with a frequency of 137) type of interactions dominated the lesson discourse. Invitation to reply was second with a frequency of 69. On learner-initiated interactions, calling out type of interactions was highest with a frequency of 78 compared to bidding to speak

with 33. In terms of the methods mostly employed during lesson discourse, question and answer, whole-class discussion, and group work were most common.

Lesson observation also revealed that although group work method was mostly used, very little Individual Accountability where students become accountable for their own learning and for each other's' learning by assessing each group member's performance on a given task existed. In addition, Positive Interdependence whereby each member in a group perceives that he or she cannot succeed unless the group does was also lacking - In most cases, groups were dominated by a few members. Furthermore, the aspect of Promotive Interaction, whereby group members challenged each other's ideas was also lacking in most group work activities. In most cases, it was also evident that most of the tasks given in groups were not as complex and challenging to provoke higher-order thinking related to solving real-life problems. In short the group activities fail short of advancing or fostering critical thinking and problem-solving skills in learners. Furthermore, observations showed that Group work activities were also not well monitored by teachers, given the many challenges such as large classes. Learners were also not given the opportunity to think individually first before collaborating in groups.

5.4.5 Barriers to the implementation of learner-centred practices in primary schools

In this study, objective five was devoted to describing from the students' perspective, perceived barriers to teachers' learner-centred pedagogy implementation efforts. In order to address this objective, the researcher conducted focus group discussions with third-year pre-service student teachers in three colleges- private, grant-aided, and public. These focus group discussions were arranged in term two of the college academic calendar in 2018. The idea for conducting interviews in term two was because, at this time, student teachers were back in their respective colleges after having spent term one (January to April) in primary schools for their school experience. Focus group discussion approach was used in order to get wider views from student teachers at a goal regarding their classroom experience during school experience. Three focus group discussions were held in one public teacher college while two focus group discussions each were held in private and in a grant-aided primary teacher college, respectively. Each focus group discussion contained five participants who were recruited on a voluntary basis and lasted for about 30 minutes. The semi-structured interview guide (Appendix 7) guided the focus group discussions.

The narratives from the students are presented with no specific reference to the type of college represented by the participants. From the students' narratives, eight (8) themes were derived and used to present the barriers to implementation of learner-centred pedagogical approaches.

The findings of the study showed that all the student teachers during focus group discussions acknowledged that there are factors impeding the successful implementation of learner-centred learning in primary schools. This section of the study presents information on the factors impeding the successful implementation of learner-centred learning in primary schools.

5.4.5.1 Lack of knowledge of learner-centred methods by student teachers.

This is one barrier that emerged from the students' responses. Some participants during focus group discussions were of the view that lack of knowledge of some of the methods was one factor that affected its implementation. In a focus group discussion, one student teacher had this to say;

“There could be various reasons for not using some LCM: Lack of knowledge on how well other methods can be used. Some of this has to do with the kind of training the teachers undergo while in training schools. Some of these methods are theoretically known to a teacher, because in colleges these are just mentioned and are not practical based...” (Participant 6).

5.4.5.2 Over enrolment

Most respondents were concerned about the large numbers per class, with some citing 102 learners per class in some extreme cases. During focus group discussion, a participant informed the researcher that;

“Over enrolment because of lack of infrastructure. My grade 3 class was supposed to be a double stream but we could not separate because there were not enough teachers. In addition we didn't have enough room so we had combined the two classes. In fact we needed to have three streams , you find that in one class there are 100+ pupils , the other class 100+ pupils, if you have less pupils it's 80 to 1 teacher, that is a challenge even when it comes to group work , time management all those issues” (participant 30).

Another participant added that;

“Over enrolment not only in schools but also in teacher colleges. This makes an institution produce poor quality teachers who will have in turn a negative impact on the innocent child in class” (Participant 12).

As this was not enough, another female participant also commented that;

“Over enrolment especially in most government schools has contributed negatively to the use of learner-centred methods. Sometimes the classes tend to have too many children for a teacher to work around. The large numbers of pupils in classes make it difficult to use group work, group discussion and think, pair and share.” (Participant 15).

In addition, other student teachers who participated in the focus group discussions expressed their views as follows;

“Over enrolment is a problem because class management becomes a problem, learning materials are inadequate, classroom size to accommodate many groups and time management for the teacher to attend to all the groups” (participant 23).

“Over-enrolment makes it hard for teachers to put learners in groups of reasonable numbers. Large numbers of learners being attended to by a single teacher and overcrowding in the classroom which takes a lot of time” (participant 31).

“Over enrolment is a problem because class management becomes a problem, learning materials are inadequate, classroom size to accommodate many groups and time management for the teacher to attend to all the groups” (Participant 34).

“Because of over enrolment, I noticed that class management was a problem, learning materials were also inadequate as well as classroom size to accommodate many groups and time management for the teacher to attend to all the groups. I have noted time management for the teacher to attend to all the groups was a problems” (Participant 27).

One of the participants reported during the focus group discussion that generally students in large classes found it difficult to participate because they were shy and afraid of making mistakes. Below is how this participant put it;

“There are children you know whereby if you involve or engage them so much in lessons through earner-centred approaches, it’s like you are intimidating them or embarrassing them. So as a teacher you end up focusing on certain pupils whenever group work has to be used. Because in groups, only those who are able to express themselves in English would present during class presentations. Some pupils even absconded lessons for fear of presentations on assignments they were tasked to do individual research. So it’s like fast learners benefit more than slow learners in earner-centred approaches” (Participant 10).

5.4.5.3 Lack of adequate learning resources

Most respondents who participated in the focus group discussion reported that learning resources were inadequate in schools to facilitate learner-centred methods. This according to them was because most classes were over enrolled, lacked furniture and it was not uncommon to have some students sit on the floor. Furthermore, the participants added that they mostly used the principle of first come first serve on who sits on furniture in most cases. Since a learner-centred approaches encourages manipulation of real objects during the learning process, this finding points to the need for more teaching and learning resources and teaching aids in schools if learner-material

interaction is to be enhanced. The following statements represent the views shared by most participants.

In a focus group discussion, one student teacher commented that;

“The challenge is resources; there are still no books for grade 3 and 4 of the revised curriculum of the familiar language policy programme. We only implement the programme by transiting while teaching” (Participant 7).

As this was not enough, another participant added that;

“Short falls of textbooks is a challenge when it comes to document study. Inadequate teaching and learning materials in schools to use such as textbooks (especially during group work)” (Participant 26).

Another student teacher also acknowledged that school resources were a challenge when it came to implementing learner-centred methods in primary schools. The student teacher reported that;

“Resources are another challenge that hinder the implementation of learner-centred methods. Group work and group discussion require that there are adequate and enough teaching learning resources (Participant 35)”.

5.4.5.4 Inadequate time and curriculum demands

The Zambian primary section is a seven year system divided into lower section catering for grades 1-3 and upper section running from grade 4 -7. At lower primary level, the curriculum allocated 30 minutes per subject lesson per day and 40 minutes per subject lesson per day at upper section. This is one issue that emerged a barrier to the implementation of learner-centred learning. Most participants felt that time allocated to subject lessons per day was not enough, especially that teachers were required to teach at least 4 subjects a day under the lower section (grade 1-4) and 6 subjects for the upper section (grade 5-7). Participants added that learner-centred methods delayed completion of schemes of work and syllabuses and yet supervisors expected them to complete their schemes of work. During focus group discussion, one student teacher, participant 8, commented as follows;

“From my experience it is really time consuming and literacy levels are very low. But due to time limitations teachers find it very difficult to implement learner-centred learning especially when the topic is too long and in some instances topics which learners can't understand the concept clearly” (Participants 8).

During the same focus group discussion, another participant narrated that;

“Limitations would be time consuming, misconceptions and loss of appropriate direction to follow during the learning process. Learner-centred method consumes time. The method can only work well or be effective if there can be clarifications by the teacher” (participant 3).

Another participant also said that;

“In learner centred, if the class is doing group work for the first time, yes time might be a problem. For example the group work takes so long that there is no time for all the groups to report” (Participants 11).

Similar views were also expressed by participants 9, 16, 21, 25, 26, 28, 29 and 32 during the focus group discussions. The following is what most of these participants had to say on the construct of time in relation to implementation of learner-centred approaches;

“Because the pupil teacher ratio is very high, the teacher will fail to address the need of every child in class, especially with a learner-centred method which requires the teacher to attend and address the needs of every child” (Participants 9).

“Learner centred methods have proved to be effective but due to their time consuming, some teachers don't like using them all” (Participants 16).

“From my experience, I have used group work though with greater difficulties because most of the periods on my time Table being singles such that it was rather hard to achieve objectives on other topics” (Participants, 21).

“In reality the learner-centred approaches to teaching is the best to bring learners into being an active participant in the lesson process. But due to time limitations teachers find it very difficult to implement especially when the topic is too long and in some instances topics which learners can't understand the concept clearly. This situation calls for teacher exposition in order to catch up with the time Table otherwise other subjects on the time Table would be affected if this approach is to be applied at all cost due to time consuming of its nature” (shared by Participants 25, 26).

“The problems of learner centred are time consuming and it is very difficult to divide the pupils in groups if the pupils are too many in class” (Participants 29).

“Challenges faced are time, over-enrolment and low literacy levels by learners. For example, a teacher handling a class of more than 80 learners is required to finish a lesson within 30min grades 1-4 and 40min grades 5-7. On that particular day a teacher has a minimum of about 5 lessons to deliver. Supervisor would want to see that all lessons are conducted. So to strategise time and cover learning widely; in

some lessons learner-centred isn't well applied, time allocation for each lesson not enough” (Participants 32).

“From my experience it is really time consuming and literacy levels are very low. Learners only encounter the formal learning process at school and not at home as parents are too busy to help the learners. Equally parents have no interest in monitoring the progression of their children” (Participants 28).

5.4.5.5 Low Literacy Levels among Pupils

What this study revealed from the Focus Group Discussion was that most student teachers complained of most learners having low literacy skills in English at primary level. Student teachers therefore reported that in most cases teachers found themselves code switching between languages by way of interpreting. This according to participants was a lot of work and delayed their completion of lesson plans. In some cases, according to student teachers, this code switching between languages was difficult for student teachers especially in situations where the student teacher was not familiar with the children’s language of play or the school community’ language of play.

In a focus group discussion, one female participant commented that;

“I think coming from the background where at the lower levels children were learning in local language, when they reach grade 5 it becomes a challenge for them to understand the concept easily in the official language (English) because this is when they are starting to learn English. But my experience is at grade five where I had a lot of challenges; most of the learners couldn’t express themselves in English. So it becomes a challenge because I have to use both languages and it's time consuming” (Participant 1).

This view seemed to have been supported by another student teacher who also felt that literacy level of learners was a challenge. In supporting this view the student teacher contended that;

“As for me handling the upper primary section, I am having a very big challenge. Learners normally use local language when it comes to the presentations of their findings in the sense that they fail to fit in the level of English they find to the upper primary section” (Participant 5).

Other views that were expressed by student teachers on how low literacy level affected implementation of learner-centred methods included the following;

Participant 20;

“There are children you know whereby if you involve or engage them so much in lessons through learner-centred approaches, it’s like you are intimidating them or embarrassing them. So as a teacher you end up focusing on certain pupils whenever group work has to be used because in groups only those who are able to express themselves in English would present during class presentations. Some pupils even absconded lessons for fear of presentations on assignments they were tasked to do individually. So it’s like fast learners benefit more than slow learners in a learner-centred approaches”.

Participant 6;

“If you allow them to use local language there will be full participation in class but the moment you say no vernacular only a few will participate how I wish we could use English from grades 1 to 2”.

Participant 11;

“Another problem is that most children have difficulties in reading and understanding and therefore it is not easy to go round and read for everyone. You need a teaching aid”.

Participant 17

“Yes, group work somehow works better for learners that have good language ability very much because they will be able to express themselves better. For the lower grades group work works well because they use their local language. This grade 1 to 4 use of local language somehow has killed the chance for learners to easily learn English”.

Participant 20;

“Challenges I think which was there was in terms of understanding with the learners, you find that the books are written in Chinyanja, not this Chinyanja we normally use but that deep Chinyanja so language was a problem and there was no teacher's guide to guide you on how to use so you have to use your own knowledge”.

Participant 21;

“Local language was very good. If you read in English some wouldn’t understand, so I had to translate to the local language”.

Participant 23;

“Some don't participate fully because of the language, they are used to local language and being a grade 6 they are expected to be learning in English, even if they know the answer they would choose to be quiet”.

Participant 24;

“There were some groups which did not do anything they would refuse to come to the front and present because they were afraid of speaking in English, they would say can we come and speak in Bemba, using their own local language they were able to discuss and participate”

Participant 27;

“My class was grade 5, the challenges that i had like on the learners' side looking at the curriculum the first grade the grade 5 they were the first one to be in grade 5 to change from the local language to English, so now it was very difficult to teach them in English because they were supposed to be taught in English at grade 5 but due to how they were learning before grade 5 in local language it was very difficult for them to understand and even respond in English, others even did not know what subtraction is in English”.

Participant 29;

“Pupils were presenting in their local language they couldn't manage to present in English, only a few, it was very difficult for them to express in English they would just ask me if they can use the local language”.

Participant 31;

“When it comes to learning, language was a problem because most of them were used to learning in their local language (Nyanja) when I used English they couldn't get unless you translate it in Nyanja”.

Participant 33;

“Few learners were able to read, the others did not know how to read even in Bemba or English, the grade 6 it was even difficult for me to teach in English so I was teaching in Bemba, I was teaching them at first in class but I realized that they couldn't understand so I used Bemba for them to understand”

Participant 34;

“My experience is at grade five where I had a lot of challenges. Most of the learners couldn't express themselves in English. So it became a challenge because i had to use both English and local (familiar) languages and this was time consuming”.

Participant 35;

“As for me, I had challenges handling the upper primary section. Learners normally used local language when it came to the presentations of their findings because they failed to fit in the level of English they found in the upper primary section”.

Participant 26:

“Learner centred works well with learners who have a good background (breakthrough in literacy). Some learners we have (found in remote areas) cannot go beyond what you tell them”.

5.4.5.6 Teachers’ beliefs that learner-centred methods disadvantage slow learners and advantage fast learners

This is one theme that revealed a very interesting result and whose responses contradicted most literature arguments supporting learner-centred methods. Among the arguments for a learner-centred approaches is that slow learners benefit from this approach through the pupil-pupil interactions among peers or in groups with the teacher acting as a facilitator. However, most participants were of the view that learner-centred methods disadvantaged slow learners and advantaged fast learners. One participant for instance stated that;

"My experience with LCM was that it was a challenge with slow learners, it was quite a challenge for them to come up with answers when they were asked questions. I could tell by the way they were responding for example when you tell them to give one physical feature they give you the opposite answer. I was forced as a teacher to take up much of the time just to make sure they understand, so it was delaying the learning process on my part to complete what I planned for the lesson" (participant 2).

On one hand, participant three stated that;

"The grasping of information was a problem, I had a high number of slow learners in my classroom”.

On the other hand, it was the view of participant one that;

“Fast learners do benefit while slow learners face a lot of challenges and loose interest. The other challenge is that the hyperactive learners dominate the discussions not giving chance to their friends. Fast learners benefit more than slow learners” (participant 19).

Furthermore, participant 18 added that:

“In group work some learners depend on others. Some talk more than others. The other challenge is that the fast learners dominate the discussions not giving chance to their friends” (Participants 18).

Yet again one female participant reported her experience with the grade six class as follows;

“For the grade 6 LCM worked to some students who were very sharp and those who were not sharp it was difficult, I had to go back on what I was teaching because of this I couldn’t cover all what I was supposed to teach” (Participant 20).

In addition, another student teacher narrated that;

“In my own opinion, I think a learner centred approach works well with learners who have high cognitive skills. At the same time the school environment must be supportive in terms of resource allocation to support this approach”(Participant 13).

Other participants during focus group discussion intimated that generally students in large classes found it difficult to participate because they were shy and afraid of making mistakes. For example participant nine commented that;

“Some learners are shy to answer questions even when they know the answer. Only those learners who are active will be able to participate freely. The shy learners will be quiet and will not participate freely”.

The view that faster learners or learners with higher ability benefit more in learner-centred classes is also reported in literature. Nakabugo et al. (2006) for instance investigated possible forms of class organisation and teaching styles that are suitable for mediating learning in large classes in Primary schools in Uganda. The study reported that group work was dominated by more able peers; that factual and rote activities predominated; and also that longer lessons did not engage young children.

5.4.5.7 Unsupportive school leadership

Though resources are imperative, school leadership is a stronger predictor of teachers’ use of learner-centred education approaches in teaching. For effective utilization of Learner Centred Education Approach by teachers, there is the need for a strong leadership to drive a well-designed plan. Other scholars have discovered that the school policies and leaders do not accept or trust the learner centred education approaches. Ross and Gray (2006) argued that the unsupportive school leadership is a factor inhibiting teachers from adopting student-centred teaching approaches. In this regard, one of the student teacher indicated that;

“Lack of support from the administration to take initiatives. For example in schools there are no wall maps or charts and the teacher wants to come up with a map chart

by improving using the flip papers and the markers and the school cannot provide these materials because of not having money school because of free education from grade one to seven and school grants is not given on time and if it comes it will be a drop in an ocean”. This view was shared by other participants.

CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

6.1 Overview

This chapter presents a discussion of the findings in relation to the classroom instructional practices in primary teachers' colleges and the pedagogical self-efficacy of lecturers and student teachers to facilitate learning through learner-centred methods as well as whether such instructional practices and self-efficacy levels assured teacher preparedness for implementation of learner-centred learning and attainment of the fundamental curriculum goals on learner-centred methods. The chapter also extends the discussion to whether student teachers' knowledge and practice of learner-centred methods during school experience was a reflection of the type of teacher preparation or not. The findings are discussed in relation to the research objectives and the existing knowledge in teacher preparation for the constructivist approach in knowledge construction. Effort has also been made to reflect, confirm and extend current knowledge and thinking on learner-centred education and its implementation and practice in primary Teacher Colleges and Primary schools of developing countries such as Zambia. For clarity sake, the discussions were done using sub-themes arising from the findings of the study.

6.2 Social Studies lecturers' preparedness to support student teachers in the use of learner-centred practices.

The first research objective of the study sought to examine Social Studies lecturers' preparedness to support learning that requires collaborative, inductive, and experiential learning in primary colleges of education. A total of 25 Social Studies lecturers across three types of primary colleges of education (Public, Private, and Grant-aided) provided information for this objective. The study found that most of the lecturers were either adequately prepared (45.3%) or very well equipped (36.0%) to support student learning that required collaborative, inductive, and experiential learning. Cross tabulations of lecturers' views by type of college showed that lecturers across the three types of colleges felt similar in their preparedness to support learning that requires collaborative, problem-solving, and experiential learning.

Kruskal-Wallis H test was used to test for differences in lecturers' preparedness to support student learning that requires collaborative, inductive, and experiential learning across the three types of colleges (Public, Grant and Private). The study findings revealed that lecturers' preparedness to support student learning that requires collaborative learning did not differ across the three types of

colleges $\chi^2(2) = 1.289$, $p = 0.525$, with a mean rank preparedness score of 14.61 for public colleges, 12.63 for grant-aided college and 10.50 for private colleges. Similarly, lecturers' preparedness to support student learning that requires inductive and experiential learning did not differ across Public, Grant and Private. These finding implies that lecturers' sense of preparedness to support student learning that requires collaborative, inductive, and experiential learning was similar across the three types of colleges. However, it is worth noting that a mere expression of preparedness does not necessarily translate into practice. Teachers need opportunities not only to learn about visions of good teaching but also on how to enact the vision of good teaching in practice.

Although the findings of this study indicated that lecturers were well prepared to support student learning in learner-centred methods, it is a possibility that this could be due to the self-rating of the respondents on the questionnaire instrument. However, there is overwhelming evidence from the literature that contradicts the findings on objective one (lecturers' preparedness to support student teachers in the use of learner-centred practices). For instance, Mtika and Gates (2010) raised doubt on the practical expertise of lecturers themselves in learner-centred education, arguing that student teachers' lack of knowledge and skills in learner-centred education can be as a result of their lecturers lacking adequate expertise in learner-centred education themselves. In their argument, Mtika and Gates (2010, pp.399-400) opined that;

Even though lecturers wanted to supervise student teachers who applied learner-centred knowledge as required by the college, the lecturers may not have modelled student teachers on learner-centred education. Of course, it may be that the lecturers themselves did not have the adequate practical expertise to enact learner-centred pedagogy in their practice. Their only alternative then was to adopt a “don't do as I do, do as I say” pedagogy.

Also, Mtika and Gates' (2010) argument is consistent with Gijbels (2009, p. 150), who reported that among the factors determining the positive or negative effects of learner-centred approaches included teacher professional capacity. The contradiction could be due to the data collection methods used in this study and the studies cited above. This study used lecturers' ratings (views), and it is more likely that lecturers could have provided responses that tended not to portray them as being unprepared.

6.2.1 Lecturers' professional development opportunities related to learner-centred teaching.

The study collected information from lecturers on professional development opportunities related to learner-centred methods. The findings of the study revealed that 48.0% of the lecturers surveyed received the professional development they needed to implement learner-centred learning. The lecturers also expressed satisfaction with the opportunities for professional development on learner-centred education (52.0%). Regarding lecturers' interest in pursuing professional development opportunities focusing on learner-centred learning, the study found that the majority of the lecturers (92.0%) responded in affirmative.

After comparing lecturers' professional development opportunities related to learner-centred teaching across the three types of colleges of education, the study found that all the lecturers from the public, grant-aided, and private colleges of education expressed a strong willingness to pursue professional development focusing on learner-centred learning. The findings of this study are not in line with earlier results by Wallace and Wildly (1995) who found that the majority of the teachers never had professional development training on how to integrate student-centred teaching approaches in their teaching and concluded that lack of professional development training is a factor inhibiting teachers from adopting learner-centred teaching approach.

6.3 Teaching instruction practices of lecturers related to the implementation of learner-centred approaches in teacher preparation

6.3.1 Frequency of providing instructional activities that required collaborative, inductive, and experiential learning.

The study through the questionnaire also required lecturers to respond to items that required them to indicate the frequency of providing instructions that encouraged learner-centred methods through collaborative, inductive, and experiential learning activities to which lecturers indicated their views in the form of Never, Occasionally, Often or All the time (see Table 5.7). The results showed that on providing instructional opportunities that required students to engage in collaborative learning, 52.0% of the lecturers reported often, while 60.0% reported occasionally in terms of utilising inductive instructional strategy, and 48.0% reported often using experiential learning methods.

Generally, the study found that even though lecturers reported being prepared to facilitate learning through learner-centred methods such as collaborative, inductive, and experiential teaching strategies, their ratings of classroom instruction activities suggested that the use of learner-centred

methods was low across types of colleges. Specifically, there were little instructional activities that provoked critical thinking or that cultivated problem-solving skills (inductive) in student teachers during their course of teacher preparation. The emerging picture from the findings pointed to the fact that instructional activities that required the use of inductive methods were used occasionally.

This finding affirms the National Assessment Survey of 2016 observation that the project method was least practised at only 22.5 percent in Zambian colleges of education. The commonwealth of learning (2005, p.2) report on Zambia's Teacher Education Curriculum also supports this finding when it recorded that, "teacher education curriculum in colleges remained tilted towards content and examination, leaving very little room for learning problem-solving skills." Elsewhere, Chipiko and Shawa's (2014) study of primary schools in Malawi reported that most teachers failed to advance activities that foster critical thinking and problem-solving skills in learners during classroom instruction.

It is, therefore, argued in this study that the reported lack of practice of inductive and other methods related to learner-centred learning could be as a result of lecturers not modelling (demonstrating) these methods to student teachers during teacher preparation. This viewpoint is supported by literature reports on the disparities between theory and practice in teacher education and agrees with strong suggestion from research advocating for strong coherence between theory and practice in teacher education programmes (Darling-Hammond, 1999, 2006; Grossman, Hammerness, McDonald, & Ronfeldt, 2008; Hammerness, 2006 Howey & Zimpher, 1989; Korthagen, Kessels, Koster, Lagerwerf, & Wubbles, 2001).

6.3.2 Social Studies lecturers' rating of instructional activities which took up most of the lecturers' time over the course of a typical week.

The importance a teacher attaches to a particular type of instructional activity or practice will inevitably influence or persuade the frequency of its usage in the classroom. Based on this argument, the study elicited for lecturers' ratings of instructional activities which took up most of their time over a typical week according to the type of college. Ten instructional activities were used to help collect data that helped review lecturers' rating of instruction activities that dominated their classroom practice. The ten instructional activities if utilised in the teaching and learning process provide an indication of learner-centred approaches utilised in teacher preparation.

The study found that most of the lecturers never or rarely used instructional activities related to the learner-centred learning approach. This impacted negatively on the student teachers. All the ten selected learner-centred related instructional activities used in the questionnaire were rated as

either rarely or never used over a week. For instance on instructional tasks that lead a class of students doing an investigation that demands complex reasoning, 10 lecturers (40.0%) indicated never to engaging students doing an investigation that demands complex reasoning and 3 lecturers (12.0%) rated it as rarely while 7 lecturers (28.0 %) rated it as always, and only 5 lecturers (20.0%) rated it as frequently used.

Similar results were reported on instructional activities in which lecturers asked open-ended questions to promote engagement with big ideas where 64.0% or 16 lecturers out of 25 rated this activity as never taking up most of their time over the course of a typical week. Lecturers' modelling to a class on how to approach a problem or task was equally rated as not taking up most of the lecturers' time with 12 (48.0%) lecturers reporting it as never taking up most of their time over the course of a typical week. Results on instruction activities that demanded facilitation of a whole-class discussion where students presented ideas or received feedback and other instruction activities also indicated that 11 lecturers (44.4%) rated this instructional activity as taking up most of their time over the course of a week.

Similarly, 14 lecturers (56.0%) rated answering procedural questions at an individual or in groups as well as helping students stay on task as never. The picture is not very different from other instructional activities, as depicted in Table 5.10. Most of the lecturers never or rarely used instructional activities related to the learner-centred learning approach. From the findings, it was clear that there was a persistent presence of a lecturer-led or controlled type of classroom instructional activities. In practice, lectures' ratings did not relate to the in-depth implementation of learner-centred instruction activities.

Worth noting from lecturers' rating of instructional activities that took up most of their instruction time was that Social Studies lecturers across public, private and grant-aided colleges of education did not seem to rate the instructional activities highly in terms of such instructional activities taking up most of their teaching time in the teaching-learning process. What this goes to suggest is a likelihood of the persistent presence of a lecturer-led or controlled type of classroom instructional practice that left little or no room for innovation and which did not guarantee the implementation of learner-centred education in practice as demanded by the Zambian education curriculum. Nunan's (1999) study, which was based on Second Language Teaching in the United States of America (USA) also revealed supporting evidence for the persistent presence of a lecturer-led or controlled type of classroom instructional practice. According to Nunan's (1999), teachers whose view of teaching and learning is Traditional, are very much in control of the instructional process

and prefer to devote much more time to engage students with high-structure tasks in which teachers have all the power and control.

6.3.3 Engagement student teachers' in learner- centred related instructional activities during teacher preparation

According to the National Council for the Social Studies (1993),as cited in Yilmaz (2008, p.3), “the fundamental goal of teaching Social Studies in schools is to help students become responsible, critical, reflective, and active citizens who can make informed and reasoned decisions about the societal issues confronting the local, state, and global community respectively”. Students are therefore expected to develop a positive disposition towards participatory democracy and to engage in the public issues for the common good actively. For students to be active and participatory citizens, they need to have the kinds of opportunities that allow them to actively engage in thinking, reasoning, and questioning (Yilmaz, 2008). Since learner-centred instruction urges students to actively construct meaning and understanding during every phase of the learning process, it can serve as an invaluable tool to help realise the vital goals of Social Studies education. The survey, therefore, solicited for lecturers' response to the frequency of engaging student teachers in selected types of learner-centred related instructional activities in class using a five Likert Scale which ranged from Never, Rarely, Sometimes, Often and Every day (Table 5.11).

The findings of the study revealed that students were rarely engaged in work related to solving a real-world problem or hands-on experiments (44.0%), and writing reflections on progress (44.0%). The results also showed that instructional activities that required student teachers to design or implement their own investigations or research projects were rated as sometimes (60.0%) as well as engagement in performance assessments involving teachers and peers (28.0%). Work on materials for a portfolio was also unpopular among lecturers' instructional practice with those who reported Never, Rarely, or sometimes accounting for 72%.

Furthermore, the study found that listening to teacher presentation or lecture type of instructional activities and student participation in discussions led by the teacher as well as taking notes in the class were rated highly frequently in lecturers' classroom discourse. For instance, lecturers who reported often and every day engaging student teachers in Note-taking accounted for 68% representing 18 lecturers of a sample of 25 while the combined percentages of listening to teacher presentation or lecture and student participation in discussions led by the teacher individually accounted for 72%. The findings of this study are in line with earlier observations by Nunan (1999) who observed that teachers whose view of teaching and learning is teacher-centred, are very much

in control of the instructional process and prefer to devote much more time to engage students with high-structure tasks (in which teachers have all the power and control). These findings are not different from those of Vavrus (2009) whose study in Tanzania reported that student teachers do not have time and support during training to practice enacting more constructivist viewpoints and that student teachers by the time of graduation do not fully grasp learner-centred education.

In addition, the study found that engaging student teachers' in student-led discussions or activities, making formal presentations to the class as well as collaborative work in pairs or small groups on assigned tasks were some of the most common instructional activities that Social Studies lecturers reported as most common in their lesson discourse. The findings of this study further underscore Mtika and Gates' (2009) position that without adequate pedagogical knowledge and practice during teacher preparation, student teachers end up using teaching and learning approaches which mimicked their lecturers. This study further agrees with Mtika and Gates's (2010) study that raised doubt on the practical expertise of lecturers themselves in learner-centred education arguing that student teachers' lack of knowledge and skills in learner-centred education was a result of their lecturers lacking adequate expertise in learner-centred education themselves.

Even though lecturers wanted to supervise student teachers who applied learner-centred education as required by the college, the lecturers may not have modelled student teachers on learner-centred training. Of course, it may be that the lecturers themselves did not have the adequate practical expertise to enact learner-centred pedagogy in their own practice. Their only alternative then was to adopt a "don't do as I do, do as I say" pedagogy, (Mtika & Gates, 2010, pp.399-400).

Russell (2002) cited in Mtika and Gates (2010, p. 399) also noted that, "as long as teacher educators advocated innovative pedagogy and did not model, illustrate, and read it as text in their own teacher education classrooms, teacher education reform was bound to fail".

6.3.4 Ratings of instructional activities regarding their importance in the classroom.

Many teacher educators have alleged that learner-centred methods equip learners with the needed concepts, knowledge, attitudes, skills and techniques to efficiently handle Social Studies at the primary level (Evans, 1972). An extensive literature review conducted by McKeachie (1994, p.77) on school teaching methods concluded that "If we want learners to become more effective in meaningful learning and thinking, they need to spend more time inactive, meaningful learning and thinking, not just sitting and passively receiving information".

Therefore, envisioned benefits of learner-centred learning approach could only be realized if the teacher educators (lecturers) attach great importance to instructional activities that help promote learner-centred learning. Against this background, one of the items in the survey questionnaire required lecturers to rate instructional activities regarding their importance to classroom instructions. A 4 Likert Scale on 14 items that needed lecturers to indicate Not important, Less important, Important, and Very important (Table 5.9) was used to solicit for information. Data on this aspect was important as it was meant to make meaning of the study by collaborating with earlier data on lecturers' rating of instructional activities which took up most of their time over the course of a typical week and lecturers' responses on how often student teachers were engaged in selected types of instructional activities in class. The argument is that the level of importance that teacher educators attach to given instruction activities will influence its frequency use and engagement of learners in such instruction activities.

The study established that Social Studies lecturers rated highly important the instructional activities used in this study (see Table 5.9). The problem, however, was low implementation or practice of these instructional activities, especially those that facilitated inductive learning such as critical thinking or problem-solving. For example, instructional activities such as leading a class of students doing an investigation that demands complex reasoning (56.0%); facilitating a whole class discussion where students present ideas or give/receive feedback (56.0%); and providing instruction through extended formal presentation/lecture (52.0%) were rated as important. From these findings, it can be concluded that although Social Studies lecturers acknowledged the importance of the said instructional activities, this did not translate into actual practice in the classroom.

6.3.5 Ratings of assessment strategies in terms of their frequency of use in assessing student learning in class.

One way of ascertaining whether classroom instructional practice is learner-centred or not is by examining the assessment instructional practice of the teacher or classroom. Some assessment instructional practice put the learner at the centre of the assessment practice, thereby promoting higher student retention and class participation (Rich et al., 2014). The theoretical framework of learner-centred assessment emphasizes problem-solving, higher-order thinking skills, the promotion of a sense of ownership in learning, and a dialogic approach to instruction (Rich, 2011 cited in Rich, et al., 2014). It is against this background that this thesis elicited for lecturers' rating

of assessment strategies for how important they were in assessing student learning in class in order to infer if classroom assessment practices were pro-learner-centred education.

Despite this, it was clear from lecturers' responses to research question two that many lecturers still used assessment to measure how much the students had already learned. However, under learner-centred education, the focus of assessment strategies is not on whether students have learned anything but instead creating assessments which double as learning experiences themselves. In this respect, assessments don't measure what was learned only; but rather, they should be methods for getting students to learn while they are completing the given task.

The study found that most of the lecturers rated the assessment strategies that put the learner at the centre of the assessment practice as either rarely or never used in assessing student learning in class. The results as indicated in Tables 5.13 show that traditional quizzes or tests, portfolio submissions and accompanying rationale, classroom participation, extended (more than a week-long) individual projects, extended (more than a week-long) collaborative projects, daily homework and daily check-ins, and journals, lab books or notebooks were mostly rated as never in terms of their frequency of use in assessing student learning in class. Specifically, traditional quizzes or tests, portfolio submissions, and daily homework and daily check-ins all scored 52.0%. In addition, classroom participation (56.0%); extended (more than a week-long) individual projects (68.0%); extended (more than a week-long) collaborative projects (68.0%); and lab books or notebooks (64.0%) were also rated as never in terms of their frequency of use in assessing student learning in class. What this implies is that strategies that evoked higher-order thinking through critical thinking or problem solving were not rated as frequently used to evaluate student learning in class by lecturers.

On assessment strategies that were always used, end-of-course or end-of-term exams were rated 36.0%; and student presentation to class was rated 32.0%. Further analysis showed that student writing (essays, reports, etc.) was rated as sometimes by nine lecturers (36.0%) in terms of using it in assessing student learning in class.

This just goes to show that lecturers' classroom assessment practices are mostly teacher dominated contrary to the principles of constructivist pedagogical theory. Perhaps this resonates with Moyo (1980) who postulated that in Zambia, when teachers are studying teaching in many institutions of practice or profession, much more attention is placed on teachers instructional practices, than how they conduct learners' classroom assessment practices to improve the academic performance of a

learner (Moyo, 1980). This neglect probably has led to low and poor assessment practices by teachers observed in schools (Stiggings, 2001).

6.3.6 Classroom instructional practices that dominated most of the student teachers' classrooms during school experience

Apart from the quantitative data collected from the lecturers on instructional activities that took up most of the teaching time and student teachers' engagement in learner-centred related instructional activities in class during teacher preparation, the study also collected qualitative data from student teachers through Focus Group Discussion. The idea was to tap into student teachers' experiences on classroom instruction methods that dominated their teaching during school experience and compare it with the quantitative data collected from lecturers on instruction activities that took up most of their teaching time during teacher preparation. The rationale was to use student teachers' experiences as a basis for judging whether the learner-centred approaches to learning took centre stage in student teachers' lessons during school experience.

In addition, the Heads of Social Studies Section in three colleges were also interviewed to give their perspective on the classroom instruction practices (methods) that dominated student teachers' classrooms during their school experience monitoring exercise. This was meant to add a voice from teacher trainers (Heads of Social Studies section) on classroom instructional practices that dominated student teachers' classroom instructional practices.

It was observed from the focus group discussions that most of the classroom instructional practices that dominated student teachers' classrooms during school experience included group work, class discussion, and question and answer. In terms of the reasons why they resorted to such methods, students seemed to suggest a whole lot of reasons to justify their classroom instructional practice some of which bordered on encouraging pupil participation and sharing of views, ideas and knowledge; large numbers of pupils per class, time factor to complete the planned work among other reasons.

Views on the typical classroom instructional practice of student teachers during school experience were also obtained from three Social Studies Heads of the section in the three types of primary colleges of education using face to face interviews. Heads of the Social Studies Section also confirmed that question and answer; group work and class discussions were the most common instruction methods among student teachers. However, Heads reported that in most cases, student teachers were tempted to use teacher-led methods where they talked for the most part of the lessons

but were discouraged. This revelation seemed to be in line with other studies that seem to suggest that African teachers may be aware of and appreciate the value of more progressive approaches to teaching and learning, but fail to make them a consistent part of their practice (Akyeampong et al., 1999; Penny & Jessop 1998; Lewin & Stuart, 2001, cited in Akyeampong, 2002). The challenge, according to this study, however, is that it would appear like lecturers go to observe a teaching culture (learner-centred methods) that they do not model during teacher preparation. This is a wrong practice because there are research findings that have concluded that new teachers cannot learn ambitious teaching practices in school placements alone (Britzman, 1991; Feiman-Nemser & Buchmann, 1985; McDonald, 2005).

The views of the Heads of Social Studies Section further underscore the findings of Vavrus and Barlett's (2012) study in upper secondary of Tanzania aimed at exploring how Tanzanian secondary teachers understood and implemented learner-centred teaching methods in the contexts in which they work. It involved 23 Secondary Schools teachers in six schools in Northern Tanzania and used observations and interviews. The study revealed that although teachers were positive towards learner-centred education, teachers did not encourage higher thinking to allow students to arrive at different conclusions.

Furthermore, a study Hardman et al. (2008) in Nigerian primary schools reported ritualised practice of cued elicitation and 'teacher check', and that lessons were characterised by 98% teacher talk with closed questions as well as factual recall. These findings were not different from those of Ackers and Hardman's (2001) study done in Kenya Primary to explore classroom interaction as a part of national baseline study for Ministry of Education. The study reported that classroom observations of lessons noted a high number of closed, teacher-directed exchanges interrogating pupil's knowledge; very few pupils asked questions, and little higher-order questioning or responding to students was observed.

6.3.7 Opportunities for pedagogical practice of learner-centred instructional practices during teacher preparation.

As echoed by Grossman et al. (2009), teacher education curriculum needs to include at its core opportunities to learn to perform a repertoire of teaching tasks and to choose among them with deliberate attention to pupils, as well as opportunities to acquire content and foundational knowledge centrally crucial to the work of teaching. It is against this background that large-scale research studies examining different teacher education programs have begun exploring critical features of teacher education such as the type and nature of coursework and clinical practice; the

linkages between fieldwork and university or college coursework; the presence of opportunities to enact the work of real classroom teaching; and the nature of the program's vision of good teaching (Boyd & Grossman et al., 2006; Grossman et al., 2008; Feiman-Nemser, Tamir, & Hammerness, 2014).

Since it is through practice of instructional methods that student teachers would build their confidence levels and skills to apply these learner-centred methods in a classroom situation and in trying to address objective two of this study, data was collected on whether student teachers felt enough opportunities were given to them during teacher preparation to practice instructional activities that promote learner-centred learning to which students expressed their agreement, disagreement and being undecided as shown in Table 5.12. Student teachers' responses revealed that 48.0% disagreed to being given adequate opportunities for pedagogical practice of different learner-centred methods, 22.5% were undecided, and 29.6% agreed.

Using the Kruskal-Wallis H test to test the difference in student teachers' views on being given adequate opportunities to practice how to teach using learner-centred learning methods across three types of colleges (Private, Grant-aided and Public colleges) also revealed that there was no statistically significant difference in pre-service student teachers' views about being given adequate opportunities to practice how to teach using learner-centred learning methods between the different types of colleges, $\chi^2(2) = 0.370$, $p = 0.831$, with a mean rank opportunity score of 287.51 for private colleges, 276.42 for grant-aided college and 280.74 for public colleges. This mean that differences in pre-service student teachers' views about being given opportunities to practice how to teach using learner-centred learning methods were not statistically significant. In other, there was no significant difference in the way student teachers from the three types of college felt about being given adequate opportunities to practice how to teach using learner-centred methods.

During focus group discussions, student teachers were concerned that Peer Teaching was not adequate as it did not avail everyone an opportunity to practice or observe how to teach using various learner-centred methods. It was also evident from student teachers during focus group discussion that not enough much was done during macro teaching in terms of observing different teaching cultures from practicing teachers related to learner-centred education. Qualitative data of this study further indicated that most of the student teachers were of the view that the continued use of lecture methods by most lecturers in class was a reason why they felt not competent enough to use a number of learner-centred methods. Based on both quantitative and qualitative data, this

study established that student teachers expressed dissatisfaction with the pedagogical practicing opportunities during teacher preparation arguing that more time was spent on teaching what the methods were in terms of definition, advantages, and disadvantages and not demonstrating to them by way of lecturers modelling during teacher preparation how these methods should be used.

The study however, also found that although student teachers generally expressed a lack of adequate opportunities to learn and practice good teaching practices related to learner-centred education, effort was done in some colleges to expose students to macro teaching in the demonstration schools meant for student teachers to have a feel of the real classroom environment and to learn from practicing teachers. The problem however was that the practice of exposing students to macro teaching in demonstration schools was not a common practice in all the colleges. Even those colleges that practiced macro teaching as a way of exposing students to more real classroom experience during teacher preparation had expressed fear of the sustainability of this practice citing logistical challenges related to transport and financial aspect attached to the exercise. These challenges limited the frequency of students being exposed to such real time experiences in primary schools and have an implication on the extent to which a number of good teaching practices related to learner-centred education are explored. There was in fact an indication from the field that macro teaching in demonstration schools may come to an end in some college (s) and instead peer teaching to be the main activity. The large classes in primary schools further put the effectiveness of macro teaching into balance.

It can be deduced, therefore, that lack of training and self-efficacy in learner-centred pedagogical approaches by student teachers were some of the obstacles in the implementation of learner-centred methods. This is partly due to the lack of adequate pedagogical practice and where it existed, an ineffective and poorly organised macro and peer teaching experiences during teacher preparation. Like Boyd et al.'s (2009) study concluded in their study of teacher preparation in New York City, teachers who are given the opportunity to practice activities that are close to the work of actual classroom teaching by way of studying local curriculum; listening to a child read aloud to assess her reading ability; or to examine samples of student work, for example, have a greater impact upon their students' learning.

Therefore, a vision of good teaching that is not translated into practice "...fails to give teachers the tools they need to develop a sustainable practice" (Kennedy, 2006, p. 211). Previous research has shown that without adequate pedagogical knowledge and practice, student teachers end up using teaching and learning approaches which mimicked their lecturers (Mtika & Gates, 2009). Russell

(2002, cited in Mtika & Gates, 2010, p. 399) also noted that as long as teacher educators advocated innovative pedagogy and did not model, illustrate, and read it as text in their own teacher education classrooms, teacher education reform was bound to fail.

Although the findings of this study contrast with Kangwa (2018) whose case study at EHC (College) in Zambia revealed that students acquired and developed pedagogic skills necessary for them to teach well, the findings are in agreement with Simuyaba, et al. (2015) whose study titled 'Theory against Practice: Training of Teachers in a Vacuum' reported that the training offered to college students did not prepare them for real-life situations in the field and with Manchishi and Mwanza (2016) whose qualitative study to establish whether or not peer teaching was still a useful technique in introducing student teachers to practicalities of teaching, revealed that though useful, its implementation was still a challenge and the inconsistencies made it less effective. Writing about the quality of prospective teachers of history graduating from the University of Zambia, Chabatama (2012, p.14) also revealed that, “there seems to be no link between knowledge and skills the graduates from the University of Zambia go with and the school syllabuses”. The relevance of Chabatama's findings to this study lies in the fact that the study questioned the skills that graduate teachers exhibit after graduation.

These findings also resonate well with the qualitative case study by Mtika and Gates (2010), which mainly addressed the capability of trainee teachers to implement learner-centred practice at one of the teacher education institutions in Malawi. In that study, the authors indicated that progressive pedagogical notions aligned with social constructivism promoted in teacher education institutions have not resulted in a widespread change in classroom practice. Mtika and Gates (2010) were of the view that college student teachers' failure to implement learner-centred approaches may have been due to the inability by college lecturers to adopt and practice learner-centred strategies in their own teaching. According to Vavrus (2009, p. 309) as cited in Mtika & Gates (2010, p. 402), the quality of teacher education is a limiting factor to the successful implementation of the pedagogical shift to social constructivist based approaches.

There is need therefore to make distinctions between what is learned in college or university settings and school settings so as to reinforce the historical divide that has existed between theory and practice in teacher education (Darling-Hammond, 2014; Zeichner, 2010). This shift towards practice requires a number of changes in the teacher education curriculum and pedagogy (Grossman, Hammerness, & McDonald, 2009). This includes grounding the study of theory by providing opportunities for prospective teachers to see and rehearse teaching practices during

college or university-based coursework, aligned with specific visions of good teaching. In other words, there is a need for more pedagogical practices both in a college setting and school setting supplemented by teacher trainers modelling various instructional methods during teacher preparation. This study casts doubts that in its current form, macro teaching, peer teaching, and practical teaching methods provides a good platform for producing quality teachers and argues that learning about practice should be relegated to school settings.

6.4 Lecturers' and student teachers' sense of efficacy in collaborative, inductive, and experiential learning methods

This section presents the results of the data for research objective three. Objective three of the study examined lecturers' and student teachers' sense of efficacy in collaborative, inductive, and experiential learning methods. According to Bandura's theory (1986), people with high self-efficacy that is, those who believe they can perform well are more likely to view difficult tasks as something to be mastered rather than something to be avoided. When applied to the teaching context, teachers' self-efficacy beliefs may be impacted by their classroom experiences or their students' achievement, their observations of peers, the arguments of their colleagues, and their levels of exhaustion (Ross, 1998; cited in Holzberger, et al., 2013). When viewed from the teacher preparation context, one role that any teacher preparation should strive to achieve, whether directly or indirectly is the development of positive (high) self-efficacy among student teachers. This includes self-efficacy development in instructional and pedagogical knowledge through specific, relevant and adequate experiences during teacher preparation courses.

From this perspective, teachers' instructional quality may not only be an outcome of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs but may also influence the development of teachers' self-efficacy beliefs (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). It is against this background that the third research objective of this study sought to examine lecturers' and student teachers' perspectives on how confident they felt prepared in knowledge and skills needed to facilitate learner-centred learning through collaborative, inductive, and experiential learning. A 5 Likert scale of Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Not Sure (NS), Disagree (D), and Strongly Disagree (SD) was used to collect views from both lecturers and students (Appendix 4 and appendix 6) that address objective three. For clarity sake, lecturers' and student teachers' sense of efficacy in collaborative, inductive, and experiential learning methods are discussed below separately under each sub-theme.

6.4.1 Lecturers and student teachers' sense of efficacy in Inductive Methods.

Lecturers and student teachers in the survey were asked to examine their sense of efficacy to teach using selected learner-centred methods that are inductive in nature, such as inquiry, problem-solving, project-based, and modelling. Their responses are displayed in Table 5.15.

The study established that most of the student teachers across the three types of colleges expressed a low sense of efficacy in their knowledge and skills to facilitate learning using inductive methods such as inquiry, project-based, modelling, and problem-solving. Lack of opportunities to learn by observation and through task and performance modelling during teacher preparation is cited in this study as the main factor. Cumulative findings of the study revealed that 71.5% of the student teachers disagreed with having the knowledge and skills to facilitate learning using inductive methods such as inquiry, project-based, modelling, and problem-solving. Further analysis with Kruskal-Wallis H test showed that there was no statistically significant difference in pre-service student teachers' sense of efficacy in facilitating learning using inquiry $\chi^2(2) = 5.028, p = 0.081$, with a mean rank inquiry score of 276.91 for private colleges, 303.51 for grant-aided college and 270.63 for public colleges. This entails that differences in pre-service student teachers' sense of efficacy in facilitating learning using inquiry method were not statistically significant. Similarly, the results showed no statistically significant difference in pre-service student teachers' sense of efficacy in facilitating learning using problem based, project-based and model building methods.

These findings are in agreement with a study by Barends (2004) in Namibia that attributed lack of training and confidence by teachers as some of the obstacles in the implementation of learner-centred methods and suggested the need for further training by teachers in order to understand the difference between learner-centred and teacher-centred education (TCE). Thus without adequate pedagogical knowledge and practice, student teachers end up using teaching and learning approaches which mimicked their lecturers (Mtika and Gates, 2009). Russell (2002), as cited in Mtika and Gates (2010, p. 399) noted that; "as long as teacher educators advocated innovative pedagogy and did not model, illustrate, and read it as text in their own teacher education classrooms, teacher education reform was bound to fail.

These findings are also consistent with the Commonwealth of Learning report on Zambia's Teacher Education Curriculum (2005, p.2) which reported that "teacher education curriculum in colleges remained tilted towards content and examination, leaving very little room for learning problem-solving skills". The findings of this study also correspond to the findings by Banda et al. (2014), who revealed that problem-solving approach was still a problem among science teachers in

Zambia. This study further agrees with Banda et al.'s (2014) observation that contents of teacher preparation and training, as well as an instructional approach, have to be reviewed if learner-centred learning is to be realised in teacher preparation and training. Lack of pedagogical engagement in problem-solving methods and other learner-centred related instructional activities could be a reason for students' low self-efficacy. This resonates well with the findings to research objective two under which lecturers reported not frequently utilising and engaging student teachers in instructional activities that promote learning through critical thinking or problem-solving activities.

Since knowledge and skills for inductive teaching and learning are not adequately natured in students during teacher preparation, it is very unlikely that student teachers would utilize such teaching methods with ease in their lessons once they graduate. As a result, learners may not benefit from high cognitive thinking skills, problem solving skills, enhanced retention of learnt facts or knowledge and development of logical thinking and creativity skills that came with inductive teaching skills. In this regard Mtika and Gates (2010) further raises doubt on the practical expertise of lecturers themselves in learner-centred education arguing that student teachers' lack of knowledge and skills in learner-centred education be as a result of their lecturers lacking adequate expertise in learner-centred education themselves.

Even though lecturers wanted to supervise student teachers who applied learner centred education as required by the college, the lecturers may not have modelled to student teachers on learner-centred education. Of course it may be that the lecturers themselves did not have adequate practical expertise to enact learner-centred pedagogy in their own practice. Their only alternative then was to adopt a “don't do as I do, do as I say” pedagogy, (Mtika & Gates, 2010, pp.399-400).

Cumulative results for lecturers showed that 85.0% believed they had the knowledge and skills to facilitate learning in inductive learning methods. It was evident from the findings of the study that a disparity existed between lecturers and student teachers in efficacy level regarding knowledge and skills to facilitate learning using inductive methods.

6.4.2 Lecturers and student teachers' sense of efficacy in collaborative methods

Lecturers and student teachers' sense of efficacy in facilitating learning using collaborative instructional methods was based on Pair work, Group work, and whole-class discussion methods of teaching. The study established that both lecturers and student teachers expressed high levels of

self-efficacy in being able to teach using collaborative methods. The cumulative percentages from the findings indicated that the majority (87.4%) of student teachers reported that they had adequate knowledge and skills to facilitate learning through pair work, whole-class discussion, and group work methods. The same picture emerged out of lecturers' responses with the cumulative percentage of 93.3%, agreeing that they had adequate knowledge and skills to facilitate learning using collaborative methods. However, self-rating could have been the reason for the high ratings. Evidence from lesson observations of student teachers however, revealed that the organisations and implementation of group work method was not effective. The group work lacked individual accountability, positive interdependence, and promotive interactions.

6.4.3 Lecturers and student teachers' sense of efficacy in experiential learning.

Lecturers' and student teachers' sense of efficacy in using experiential learning was examined based on three teaching methods. These included role-playing, debate, and fieldwork (see Table 5.18). The study established that both lecturers and student teachers had a high sense of efficacy in facilitating learning using experiential learning methods. The findings indicated that the average cumulative percentage of student teachers who agreed to have the knowledge and skills to facilitate learning using experiential learning stood at 76.1% while that for lecturers was 86.7%.

From the findings of this study, it was clear that there was a link between teachers' sense of efficacy and their choice and practice of classroom instructions. Therefore, it was likely that teaching methods in which students and lecturers expressed a high sense of efficacy were more likely to be adopted in their teaching and learning process. This assertion is supported by previous studies. For example, in a study by Graham et al. (2001), it was found that there was a direct link between variables in efficacy scores and teachers' beliefs about how to teach. In other words, the way teachers perceived their capabilities to teach seemed to influence their instructional practices directly.

6.5 Aspects of teacher and learner-initiated interactions present in student teachers' lessons

The quest for learner-centred approaches to instruction links well with the progressivist learning theory which urges teachers to always encourage creative thinking, problem-solving skills as well as for analytic thinking in learners. Thus it is within the classroom setting that teachers must recreate problems which exist in the society and guide learners in the direction of solving them. Objective four of this study sought to analyse final year student teachers' lessons for aspects of teacher and learner-initiated interactions during school experience using discourse analysis.

According to Emanuelsson and Sahlström (2008), discourse analysis can be used to understand the balance between teacher control over lesson content and student participation in educational interactions. In line with Emanuelsson and Sahlström (2008), this study used lesson observation and discourse analysis of lesson videos to generate data that addressed research objective four.

A total of ten lesson videos in Social Studies were analysed for aspects of teacher and learner-initiated interactions. Aspects of teacher and learner-initiated interactions in this study were reported in terms of the number of times teacher and learner initiated interactions reflected individual nominations, the invitation to bid, and invitation to reply for teacher-initiated interactions as well as calling out, and bidding to speak for learner-initiated interactions. The study found that there was an average of 25.2 teachers initiated interactions per lesson in which invitation to bid (with a frequency of 137) type of interactions dominated the lesson discourse. Invitation to reply was second with a frequency of 69. Concerning learner-initiated interactions, there was an average of 11.2 learner-initiated interactions per lesson with calling out type of interactions being the highest with a frequency of 78 compared to bidding to speak with 33.

Based on the findings from a discourse analysis of video-recorded lessons, it was very clear that student teachers' lessons were mainly dominated by teacher-initiated interactions in which invitation to bid (with a frequency of 137) type of interactions dominated the lesson discourse compared to learner-initiated interactions (see Table 5.19). This study took student teachers' classroom instructional discourse as a reflection of their own teacher preparation back in the colleges and is of the view that student teachers were not being adequately exposed to these learner-centred instructional practices and thus were ill prepared for the same. These findings confirmed Karavas-Doukas's (1996) study, which also found that traditional practice (teacher-centred) was more frequent than communicative practice (learner-centred) and that most of the lessons were teacher-centred. The findings of this study are also consistent with Kaymakamoğlu and Küçük's (2018) study, which observed that traditional practice was more frequent than informative constructivist method.

A survey by Ackers and Hardman (2001) aimed at exploring classroom interaction in Kenyan primary schools also found a high number of closed teacher-directed exchanges as well as very few pupil-initiated questions. The study also observed that little higher-order questioning or responding to students. Answers were also mostly choral work, with boys answering more than girls. These findings are further confirmed by Ngware et al. (2012) who in their study to explore teaching practices and differences across subjects in high- and low performing primary schools in

Kenyan primary schools found that teachers taught in similar ways regardless of teaching experience, school category and subject. Also, the teaching style was predominantly teacher-centred, particularly command and practice style. 'Active teaching' also took up 2/3 of lesson teaching, concentrated on teacher checking on how individuals carry out teacher-assigned tasks, a teacher asking individuals questions and a teacher demonstrating to the whole class.

It is however, worth reporting that despite teacher-initiated interactions dominating the lesson discourse, classroom interactions revealed a mixture of both teacher-centred and learner-centred interactions. The findings of this study give support to the earlier studies that have discussed aspects of teacher and learner-initiated interactions present in teachers' lessons. For instance, a study by Kaymakamoğlu and Küçük (2018) that explored the 'EFL teachers' beliefs, perceived practice and actual classroom practise in relation to Traditional (teacher-centred) and Constructivist (learner-centred) teaching in Cyprus Turkish State Secondary Schools context', revealed that teachers' lessons were a mixture of both teacher-centred and learner-centred teaching.

In this study, lesson observations also revealed that group work, question and answer, and whole-class discussion were the most common instruction methods used by student teachers. However, for group work methods, it was observed that very little Individual Accountability where students become accountable for their own learning and for each other's learning by assessing each group member's performance on a given task existed. In addition, Positive Interdependence whereby each member in a group perceives that he or she cannot succeed unless the group does was also lacking - In most cases, groups were dominated by a few members. Furthermore, the aspect of promotive Interaction, whereby group members challenged each other's ideas was also lacking in most group work activities. The findings of this study collaborate with the observations by Kuchah and Smith (2011) who reported that no active communication takes place in group work method because some students feel shy to communicate to their fellow students during group discussion.

In addition, lesson observation sessions also revealed that teachers failed to advance activities that fostered critical thinking and problem-solving skills in learners during classroom instruction. For instance, group work activities were not well monitored by teachers, given the many challenges reported in this study. Furthermore, observations showed that tasks given in groups were not as complex and challenging to provoke higher-order thinking related to solving real-life problems. Learners were also not given the opportunity to think individually first before collaborating in groups.

6.6 Factors perceived by final year student teachers as impeding the successful implementation of learner-centred learning in primary schools

Since teachers' perspectives and views are important in the successful implementation of any education policy, "detailed descriptions of teachers' perspectives, beliefs, and, instructional practices are needed if the profession is to assess the nature of instruction accurately and to determine where, when, and how changes might be made and implemented" (Fraenkel, 1992, cited in Yilmaz, 2008, p.3). Yilmaz (2008, p.3) referred to a number of empirical studies that have shown that teachers' conceptions play a significant role in framing the ways they plan, implement, and evaluate the curriculum (e.g., Clark & Peterson, 1986; Thompson, 1992; Fang, 1996; Andrews & Hatch, 2000; Hancock & Gallard, 2004). All of these research studies show that in order to understand the way teachers teach, we must uncover the structural components of teachers' thoughts.

But although teachers may have a positive disposition towards new innovations, numerous barriers can block implementation efforts. These barriers may be extrinsic or intrinsic, and even though teachers may not face all these barriers, literature suggests that any one of these barriers alone can significantly impede meaningful classroom use (Hardley & Sheingold, 1993; Hannafin & Savenye, 1993; Hativa & Lesgold, 1996, cited in Ertmer, 1999). This study adopted the concept of first-second-barriers to categorise student teachers' conception of barriers that impede successful implementation of learner-centred instructional activities. According to Ertmer (1999), first-order barriers also referred to as extrinsic factors describe the incremental or institutional factors that adjust current practice in an incremental fashion, making current practice more effective or efficient while leaving underlying beliefs unchallenged. These include poor quality of teacher preparation or training in learner-centred instruction practices, lack of access to teaching-learning resources or materials, insufficient time to plan and execute the instruction, lack of technical and administrative support, low literacy levels, over enrolments, and curriculum demands.

On the other hand, second-order barriers also referred to as intrinsic factors related to fundamental or personal beliefs about current practice that hinder teachers' implementation of learner-centred pedagogical approaches and include self-efficacy beliefs about knowledge and skills of learner-centred pedagogical approaches, beliefs about teaching, and beliefs about high curriculum demands on teachers and pupils of learner-centred pedagogical approaches.

In this study, the fifth objective sought to establish the factors impeding the successful implementation of learner-centred learning in primary schools in Zambia. The study revealed that the factors that impede successful implementation of learner-centred learning in primary schools in Zambia included lack of knowledge of learner-centred methods by student teachers, over enrolment, lack of adequate learning resources, inadequate time allocated per lesson in the primary curriculum to incorporate learner-centred approaches, low literacy levels among pupils, the belief among teachers that learner-centred methods disadvantages slow learners, teachers' own beliefs about teaching and the role of the teacher, and the unsupportive school leadership.

The following is the discussion of factors impeding the successful implementation of learner-centred learning in primary schools in Zambia. The discussion has been organised into general themes that emerged from the findings of the study which have been categorised into first and second-order barriers.

First-Order Barriers

6.6.1 Over enrolment

In this study, over enrolment emerged as one of the most influential factors hindering the successful implementation of learner-centred methods. During Focus Group Discussion, most student teachers commented that because of large classes, use of methods such as group work was a challenge because they spent more time on placing pupils in groups and controlling pupils' behaviours such as noisy making. In the same vein Nyimbili, *et al.* (2018) and Mbozi (2008) observed that large classes might be a limiting factor in the implementation of learner-centred methods and choice of teaching methods. Thus, some styles may not be employed at all, thereby depriving some learners who would have benefited from the employment of such styles. The findings of the study also coincide with Chiphiko and Shawa (2014) study which found that Malawian classrooms were overcrowded and this influenced teachers to avoid learner-centred activities like group work which promoted meaningful interaction amongst learners. O'Sullivan (2004) and Bartlett (2015) further agreed that overcrowded classrooms prevented pupil interaction in the learning situation, thereby defeating the purpose of learner-centred teaching approach in African schools.

The above views, however, are in contrast with what most researchers that advocate for learner-centred approaches have put forward. Researchers such as Ur (2000) and Hess (2001), for instance, argued that large classes could provide richer human resources and greater opportunities for

creativity than smaller classes. Thus, more students mean more ideas and provide more opinions and possibilities. A large class can also provide more opportunities for co-students' interaction, foster an atmosphere of cooperation and encourage creativity and innovation. Similarly Hayes (1997) suggested that although one of the biggest challenges of teaching a large class cited by most teacher is that a large number of students makes it more difficult to organise activities and foster participation in the classroom, this he said was not necessarily true arguing that students in large classes can learn just as well as those in small ones. On the other hand, Kennedy and Siegfried (1997) recommended that class size does not automatically correlate with students learning. Students in large classes can, therefore, learn just as well as those in small ones. What counts according to these scholars is not the size of the class, but the quality of the teaching. In this regard, Shaeffer (2006) recommended that good teachers of large classes should reflect on their teaching and not on the problems of having many students in a classroom.

Despite this debate, the belief that small classes are better is widely held by many. The Ministry of Education in Zambia acknowledges that large classes have an impact on the choice of the teaching methods since teachers have to adjust their teaching methods according to the number of pupils in a class which might lead to a teacher relying so much on teacher-centred methods. As a result, there is a widespread absence of student activity and hands-on experience which might contribute to the superficiality of learning and poor performance being experienced both in the examination and subsequently in real-life situations (MOE, 2012). Many schools also consider small classes as essential to good student learning. For instance, O'Connell and Smith (2000) explained that smaller classes could enhance the teacher's capability to supervise student performance and learning while White (1988) further observed that a large number of students in a class is a factor that inhibits school teachers from adopting a learner-centred approaches in their classroom. Class sizes are also used as an important indicator of an institution's commitment, and the nature of the experience students will have.

The revelation of this study calls for knowledge investment on how to implement learner-centred approaches amidst large classes which is a common feature in many Zambian classrooms and Africa in general, especially in rural areas. It would appear that from the respondents' side, most learner-centred methods will remain unutilised and if anything the whole concept of learner-centred approaches risks not being realised amidst large classes. However being a developing nation, reducing the pupil-teacher ratio to manageable numbers may not be feasible for Zambia in the short term. But should the implementation of a learner-centred approaches wait for that long? Not.

6.6.2 Lack of resources in schools

Access to resources in schools is a necessary condition for the integration of learner-centred methods in education. Effective adoption and integration of learner-centred education approach into schools depend mainly on the availability and accessibility of resources such as technology resources, labs, library, teaching aids, learning materials such as books among others. This study identified lack of resources as a significant barrier towards the implementation of a learner-centred approaches in primary schools. This is consistent with the findings by Nyimbili et al. (2018) in their study titled 'the Use of learner-centred Techniques in the Teaching of English Language in Selected Secondary Schools of Lundazi District' which revealed that inadequate teaching and learning material was one of the challenges faced in the implementation of learner-centred methods. A study was done by O'connell and Smith (2000), also revealed that the majority of the teachers reported lack of resources in their schools as a factor that hindered the use of learner-centred methods in their classrooms. Similarly, a study done by White (1988), teachers reported that their schools had inadequate lab equipments, technology resources; and school library's resources and as a result hindered the integration of learner-centred methods in the teaching and learning process.

6.6.3 Inadequate time and curriculum demands

Time was one of the factors that emerged as hindering the implementation of learner-centred methods in primary schools. The issue of time, according to respondents, was linked to the way the primary education sector is structured in Zambia. The Zambian primary sector, which runs from grade one to seven, is divided into lower section (grades 1-4) and upper section (grades 4 - 7). At the lower primary level, the curriculum allocates 30 minutes per subject lesson per day while 40 minutes is allocated per subject lesson per day at the upper section.

In this study, most of the student teachers felt that time allocated per lesson, especially single periods, was not enough to implement the learner-centred approaches. Linked to time was the demand to complete the syllabus. Most student teachers during focus group discussion were of the view that learner-centred methods delayed completion of schemes of work and syllabuses and yet supervisors expected them to complete their schemes of work. The revelation of this study is consistent with other similar studies which reported that rushing to cover the whole syllabus was a major challenge affecting the implementation of learner-centred methods in schools (Nyimbili et al., 2018; Gijbels, 2009; White, 1988). A study by White (1988) for instance explained that the intenseness of the standard curriculum and standard examinations influenced teachers' acceptance

of a student-centred teaching approach. In his study, teachers commented that the overcrowded standard curriculum and the extremely busy workday was pushing many teachers to select the traditional lecturing method. In addition, teachers mentioned that most of the time they felt under pressure trying to enable pupils to pass the standard examinations and were therefore forced to cram the curriculum in too little time in order to cover all the content of the standard curriculum.

This study finding is also supported by Cooper (2000) who alluded to the fact that although teachers may find learner-centred learning approaches more enjoyable and contributing to improved student learning, they still had questions about the amount of content that can be covered using these approaches. The study revealed that content coverage was still a high priority for teachers and that teachers doubted whether the same content could be covered with learner-centred learning approaches as can be covered with traditional lecture-based approaches.

The findings of this study and others cited above, point to the fact that time and the pressure to complete standard curriculum and prepare students for standard examinations were among the challenges affecting the successful implementation of learner-centred methods.

6.6.4 Low Literacy Levels among Pupils

Low literacy levels among learners at primary have been one major concern for the Zambian education sector. The Southern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Education Quality (SACMEQ) of 2013 revealed that 25% of grade six pupils could not read at a minimum level of learning and 3% could read at a specific desirable level (MOE, 1996). The use of English language (unfamiliar) when teaching was highlighted as one of the reasons for such low literacy levels among primary graders. During focus group discussions, low literacy levels among pupils emerged as one of the leading factors hindering the implementation of learner-centred methods in primary schools.

According to the student teachers, low literacy levels and language barrier negatively affected implementation of learner-centred methods in primary schools especially at upper section (grade 5-7) where it is mandatory that English should be the medium of instruction. The student teachers reported during focus group discussion that most pupils were unable to express themselves fluently in English. The situation, however, was different at grade 1 to 4, where a familiar language or language of play was a medium of instruction. The findings of this study revealed that low literacy levels at upper primary were a threat to the implementation of learner-centred learning methods. This posed a challenge because in some cases teachers were not familiar with the local language and so could not competently and accurately translate lessons in a familiar language or language

of play. Where student teachers could translate lessons into a familiar language, it was felt that this was time-consuming and delayed completion of planned work.

This finding is supported by the literature position that children learn better in the familiar language, which is also their language of play. Rigole et al. (2014), for instance, noted that language differences might also influence differences in instruction and learning outcomes. In light of this study, low literacy levels among primary graders emerged as one of the key factors hindering the active participation of learners in the classroom.

6.6.5 Unsupportive school leadership

Though resources are imperative, school leadership is a stronger predictor of teachers' use of Learner Centred Education Approach in teaching. For effective utilization of Learner Centred Education Approach by teachers, there is the need for strong leadership to drive a well-designed plan. Other scholars have discovered that the schools' policy and leaders do not accept or trust the Learner Centred Education Approach. Ross and Gray (2006) argued that unsupportive school leadership is a factor inhibiting teachers from adopting a learner-centred teaching approach.

Lack of support from the administration to take the initiative is one factor that participants raised. For example, it was reported from the focus group discussion that in schools, there are no wall maps or charts, and if the teacher wanted to come up with a map or chart by improvising using the flip papers and the markers, in most cases the school cannot provide these materials because they lack financial resources.

This finding seems to be in agreement with other research findings that have rightly pointed out that in some cases teachers lack the motivation to change existing classroom practices (Van Graan, 1998; Slabbert & Greenhalgh, 1999; Mpofu, 2002; NIED, 2003).

Second-Order Barriers

6.6.6 Lack of Knowledge of Learner-centred Methods by student teachers.

The first factor that impedes the successful implementation of learner-centred learning in primary schools was the lack of knowledge of learner-centred methods by student teachers. In this study, lack of knowledge of learner-centred methods by student teachers was associated with lecturers' low frequency of providing instructional activities that required learner-centred learning during teacher preparation as well as the lack of student teachers' engagement in activities that required learner-centred learning while pursuing the training in colleges. During focus group discussions,

most the student teachers acknowledged that lack of knowledge on how well learner-centred methods can be used as a factor that affected its implementation. It can, therefore, be inferred that lack of knowledge of learner-centred methods among teachers in Zambia was a factor contributing to the low levels of implementation of learner-centred methods.

The findings of the study on this aspect are supported by literature on teacher education which has continued to claim that teacher quality is one of the most important factors that inhibit the quality of education (Darling-Hammond, 1996; Darling-Hammond & Ball, 1997). The literature further continues to claim that most teachers lack either adequate background knowledge in the fields they are asked to teach or sufficient skills that they need to teach (Roofe & Miller, 2013; Zeichner, 2010; Darling-Hammond, 2000; National Research Council, 1996; cited in Mulenga, 2015). Literature evidence further also suggests that a wide gap exists between the expected goals of curriculum reforms and actual progress achieved in classrooms (Chisholm & Leyendecker, 2008; Dembélé & Lefoka, 2007; World Bank, 2008; cited in Westbrook et al., 2013). This study supports such literature arguments and reinforces the view that a gap still exists between the aspiration of curriculum reforms and the actual practice that goes on in class. In other words, the lack of policy enactment in the classroom by teacher educators could be a result of lack of knowledge of the very learner-centred pedagogies expected of them.

6.6.7 Low self-efficacy

Self-efficacy reflects an individual's understanding of what skills he/she can offer in a group setting. It is the extent or strength of one's belief in one's own ability to complete tasks and reach goals. Zimmerman (1995) supports this view stating that self-efficacy is the judgments of an individual about how well he is able to make something come true and succeed at the end (cited in Sariçoban, 2008). This study revealed that as opposed to Social Studies lecturers, student teachers' self-efficacy were low in learner-centred pedagogical approaches especially in inductive teaching methods such as problem-solving, project work, inquiry, and other experiential methods such as role-playing, and drama. This could be one reason why there is a low presence of such pedagogical approaches in most classroom teaching instructions and agrees with research findings that teachers' self-efficacy beliefs are assumed to influence their instructional behaviour and many other related outcomes (Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, & Hoy, 1998). Thus as echoed by Grossman et al. (2009), teacher education curriculum needed to include at its core, opportunities to learn to perform a repertoire of teaching tasks and to choose among them with deliberate

attention to pupils, as well as opportunities to acquire content and foundational knowledge centrally important to the work of teaching.

6.6.8 Teachers' beliefs that learner-centred methods disadvantage slow learners and advantage fast learners

In the act of learning and teaching, teachers' beliefs about what learning is, how learners learn best, who the ideal teacher is, who the ideal learner is and about other factors related with learning and teaching might determine their classroom actions (Kaymakamoğlu & Küçük, 2018). Good and Brophy (2003, P. 67) argued that:

In planning for and interacting with students, teachers are guided by their beliefs about what students need and by their expectations about how students will respond if treated in particular ways. Also, teachers' beliefs about the academic ability of the class or of individual students may influence their curricular, instructional, or evaluative decisions".

In this study, most student teachers believed that learner-centred methods disadvantaged slow learners and advantaged fast learners. Student teachers were of the view that fast learners do benefit while slow learners face a lot of challenges and loose interest. This was an interesting finding which contradicted most literature arguments supporting learner-centred methods. Among the arguments for the learner-centred approaches is that slow learners benefit from this approach through the pupil-pupil interactions among peers or in groups with the teacher acting as a facilitator (Chung & Walsh, 2010). According to Miller and Satchwell (2006), Teachers' beliefs about students' potential academic achievement are shaped by their beliefs about the nature of knowledge and the nature of learning. In the context of this study, it can be argued that teachers' belief that learner-centred methods disadvantaged slow learners and advantaged fast learners were a factor that influenced their choice and practice of classroom instruction. This viewpoint is supported by Good (1987, as cited by Kaymakamoğlu & Küçük, 2018, p. 29) who argued that "teachers' beliefs about learners' potential academic achievement are influential in their pedagogical and methodological choices, decisions and actions".

It can, therefore, be concluded that sometimes if teachers hold low expectations of their students, this can become a self-fulfilling prophecy because the teacher's behaviours, classroom decisions and activities are guided by those beliefs. In this regard, it can be said that teachers' belief that learner-centred methods disadvantaged slow learners and advantaged fast learners perpetuated the use of teacher-centred methods. This is supported by Meighan & Meighan (1990) who argued that

teachers who see learners as "resistors" or "receptacles" or "raw material", teach in a teacher-centred way. This study finding therefore brings to the fore the fact that learner-centred approaches risks not being realized in Zambian primary schools and calls for investigations into the actual practice of learner-centred approaches in primary schools to understand why student-teacher participants felt this way and how best their views can be incorporated in teacher preparation and continuous professional developments (CPDs) if learner-centred approaches is to be realized in primary schools.

6.7 Implication of this study for the implementation of Learner-Centred Education in Teacher Education in Zambia and the realisation of the fundamental curriculum goals of Social Studies.

6.7.1 Quality of teacher training for learner-centred constructivist pedagogy.

Quality of teacher training, especially lecturers' instructional practice is one of the most important factors that inhibit the realisation of learner-centred education culture in schools. It is true that most teachers lack either adequate background knowledge in learner-centred pedagogical approaches or sufficient skills that they need to teach through learner-centred pedagogical approaches. Therefore the gap in the implementation of learner-centred approaches can only be addressed if the expected goals of curriculum reforms are married to the actual classroom practice.

Since knowledge and skills for learner-centred teaching and learning are not adequately nurtured in students during teacher preparation, it is very unlikely that student teachers would utilise such teaching methods with ease in their lessons once they graduate. As a result, learners in schools may not benefit from high cognitive thinking skills, problem-solving skills, enhanced retention of learnt facts or knowledge and development of logical thinking and creativity skills that come with inductive teaching skills. In this regard, even though lecturers rated themselves highly on a number of learner-centred pedagogical approaches, Mtika and Gates (2010) raise doubt on the practical expertise of lecturers themselves in learner-centred education arguing that student teachers' lack of knowledge and skills in learner-centred education can be as a result of their lecturers lacking adequate expertise in learner-centred education themselves.

Even though lecturers wanted to supervise student teachers who applied learner-centred education as required by the college, the lecturers may not have modelled student teachers on learner-centred education. Of course, it may be that the lecturers themselves did not have the adequate practical expertise to enact learner-centred

pedagogy in their own practice. Their only alternative then was to adopt a "don't do as I do, do as I say" pedagogy, (Mtika & Gates, 2010, pp.399-400).

From this perspective, it is the conclusion of this study that classroom instructional practices in the sampled Primary Teacher colleges do not inspire the development of a constructivist pedagogical culture in student teachers. Consequently, the study is of the view that some of the benefits espoused under learner-centred pedagogy such as the development of problem-solving skills in learners are far from being realised in primary teacher education in Zambia and in primary schools.

6.7.2 Social Studies Lecturers' and student teachers' sense of efficacy in learner-centred pedagogical methods.

On self-efficacy, the study established that student teachers' expression of self-efficacy on problem-solving pedagogical approaches were very low. The enactment of learner-centred instructional practices by both Social Studies lecturers (during teacher preparation) and student teachers (during school experience) were also not widespread and were confined to a few pedagogical approaches such question and answer, whole-class discussion, and group work methods.

When applied to the teaching context, teachers' self-efficacy beliefs may be impacted by classroom experiences, observations of peers, the arguments of their colleagues, and their levels of exhaustion (Ross, 1998, cited Holzberger et al., 2013). It is therefore important that teacher education emphasises modelling of learner-centred related instruction methods by lecturers as a way of building confidence (sense of efficacy) in student teachers regarding the various learner-centred methods.

Results of this study, however, showed a low sense of efficacy among student teachers on having the knowledge and skills to teach using inductive methods such as Inquiry, Problem based, Project-based, and Fieldwork. Based on student narrative responses to qualitative questions, it can be inferred that low utilisation of these methods by lecturers during teacher preparation could be one contributing factor to low confidence levels among student teachers because student teachers are not exposed to these methods during teacher preparation and these denies them opportunity to experience these methods hence the low self-efficacy in such methods. Thus without adequate pedagogical knowledge and practice, student teachers end up using teaching and learning approaches which mimicked their lecturers (Mtika & Gates, 2009). Russell (2002, cited in Mtika & Gates, 2010, p. 399) noted that "as long as teacher educators advocated innovative pedagogy and did not model, illustrate, and read it

as text in their own teacher education classrooms, teacher education reform was bound to fail”.

6.7.3 The Enactment problem (Positive beliefs vis-à-vis Practice)

Despite all the challenges raised by respondents regarding the implementation of learner-centred methods, it came out clearly from most of the respondents that they had a positive attitude towards learner-centred education. Among the reasons advanced for this positive attitude were that it promoted learner participation, improved retention of knowledge among learners, developed problem-solving skills, motivated learners, encouraged ownership of the learning process, and made learning more fun among others. The findings of this study seem to be in line with other studies that seem to suggest that African teachers may be aware of and appreciate the value of more progressive approaches to teaching and learning, but fail to make them a consistent part of their practice (Akyeampong et al., 1999; Penny & Jessop, 1998; Lewin & Stuart, 2001; cited in Akyeampong, 2002). This is also true of Chipiko and Shawa who argued that while teachers see the need for using learner-centred approaches to instruction, they fail to plan for them due to the many challenges and in some cases due to lack of pedagogic knowledge.

There is a need, therefore, for teacher preparation programmes to help address some of the challenges to implementation of learner-centred pedagogical approaches during teacher preparation as a way of helping increase chances of learner-centred methods taking place in schools. This will also help address the gap between theory and practice which is a key component of any teacher preparation programme (Korthagen et al., 2001; Boyd, Grossman, Lankford, Loeb, & Wyckoff, 2009). In this regard, O'Sullivan (2006, cited in Amakali, 2017, p.155) noted that:

Teachers may have considerable difficulty in making the leap from learning within the traditional approaches to learner-centred approaches, which require the acquisition of great skill and understanding, assumptions that may be beyond the professional capacity of teachers in the light of their training.

6.7.4 Implication for realisation of the fundamental curriculum goals of social studies

According to Eshun *et al.* (2014, cited in Bekoe *et al.*, 2015, p. 54), "teaching Social Studies is stressed to be done in learner-centred techniques and strategies. Brainstorming, role playing, simulation, discussion and debate were the major techniques stressed by both Colleges of Education curriculum and the Social Studies syllabus". Since the fundamental goal of teaching

Social Studies in schools is to help students become responsible, critical, reflective, and active citizens who can make informed and reasoned decisions about the societal issues confronting the local, state, and global community respectively, educators propose use of learner-centred pedagogies and techniques like debate, panel discussion, simulation, drama and roleplay, and oral reports in Social Studies in order to develop positive skills and values in students (Bekoe et al., 2015).

The findings of this study, however, point to the fact that Social Studies lecturers' classroom instructional practice did not inspire the realisation of this curriculum goal especially on helping students become critical, reflective and develop a problem-solving disposition about the societal issues confronting the local, state, and global community. This finding is also true of Mtika and Gates' (2010) who observed in their study that college student teachers' failure to implement learner-centred approaches may have been due to the inability by college lecturers to adopt and practice learner-centred strategies in their own teaching.

Since empirical studies show that teachers' conceptions play a significant role in framing the ways they plan, implement, and evaluate the curriculum (Clark & Peterson, 1986; Thompson, 1992; Fang, 1996; Andrews & Hatch, 2000; Hancock & Gallard, 2004), this study established that very little if any was taking place in primary colleges of education regarding the realisation of the fundamental curriculum goals of Social Studies through learner-centred instruction. This position does not differ from Vavrus (2009, p. 309, cited in Mtika & Gates, 2010, p. 402), who concluded that "the quality of teacher education is a limiting factor to the successful implementation of the pedagogical shift to social constructivist based approaches". Furthermore, among the factors reported by Gijbels (2009, p. 150) as determining the positive or negative effects of learner-centred approaches were "... teacher professional capacity..."

6.7.5 Implication for policy implementation of learner-centred education in colleges and schools in Zambia

The findings of this study go to show that a lot of work needs to be done if the policy pronouncement of pedagogical renewal from teacher-centred to learner-centred is to be realised in practice. It would appear that the policy emphasis on using learner-centred methods in the teaching-learning process has not really taken off. Most teachers raised a number of challenges that require policy response if learner-centred methods are to be realised. It would also be inferred from this study findings that a number of teachers still lag behind in skills needed to implement learner-centred education effectively.

It is important therefore that if governments' policy reform towards constructivist based teaching and learning (learner-centred learning) is to be translated into practice, lecturers in colleges of education will have to emphasise on learner-centred pedagogical practice in addition to pedagogical theory by way of not just advocating for innovative pedagogy but model and illustrate these learner-centred methods in teacher education classrooms. This will build the levels of self-efficacy among student teachers which in turn will increase the chances of appropriating and implementing innovative pedagogies other than the traditional teacher-centred methods.

Furthermore, since learners' perceptions and attitudes and their characteristics, and teacher professional capacity, available resources, cultural factors and learner background are reported to be among the factors determining the positive or negative effects of learner-centred approaches (Gijbels, 2009), there is need to incorporate teachers' perceptions and beliefs on learner-centred methods teacher preparation as well continuous development programmes as a way of addressing the factors hindering successful implementation of learner-centred approaches in the classrooms. Murphy and Rodriguez-Manzanares' (2008) study involving 16 teachers from six high schools in two adjacent municipalities of one Canadian province and conducted to gain insight into teachers' beliefs about learner-centred E-learning through single and paired group discussions underscores this point by concluding that teachers' beliefs reflected many of the constructs that are part of the learner-centred principles.

6.7.6 Implication for Quality Education in Zambia

The quest for the Zambian government to achieve quality education for all children is captured by the Educating Our Future (MoE, 1996) policy document. Quality education includes processes through which trained teachers use learner-centred teaching approaches in well-managed classrooms and schools and skilful assessment to facilitate learning and reduce disparities (UNICEF, 2015). Therefore, to bring about quality education, a shift of focus of activity from the teacher to the learners or often termed as learner-centred approaches to teaching and learning is necessary (Oinam, 2017). According to UNESCO and World Bank supported EFA goals, quality education is understood in the context of **Inputs, Process** and **Output** as illustrated in Figure 6.1.

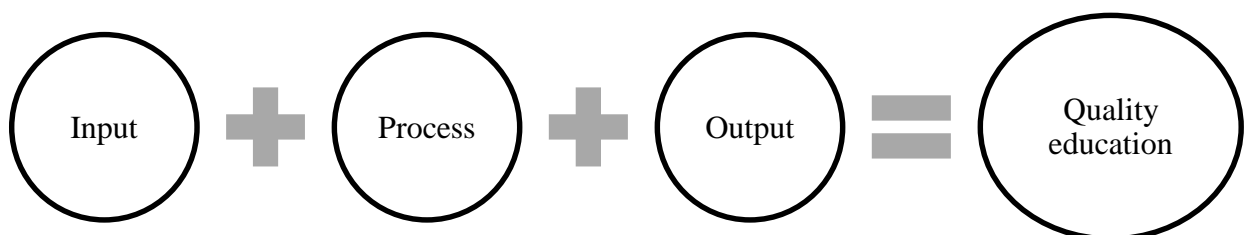


Figure 6.1: EFA Model of quality education (UNESCO, 2002).

In discussing quality education, education stakeholders refer to first the Inputs box which includes infrastructure provision, quality furniture provision, learning and teaching materials provision and teacher supply. It is assumed that once these are in place, then quality education will ensue and most developing countries have been busy mobilising resources to meet the requirements of the Inputs box (Tambulukani, 2015). It is believed that once adequate Inputs have been provided; good looking schools with good furniture, books, and teachers are deployed, then it is time to observe indicators in the Outputs box; such as achievement in reading, progression rates, dropout rates, and many others. This study agrees with Tambulukani (2015) assertion that the Process box which focuses on classroom process, practice, environment, and culture is usually not the focus of attention and yet this is a very important stage of quality education assurance because this is where teaching and learning processes take place. It is in the middle box (process box) where the dynamics of learner-centred education including teacher instruction, teacher ability, assessment and feedback are found and should be facilitated.

By focussing on the process stage to see how instruction practices in teacher preparation by Social Studies lecturers related to the implementation and development of a learner-centred learning culture in student teachers, this study revealed that there was little learner-centred instructional activities happening during the ‘process stage’ to guarantee quality education in terms of helping student teachers become critical, reflective and develop a problem-solving disposition about the societal issues confronting the local, state, and global community. Therefore, since according to UNICEF (2015), quality education includes processes through which trained teachers use child-centred teaching approaches in well-managed classrooms and schools and skilful assessment to facilitate learning and reduce disparities, a shift of focus of activity from the teacher to the learners often termed as learner-centred approaches to teaching and learning is necessary (Oinam, 2017) in order to bring about quality education.

6.7.7 Theoretical Implications of the Study.

The theoretical implication of this study is that the instructional practices in teacher education as constructed by Social Studies lecturers and pre-service student teachers in primary teacher colleges do not inspire an in-depth implementation of constructivist theory. Also since Bandura’s Social Learning Theory argues for learning through observation and modelling behaviours, absence of observations and modelling behaviours of learner-centred related instructional practices in teacher preparation negatively affects the student

teachers' self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura's Social Learning Theory) and is one of the reasons for non-implementation learner-centred learning in schools.

6.8 Summary

This chapter has presented a discussion of the findings on the instructional practices of Social Studies lecturers and how they related to the implementation of learner-centred pedagogical practices in teacher preparation in primary teacher colleges. The results to the research question one pointed to the fact that lecturers' classroom instructional practice did not relate or weakly related to the implementation of learner-centred education in teacher preparation. It was evident that lecturers' instructional practices were either not consistent, absent or unrelated to constructivist pedagogical approaches. Teachers need opportunities not only to learn about visions of good teaching, but to actually enact the vision of good teaching in practice. The findings of this study on research question one resonate with Kennedy (2006) who contended that this is one of the critical problems of learning to teach: teacher educators often promote a general vision of good teaching, but these visions are often not specified in terms of particular classroom practices.

The theoretical framework of learner-centred assessment emphasizes problem solving, higher order thinking skills, the promotion of a sense of ownership in learning, and a dialogic approach to instruction (Rich, 2011, cited in Rich, *et al.*, 2014). It was clear however in this study that lecturers still used assessment to measure how much the students had already learned as opposed to creating assessments which double as learning experiences themselves. The study revealed that traditional quizzes or tests, portfolio submissions and accompanying rationale, classroom participation, extended (more than a week long) individual projects, extended (more than a week long) collaborative projects, daily homework and daily check-ins, journals, lab books or notebooks, and student presentation to a panel of students were not highly rated in terms of being the most important strategies for assessing student learning in class. In fact, extended (more than a week long) individual projects and extended (more than a week long) collaborative projects were ranked lowest.

On the other hand, end-of-course or end-of-term exams, student writing (essays, reports, etc.), and student presentation to class were rated highest for being the most important strategies for assessing student proficiencies. What this implies is that strategies that evoked higher order thinking through critical thinking or problem solving were not rated highly by lecturers for assessing student learning in class. Perhaps this resonates with Moro (1980) who postulated that

in Zambia, when teachers are studying teaching in many institution of practice or profession, much more attention is placed on teachers instructional practices, than how they conduct learners' classroom assessment practices to improve the academic performance of a learner (Moyo, 1980). This neglect probably has led to the low and poor assessment practices by teachers observed in schools (Stiggings, 2001).

Self-efficacy beliefs on instructional activities that evoked higher order thinking through critical thinking or problem solving was also low among student teachers and while lecturers rated themselves highly on preparedness to support student learning through learner-centred pedagogical approaches, this could be attributed to the self-rating of lecturers on the questionnaire instrument. The results of this study however, showed that lecturers rated themselves low on frequency of providing instruction activities that encouraged learner-centred education especially on critical thinking or problem solving.

Lesson observations and discourse analysis also reviewed continued dominance of teacher initiated interactions to the detriment of learner initiated interactions while a number of first and second order barriers were raised as factors affecting successful implementation of new innovations in teacher education such as learner-centred pedagogical approaches.

CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

7.1 Overview

This study investigated how instructional practices of Social Studies lecturers and pre-service student teachers related to the implementation of a constructivist based learner-centred education in primary teachers' colleges and primary schools, respectively. The study also examined self-efficacy beliefs of Social Studies lecturers and pre-service final year student teachers in facilitating learning using selected instructional activities. Barriers to the implementation of learner-centred pedagogical approaches in primary schools were also explored and have been categorised into First and Second-order barriers. Chapter seven presents the conclusion and recommendations of the study in line with the findings and discussion.

7.2 Conclusion

7.2.1 Social Studies lecturers' preparedness to support student learning that required collaborative, inductive, and experiential learning.

Objective one of the study sought to examine Social Studies lecturers' preparedness to support student learning that requires collaborative, inductive, and experiential learning in primary colleges of education. Based on the lecturers' views related to objective one, the study concluded that lecturers across the three types of colleges (public, grant-aided, and Private) were adequately prepared to support student learning that requires collaborative (group work, pair work, and whole-class discussion), inductive (problem-solving, project-based learning, inquiry, and modelling) and experiential (role-playing, fieldwork, and debate) learning. The study however cautions that a mere expression of preparedness by lecturers does not necessarily translate into practice. Student teachers need opportunities not only to learn about visions of good teaching, but to actually enact the vision of good teaching in practice. However, although lecturers reported being adequately prepared, they still expressed strong willingness to pursue professional development opportunities focusing on learner-centred instructional practices. The implication of these findings is that there is still need for continued professional development activities related to learner-centred instruction.

7.2.2 Teaching instruction practices of lecturers related to the implementation of learner-centred approaches in teacher preparation

Objective two of this study sought to find out whether the classroom instructional practices of Social Studies lecturers were related to implementation of learner-centred methods in primary colleges of education. The conclusion on objective two was presented based on the themes used in presenting and discussing the findings as captured under chapters five and six.

7.2.2.1 Frequency of providing instructional activities that required collaborative, inductive, and experiential learning.

Generally, the study concluded that even though lecturers reported being prepared to facilitate learning through learner-centred methods such as collaborative, inductive and experiential teaching strategies, their ratings of classroom instruction activities suggested that the frequency of using learner-centred methods was low across types of colleges. Specifically, there were little instructional activities that provoked critical thinking or that cultivated problem-solving skills (inductive) in student teachers during their course of teacher preparation. It is therefore argued in this study that the reported lack of practice of inductive and other methods related to learner-centred learning could be as a result of lecturers not frequently using these methods during teacher preparation.

7.2.2.2 Instructional activities which took up most of the lecturers' teaching time over the course of a typical week.

Worth noting from lecturers' rating of instructional activities that took up most of their instructional time was that Social Studies lecturers across public, private and grant-aided colleges of education did not rate the instructional activities highly. Specifically, the emerging picture from the findings pointed to the fact that instructional activities that required the use of inductive methods were rarely used. The study therefore concluded that there was a persistent presence of lecturer-led or controlled type of classroom instructional practice that left little or no room for innovation and which did not guarantee implementation of learner-centred education in practice as demanded by the revised 2013 Zambian education curriculum framework.

7.2.2.3 Student teachers' engagement in learner-centred related instructional activities during teacher preparation

Based on Social Studies lecturers' ratings of student teachers' engagement in learner-centred related instructional activities in class during teacher preparation, the study concluded that student teachers were rarely engaged in inductive instructional activities related to critical thinking. Such

instructional activities included solving a real-world problem or hands-on experiments; activities that required student teachers to design or implement their own investigations or research projects; performance assessments involving teachers and peers, and work on materials for a portfolio.

Contrary to student teachers being rarely engaged in inductive related instructional activities during teacher preparation, lecturers engaged themselves highly in teacher-centred related instructional activities. These included listening to teacher presentations or lecture type of instructional activities and student participation in discussions led by the teacher as well as taking notes in class. The study also revealed that engaging student teachers' in student-led discussions or activities; making formal presentations to the class as well as collaborative work in pairs or small groups on assigned tasks were some of the most common instructional activities that student teachers were engaged in. The study therefore concluded that during teacher preparation, student teachers were mostly engaged in teacher-centred or teacher directed instructions or activities.

It is, therefore, argued in this study that the reported lack of student engagement in inductive learning activities could be as a result of lecturers not modelling these methods to student teachers during teacher preparation. This lack of modelling could in turn imply lack of knowledge of inductive learning techniques on the part of lecturers themselves.

7.2.2.4 Social Studies lecturers' ratings of instructional activities regarding their importance in the classroom.

It can be argued that the importance a teacher attaches to a particular type of instructional activity or practice will inevitably influence or persuade the frequency of its usage in the classroom. Based on this argument, the study elicited for lecturers' ratings of instructional activities regarding their importance in the classroom. The study found that Social Studies lecturers rated highly important, instructional activities used in this study (see Table 5.9). For example, instructional activities such as leading a class of students doing an investigation that demanded complex reasoning (56.0%); facilitating a whole discussion where students presented ideas or gave and received feedback (56.0%); and providing instruction through extended formal presentation/lecture (52.0%) were rated as important. The problem however was low implementation or practice of these instructional activities especially those that facilitated inductive learning such as critical thinking or problem solving. From these findings, it can be concluded that although Social Studies lecturers acknowledged the importance of the said instructional activities, this did not translate into actual practice in the classroom.

7.2.2.5 Social Studies lecturers' ratings of assessment strategies in terms of their frequency of use in assessing student learning in class

One way of ascertaining whether classroom instructional practice is learner-centred or not is examining the assessment instructional practice of the teacher or classroom. Some assessment instructional practice put the learner at the centre, thereby promoting greater student retention and class participation (Rich et al., 2014). It is against this background that this study elicited for lecturers' ratings of assessment strategies for how important they were in assessing student learning in class in order to infer if classroom assessment practices were pro-learner-centred education.

The results (Tables 5.13) show that traditional quizzes or tests, portfolio submissions and accompanying rationale, classroom participation, extended (more than a week-long) individual projects, extended (more than a week-long) collaborative projects, daily homework and daily check-ins, and journals, lab books or notebooks were mostly rated as never in terms of their frequency of use in assessing student learning in class. In addition, end-of-course or end-of-term exams, student writing (essays, reports, etc.), and student presentation to class were rated highest for being the most frequently used strategies for assessing student learning. Based on these findings, the study concluded that assessment strategies that put the learner at the centre of the assessment practice and that evoked higher-order thinking were not frequently used compared to assessment strategies related to teacher-centred that promoted low order thinking. This just goes to show that lecturers' classroom assessment practices were mostly teacher directed or controlled contrary to the principles of constructivist pedagogical theory.

7.2.2.6 Classroom instruction practices that dominated most of the student teachers' classrooms during school experience

It was observed from the focus group discussions that most of the classroom instructional practices that dominated student teachers' classroom practice during school experience included group work, class discussion, and question and answer. In terms of the reasons why they resorted to such methods, students seemed to suggest a whole lot of reasons to justify their classroom instructional practice. Some of these reasons bordered on encouraging pupil participation and sharing of views, ideas and knowledge; large numbers of pupils per class, and time factor to complete the planned work among other reasons. The study concluded that among the methods mostly utilised by student teachers during school experience, collaborative methods such as group work, whole discussion, and question and answer sessions dominated their classroom instructional activities. This could be

linked to the nature of instructional practice in teacher preparation, where collaborative methods were the most used instructional strategies.

7.2.2.7 Opportunities for pedagogical practice in the use of learner-centred practices during teacher preparation.

On opportunity to practice learner-centred practices during teacher preparation, the study found that although students generally expressed lack of adequate opportunities to learn and practice good teaching practices related to learner-centred education, effort was being made by colleges amidst challenges to expose students to macro and peer teaching in the demonstration schools meant for student teachers to have a feel of the real classroom environment and to learn from practicing teachers. The student teachers however, were not satisfied with the opportunities given to them to practice pedagogical knowledge and skills during teacher preparation. They cited over-enrolment and limited time to practice different learner-centred methods during peer teaching, among other reasons for not being exposed adequately to pedagogical skills. The student teachers further argued that more time was spent on teaching what the methods were in terms of definition, advantages, and disadvantages and not demonstrating to them by way of lecturers modelling during teacher preparation how these methods were to be used. And although effort was being made by colleges to expose student teachers to macro and peer teaching, the problem was that the practice of exposing students to macro teaching in demonstration schools was not a common practice in all the colleges and its organisation also needed improvement. Even those colleges that practiced macro teaching as a way of exposing students to more real classroom experience during teacher preparation had expressed fear of the sustainability of this practice citing logistical challenges related to transport and financial aspect attached to the exercise.

7.2.3 Lecturers' and student teachers' sense of efficacy in collaborative, inductive, and experiential learning methods

Objective three of the study examined lecturers' and student teachers' sense of efficacy (self-confidence) in collaborative, inductive, and experiential learning methods. The study established that most of the student teachers across the three types of colleges expressed a low sense of efficacy in their knowledge and skills to facilitate learning using inductive methods such as inquiry, project-based, model-building, and problem-solving. This was contrary to lecturers who generally expressed a high sense of efficacy in inductive methods. It is, therefore, argued in this study that the reported low self-efficacy in inductive learning methods by student teachers could be as a result of lecturers not modelling these methods to student teachers during teacher preparation. This lack

of modelling could also in turn imply lack of knowledge of inductive learning techniques on the part of lecturers themselves.

On collaborative methods however, this study established that both lecturers and student teachers in the three types of colleges expressed a high sense of efficacy to teach using pair work, group work, and whole-class discussion. In addition, the study also found that both lecturers and student teachers expressed a high sense of efficacy in facilitating learning using experiential methods such as role-playing, debate, and fieldwork.

Based on these findings, the study concluded that both lecturers and student teachers had a high sense of efficacy in facilitating learning using collaborative and experiential methods but expressed a low sense of efficacy in the problem-solving type of inductive method. The caution however, is that this data was based on self-rating by both student teachers and lecturers on a survey question. The limitation in this method is that, respondents have a tendency to advantage themselves when they are rating themselves. So it wouldn't be surprising if in practice the picture was different.

7.2.4 Aspects of teacher and learner-initiated interactions present in student teachers' lessons

Objective four of this study sought to analyse the final year student teachers' lessons for aspects of teacher and learner-initiated interactions during school experience using discourse analysis of video-recorded lessons. The study found that there was an average of 25.2 teacher-initiated interactions per lesson in which invitation to bid type of interactions dominated the lesson discourse followed by an invitation to reply. With regard to learner-initiated interactions, there was an average of 11.2 learner-initiated interactions per lesson with calling out type of interactions being the highest compared to bidding to speak. Based on the findings from the discourse analysis of video-recorded lessons, the study concluded that student teachers' lessons were mainly dominated by teacher-initiated interactions.

It was also noted during lesson observations that group work, question and answer, and whole-class discussion dominated student teachers' classroom instructional practice during school experience. However, for group work method, it was observed that very little Individual Accountability where students become accountable for their own learning and for each other's learning by assessing each group member's performance on a given task existed. In addition, Positive Interdependence whereby each member in a group perceives that he or she cannot succeed unless the group does was also lacking - In most cases, groups were dominated by a few members.

Furthermore, the aspect of Promotive Interaction, whereby group members challenged each other's ideas was also lacking in most group work activities. In addition, student teachers rarely used classroom instruction activities that fostered critical thinking skills through problem-solving related instruction activities.

In conclusion, the findings to research objective four are an indication that the balance between teacher control over lesson content and student participation in educational interactions is still teacher dominated and appears to be the common discourse experienced in most primary schools. The findings of this study point to the need for lecturers during teacher preparation to model instructional methods and activities that evoke higher-order thinking in student teachers by providing them with enough opportunities to practice and learn these methods during teacher preparation if they are to use these methods during their school experience and after graduation.

7.2.5 Factors perceived by final year student teachers as impeding the successful implementation of learner-centred learning in primary schools

The fifth objective of this study sought to establish the factors impeding the successful implementation of learner-centred learning in primary schools in Zambia. The findings pointed to extrinsic (First-Order) and intrinsic (Second-Order) factors that affected the implementation of learner-centred methods. The study revealed that contextual constraints prevented teachers from implementing learner-centred classroom practice. In that respect, it was reported by most pre-service student teachers that even though they embraced learner-centred learning, they could not actualise the theory in class during school experience because of crowded classrooms, the differences in students levels of readiness and previous knowledge, insufficient time for applications of learner-centred methods, lack of knowledge on how to use certain learner-centred methods, lack of adequate teaching and learning resources, low literacy levels among pupils, the belief among teachers that learner-centred methods disadvantages slow learners, teachers' own beliefs about teaching and the role of the teacher, and the unsupportive school leadership. It can be concluded from the various factors raised by student teachers that implementation of comprehensive learner-centred instructions in primary schools faced a lot of challenges which included extrinsic and intrinsic factors.

7.3 Summary

The chapter has presented the conclusions from this study. In summary, the conclusions arrived at are: the instruction practices of Social Studies lecturers in primary teacher colleges were not related

to the implementation of learner-centred education and thus were found not to be effective in the development of critical thinking skills and problem-solving ability in student teachers.

The findings of this study, therefore, point to the fact that Social Studies lecturers' classroom instructional practice did not inspire the realisation of the fundamental curriculum goals of training teachers with knowledge and skills in constructivist based methods of teaching especially those that stimulate deep thinking through problem-solving activities. Specifically, instructional practices as constructed by Social Studies lecturers fail short of helping students become critical, reflective and develop a problem-solving disposition about the societal issues confronting the local, state, and global community. Since empirical studies show that teachers' conceptions play a significant role in framing the ways they plan, implement, and evaluate the curriculum (Clark & Peterson, 1986; Thompson, 1992; Fang, 1996; Andrews & Hatch, 2000; Hancock & Gallard, 2004), this study established that in practice, very little if any was taking place in primary teacher colleges regarding the implementation of learner-centred based instructional activities to warrant the realisation of constructivist based pedagogy in schools.

It is further hoped that results from this study may inform future development and implementation of learner-centred pedagogical approaches not only in Zambia but in other countries which are faced with similar implementation challenges. This study also presents a theoretical analysis of constructivism pedagogy in practice by bringing out a number of issues that teachers and teacher educators need to interrogate such as their own beliefs about teaching, questioning of institutional routines, and classroom practice.

7.4 Recommendation

Findings from this study offer insights that can directly influence policy, practice, and future research. The findings have the potential to provide some insights to those seeking to prepare teachers for the demands of learner-centred education. More specifically, this study recommends that teacher educators, policy makers, and other stakeholders consider the following recommendations regarding teacher preparation for learner-centred education;

1. There is a need for college instructors (lecturers) to model teaching strategies during teacher preparation. Modelling of learner-centred techniques during teacher preparation would provide opportunities for prospective teachers to observe and rehearse learner-centred instructional practices during teacher preparation-based coursework, aligned with specific visions of good teaching. The idea is that teacher instructors must model the learner-centred methods they wish

their student teachers to practice. This will help improve student teachers' self-efficacy beliefs on a number of learner-centred pedagogical approaches, especially those that require problem-solving. Furthermore, this would also enhance the chances of implementing learner-centred pedagogical approaches once student teachers graduate.

2. Considering the many challenges faced in implementing learner-centred education, there is a need to advocate for *code switching* between teacher and learner-centred classroom instructions and for *differentiated learning* to cater for the different levels of learners' ability, and the contextual challenges faced in different school environments.
3. There is need for a relook at the familiar language policy in primary schools in relation to implementation of learner-centred education. It would appear from this study that the transitioning from familiar language policy (language of play) at lower primary (grades 1-4) to English from grades 5 has worked against the implementation of learner-centred education in the upper primary grades.
4. There is also a need to allocate more time to pedagogical teaching and learning experiences in colleges of education through macro teaching in demonstration schools and peer teaching (micro-teaching) because it is the only window through which students can be assessed in the knowledge and practice of learner-centred methods. This came out very clearly from student teachers who desired to have more opportunities to learn and practice learner-centred methods. Creating parallel sessions (groups) during macro and peer teaching with reduced numbers of students per group is one way of affording student teachers with more opportunities to experience and practice various pedagogies.
5. Other than teachers in demonstration schools being the only ones to demonstrate to student teachers, lecturers must take an active role of demonstrating to student teachers some lessons in those demonstration schools using selected learner-centred methods.
6. There is also a need for curriculum developers and teacher educators to incorporate teachers' perceptions and beliefs on learner-centred methods in teacher preparation as a way of addressing some of the factors hindering the successful implementation of the learner-centred approaches.
7. College administrators should provide administrative support and extend professional development opportunities to afford lecturers opportunities to develop and acquire skills in learner-centred teaching and related instructional activities. This would afford teacher educators in primary colleges of education opportunities to interact and collaborate with other teacher educators on learner-centred pedagogical approaches and their implementation. However, other than the traditional way where professional development opportunities occur

away from the school site, separate from classroom contexts and challenges in which teachers are expected to apply what they have learned and often without the necessary support to facilitate transfer of learning” (Killion & Harrison, 2006, p. 8), this study recommends that such professional development activities on learner-centred learning be carried out in colleges and school contexts.

8. There is a need to create learner-centred learning accountability instruments that would help monitor the implementation of learner-centred pedagogical approaches in colleges of education. Currently this does not exist and so it is difficult to monitor the implementation of learner-centred Education.

7.5 New knowledge

This study has made the following contributions to knowledge:

1. It is the first study of its kind in Zambia to undertake a large-scale survey of the three types of primary colleges of education (public, private, and grant-aided) meant to empirically appraise the current situation of teacher education in terms of implementing learner-centred education in primary colleges of education based on Social Studies lecturers’ constructions of classroom instructions and activities, as well as based on final year pre-service student teacher’s self-efficacy (confidence) to teach using selected instructional strategies and activities. It also lays the ground for future studies.
2. The study has also contributed to the body of knowledge on teacher preparation for learner-centred instructional practice in primary colleges of education in Zambia through the publication of three peer-reviewed journal articles, and presentation of the study findings at two international conferences (See appendix 14).
3. The study proposes a *‘Learner-centred Instructional Practice Implementation and Monitoring Framework’ (LCIM Model)* (Fig. 7.3) to be used by teachers and teacher educators in appraising or assessing the extent of implementation of Learner-centred instructions. This model highlights five domains namely; Inductive-Teaching and Learning, Collaborative Learning, Experiential learning, Assessment activities, and Teachers’ innovativeness and or resourcefulness as the focus areas that teacher educators should address during teacher preparation in addressing learner-centred pedagogy. The model also provides a framework that would be used to help monitor the extent of implementing learner-centred instructional practices in teacher colleges and schools.

4. The outcomes of this study could also be used to inform policymakers, the Ministries of General and Higher Education, Teacher Educators, Education Curriculum Experts, Planners and other stakeholders in education about classroom instructional practices of teacher educators in primary colleges of education and how they are related to the implementation of learner-centred pedagogy. It would also allow policy makers to make evidence-based diagnoses of the status of learner-centred education in teacher education. The study would also help stakeholders to make informed decisions about learner-centred based reforms and how they are affecting attainment of education outcomes.

7.6 Suggestions for further research

- i. There is a need for discourse analysis of teacher educators lessons for how related they are to promoting constructivist ways of constructing knowledge.
- ii. There is a need for research on the quality of learner-centred pedagogical knowledge among teacher educators in Zambian colleges and universities.

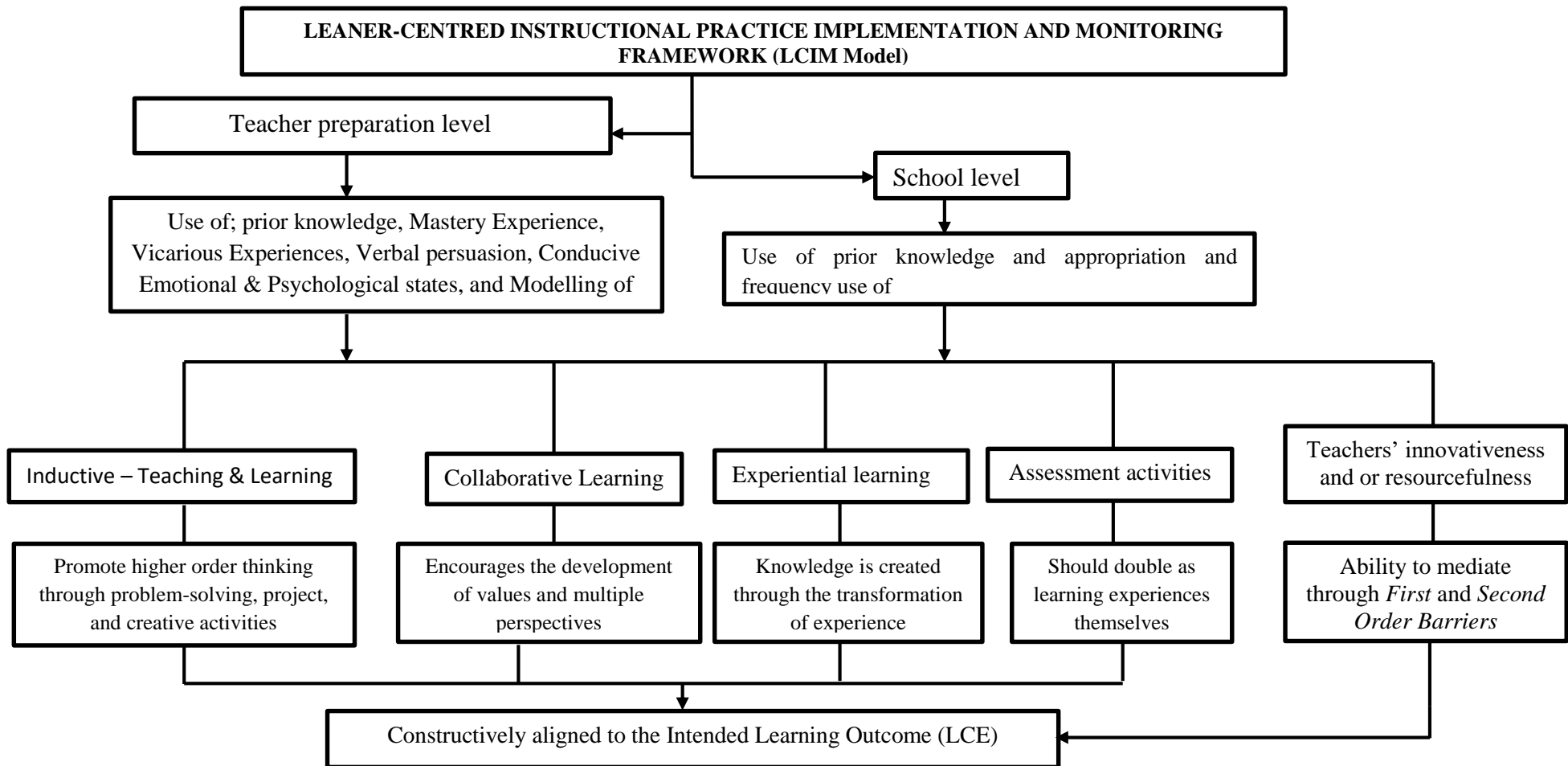


Fig. 7.3 Framework to monitor implementation of learner-centred Instructional practices (LCIM Model)

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APPENDIXES

Appendix1: Consent Letter for Social Studies lecturers

Introduction

I am seeking for your voluntary participation in this study. Please read the information below and ask questions about anything you do not understand, before deciding whether to participate or not.

Explanation of the study

I am Robinson **Mambwe** a PhD student at the University of Zambia under the school of education who is conducting research. My study is titled '*Preparation of Teachers for Learner-Centred Instructional Practice in Primary Colleges of Education in Zambia: The Constructions of Social Studies Lecturers and Pre-Service final year Student Teachers*'.

Why should you participate in this study?

Learner-Centred learning Approaches to teaching is one area that has been identified by educational scholars in improving the attainment of learning outcomes. It is no wonder the government of the Republic of Zambia through the Ministry of General Education has emphasised through its 2013 curriculum framework the need for Earner-centred approaches in teacher preparation and in the teaching learning process. Therefore knowledge generated from this survey will add more knowledge on understanding teacher instructional practices in primary teacher colleges and how such practices are related to implementation learner-centred pedagogical practices as espoused by the revised education curriculum. Also the data collected under this study will be widely available to policy makers, the public and educational leaders, and will allow them to make evidence-based diagnoses of the status of Learner-Centred activities in colleges and schools. Data from this study may also help policy makers make informed decisions about Learner-Centred pedagogical Approach based reforms and how they are affecting attainment of education outcomes.

Your participation will involve taking part in the survey through a self-administered questionnaire.

Confidentiality and participant consent

1. All responses are anonymous and you are not required to disclose your identity nor write your name anywhere in this questionnaire.
2. Your participation in this study is also completely voluntary.
3. There are also no benefits or risks from your participation, and
4. You are free to discontinue at any time should you wish to. However, your participation is very much appreciated and I urge you to take part.

Your honest responses are very important and will be highly appreciated.

Kindly sign below if you consent to participate in this study.

Participant's Signature

Appendix 2: Consent Letter for Heads of Section

Introduction

I am seeking for your voluntary participation in this study. Please read the information below and ask questions about anything you do not understand, before deciding whether to participate or not.

Explanation of the study

I am Robinson **Mambwe** a PhD student at the University of Zambia under the school of education who is conducting research. My study is titled '*Preparation of Teachers for Learner-Centred Instructional Practice in Primary Colleges of Education in Zambia: The Constructions of Social Studies Lecturers and Pre-Service final year Student Teachers*'.

Why should you participate in this study?

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Your participation will involve taking part in Semi-structured interviews.

Confidentiality and participant consent

5. All responses are anonymous and you are not required to disclose your identity nor write your name anywhere in this questionnaire.
6. Your participation in this study is also completely voluntary.
7. There are also no benefits or risks from your participation, and
8. You are free to discontinue at any time should you wish to. However, your participation is very much appreciated and I urge you to take part.

Your honest responses are very important and will be highly appreciated.

Kindly sign below if you consent to participate in this study.

Participant's Signature

Appendix 3: Consent Letter for third year student teachers

Introduction

I am seeking for your voluntary participation in this study. Please read the information below and ask questions about anything you do not understand, before deciding whether to participate or not.

Explanation of the study

I am Robinson **Mambwe** a PhD student at the University of Zambia under the school of education who is conducting research. My study is titled '*Preparation of Teachers for Learner-Centred Instructional Practice in Primary Colleges of Education in Zambia: The Constructions of Social Studies Lecturers and Pre-Service final year Student Teachers*'.

Why should you participate in this study?

Learner-Centred learning Approaches to teaching is one area that has been identified by educational scholars in improving the attainment of learning outcomes. It is no wonder the government of the Republic of Zambia through the Ministry of General Education has emphasised through its 2013 curriculum framework the need for Earner-centred approaches in teacher preparation and in the teaching learning process. Therefore knowledge generated from this survey will add more knowledge on understanding teacher instructional practices in primary teacher colleges and how such practices are related to implementation learner-centred pedagogical practices as espoused by the revised education curriculum. Also the data collected under this study will be widely available to policy makers, the public and educational leaders, and will allow them to make evidence-based diagnoses of the status of Learner-Centred activities in colleges and schools. Data from this study may also help policy makers make informed decisions about Learner-Centred pedagogical Approach based reforms and how they are affecting attainment of education outcomes.

Your participation will involve taking part in the survey through self-administered questionnaire and Focus Group Discussion.

Confidentiality and participant consent

9. All responses are anonymous and you are not required to disclose your identity nor write your name anywhere in this questionnaire.
10. Your participation in this study is also completely voluntary.
11. There are also no benefits or risks from your participation, and
12. You are free to discontinue at any time should you wish to. However, your participation is very much appreciated and I urge you to take part.

Your honest responses are very important and will be highly appreciated.

Kindly sign below if you consent to participate in this study.

Participant's Signature

Appendix 4: Learner-centred Instructional Practice Questionnaire for College Lecture

This questionnaire is intended to collect colleges of education lecturers' perspective on the implementation of student-centred learning at your college. Your responses will contribute to the better understanding of the characteristics of instruction and student learning in your college. References to "student-centred learning" throughout the questionnaire refer to your experiences in your college with efforts meant to ensure that students are prepared for learner-centred learning.

The questionnaire should take no more than 20 minutes to complete. Participation in the questionnaire is voluntary, all responses are confidential, and all data from the questionnaire will be reported in the aggregate.

Thank you for being part of this questionnaire

A. BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. What subject(s) do you currently teach?(Please check that apply)

2. Gender: Male Female

3. How many years have you taught at this college?(Please check that apply)

0–1 2–5 6–10 11–20 More than 2

B. LECTURERS' PREPAREDNESS (Please check that apply)

4. Regarding student-centred learning over the years, how well prepared do you feel to support student learning that:

(Please check that apply)

	Not at all prepared	Minimally prepared	Adequately prepared	Very well prepared
REQUIRES COLLABORATION (students interact with peers as part of classroom learning, rely on help and support from classmates to complete assignments, and/or receive and use feedback from peers to revise work)				
REQUIRES CRITICAL THINKING OR PROBLEM SOLVING (students work on tasks with no single correct answer, apply previously learned content to new problems and new contexts, and/or support ideas with evidence)				
REQUIRES EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING (students have opportunities to demonstrate persistence, assess the quality of their own work as they proceed, and/or modify their approach when faced with obstacles to achieving long-term goals)				

C. LECTURERS' PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

5. Thinking about professional development opportunities over the past year, to what extent do you agree with the following statements? (Check one box in each row)					
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
A. I feel that I have many professional development opportunities focused on student-centred learning.					
B. I am interested in pursuing professional development opportunities focused on student-centred learning.					
C. In my school, I am encouraged to experiment with my teaching.					
D. I am satisfied with the opportunities I have for professional development.					
E. I am receiving the professional development I need to implement student-centred learning practices in my classroom.					

D. INSTRUCTIONAL PRACTICE

6. Please rate the following instructional activities for how important they've been to your instructions in your classrooms. (Check one box in each row.)				
	Very important	Important	Less important	Not important
A. Lead a class of students doing an investigation or activity that demands complex reasoning or problem solving				
B. Provide instruction through extended formal presentation/lecture				
C. Facilitate a whole-class discussion where students present ideas or give/ receive feedback				
D. Organize and facilitate a <i>student-led</i> activity				
E. Provide students with in-depth guidance on the content or organization of their work				

F. Answer procedural questions about individual or group work and/or help students stay on task				
G. Ask open-ended questions to promote engagement with big ideas				
H. Give written feedback on student work				
I. Give oral feedback on student work				
J. Have students explore alternative methods for solving problems/conducting investigations				
K. Modify or adjust instruction based on informal classroom assessments				
L. Model for students how to approach a problem or task				
M. Use technology to personalize instruction				
N. Differentiate activities or instruction to meet individual students' needs				
O. Make connections between content and/or activities and students personalized learning plans of pathways				

7. How often did the following instructional activities take up most of your teaching time (inside class) over the course of a typical week?				
	Always	Frequently	Rarely	Never
A. Lead a class of students doing an investigation or activity that demands complex reasoning or problem solving				
B. Provide instruction through extended formal presentation/lecture				
C. Facilitate a whole-class discussion where students present ideas or give/receive feedback				
D. Organize and facilitate a student-led activity				
E. Provide students with in-depth guidance on the content or organization of their work				
F. Answer procedural questions about individual or group work and/or help students stay on task				
G. Ask open-ended questions to promote engagement with big ideas				
H. Give written feedback on student work				
I. Give oral feedback on student work				
J. Have students explore alternative methods for solving problems/conducting investigations				
K. modify or adjust instruction based on informal classroom assessments				
L. Model for students how to approach a problem or task				
M. Use technology to personalize instruction				
N. Differentiate activities or instruction to meet individual student's needs				
O. Make connections between content and/or activities and students personalized learning plans or pathways				

8. When participating in your class, how often have students engaged in the following types of activities: (Check one box in each row)					
	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Every day
A. Participate in <i>student-led</i> discussions or activities					
B. Participate in discussions led by the teacher					
C. Listen to teacher presentation/lecture					
D. Make formal presentations to the class					

E. Work together in pairs or small groups on an assigned task					
F. Work individually on an assigned task					
G. Explain their reasoning or defend a position orally or in writing					
H. Answer textbook/worksheet questions					
I. Work on solving a real-world problem or conducting hands-on experiments					
J. Design or implement their own investigations or research projects					
K. Write reflections on progress					
L. Work on materials for a portfolio					
M. Engage in performance assessments involving teachers and peers					
N. Take notes					
O. Incorporate feedback into their work					

9. In your classroom over the year(s), how often did you provide instruction that: (Please check [√]that apply)

	Never	Occasionally	Often	All the time
REQUIRES COLLABORATION (students interact with peers as part of classroom learning, rely on help and support from classmates to complete assignments, and/or receive and use feedback from peers to revise work)				
REQUIRES CRITICAL THINKING OR PROBLEM SOLVING (students work on tasks with no single correct answer, apply previously learned content to new problems and new contexts, and/or support ideas with evidence)				
REQUIRES STUDENT SELF-REGULATION AND ACADEMIC TENACITY (students have opportunities to demonstrate persistence, assess the quality of their own work as they proceed, and/or modify their approach when faced with obstacles to achieving long-term goals)				

10. Rate the assessment activities listed below for their importance in assessing student *learning* (skill/ability) in class. (Please check [√] that apply)

	Always	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Traditional quizzes or tests				
Portfolio submissions and accompanying rationale				
Classroom participation				
End-of-course or end-of-term exams				
Extended (more than a week long) individual projects				
Extended (more than a week long) collaborative projects				
Daily homework and daily check-ins				

Student writing (essays, reports, etc.)				
Journals, Lab books or Notebooks				
Student presentation to class				
Student presentation at a public event or to a panel of students, teachers, administrators and/or community members				

E. SELF EFFICACY BELIEFS

11. Please check (✓) the box that most accurately describes your confidence levels about the statement below. I believe I have the Knowledge and skills to facilitate learning using the following methods.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
INDUCTIVE METHODS					
Inquiry					
Problem-solving					
Project based					
Discovery methods.					
COLLABORATIVE METHODS					
Group work					
Pair work					
Whole class discussion					
Experiential Methods					
Role playing methods.					
Debate method					
Fieldwork					

THANK YOU FOR TAKING PART IN THIS SURVEY

Appendix 5: Semi-Structured Interview schedule for Heads of Social Studies Section

1. During monitoring of student teachers' school experience, what is the focus?
2. Do you monitor implementation of learner-centred learning methods?
3. What common instruction practices or methods of teaching are common among student teachers during school experience?
4. What experiences do student teachers report regarding use of learner-centred learning methods during school experience?

Thank you very much for your time

Appendix 6: Likert Scale Questionnaire for Third year Student Teachers

Dear student teacher,

The purpose of this questionnaire is to collect information about your ideas/views about teacher training, different teaching methods, assessment, classroom management and Social Studies content. **Please don't write your name anywhere.** Check [] the appropriate box. Be assured that this information will be used for academic purposes only.

Gender: [] Male [] Female

Year of study: 1st [] 2nd [] third []

- 1. In the course of training, do you feel that you have received enough opportunities to learn, observe and practice how to teach using learner-centred learning methods.**

Strongly agree (SA)	Agree (A)	Undecided	Disagree (D)	Strongly disagree (SD)
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

- 2. Please check () the box that most accurately describes your confidence levels (self-efficacy) about the statement below. I believe I have the knowledge and skills to facilitate learning using the following methods.**

	Strongly agree (D)	Agree (A)	Undecided	Disagree (D)	Strongly disagree (SD)
INDUCTIVE METHODS					
Inquiry	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Problem-solving	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Project based	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Discovery methods.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Strongly agree (D)	Agree (A)	Undecided	Disagree (D)	Strongly disagree (SD)
COLLABORATIVE METHODS					
Group work	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Pair work	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Whole class discussion	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Strongly agree (D)	Agree (A)	Undecided	Disagree (D)	Strongly disagree (SD)
Experiential Methods					
Role playing methods.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Debate method	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Fieldwork	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Thank you for taking part in this survey

Appendix 7: Focus Group Discussion Guide with Student Teachers

1. Did you learn about learner-centred methods of teaching?
2. What do you understand by learner-centred learning?
3. Did you practice how to teach using learner-centred learning methods during your training?
4. Do you believe you have gained adequate knowledge and skills to facilitate learning using learner-centred learning methods?
5. What classroom instructional practices took up most of the teaching time during school experience?
6. What was your experience with learner-centred learning methods during your school experience?

Thank you very much for your time

Appendix 8: learner-centred pedagogical approaches

Strategy	Characteristics
Discovery	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learners are given opportunities to search for solutions to authentic problems or challenges. • This learning is self-directed and problem solving leads to learners generating their own knowledge. • The teacher’s role is to provide scaffolding to assist learners in their discovery. • The discovery method could be used with many of the strategies below.
Learning by Doing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This occurs when learners are involved in any form of active learning. The strategy is not confined to practical subjects and can be applied in all learning areas.
Debate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Groups are assigned a topic to discuss or a motion to debate. • There is a wealth of interaction as learners communicate, collaborate with each other and develop thinking skills. • There is scope for developing a range of competences.
Role play	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learners are given a practical situation and asked to enact it. • Learners assume character roles and simulate the situation in order to understand contrasting points of view and develop arguments accordingly.
Whole Class discussion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This familiar approach involves the teacher presenting a whole class task or question to which learners contribute their thoughts. • The teacher can make this more learner-centred by engaging everyone in the class, requiring learners in turn to build on previous contributions.
Pair work	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pair work can be used in a wide range of learning activities so that all learners are encouraged to participate, including the most passive. • Typically, a question might be posed to set learners thinking individually before they are put in pairs to discuss. Pairs can then share with the rest of the class. This is sometimes described as ‘think, pair, and share’.
Field trips	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learners are taken to places of relevance to their learning in the locality or further afield. • This might be to provide experience of, for example, a resource, a workplace or an environment. In higher grades learners might gather specific information or data to help in their studies.
Individuals and Individual Education Plans (IEPs)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All learners are unique and individual learning needs should be taken into consideration when planning for all learner-centred activities. • Learners with Special Educational Needs (SEN) are required to have IEPs that set out how best to overcome the challenges they face and ensure they make the best possible progress.
Group Work	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learners are placed in groups so as to promote participation, cooperation and sharing of ideas.

**Adopted from the Zambia Education Curriculum Framework 2013, Teacher Curriculum Implementation Guide*

Appendix 9 Ethical Clearance



THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA

DIRECTORATE OF RESEARCH AND GRADUATE STUDIES

Great East Road | P.O. Box 32379 | Lusaka 10101 | **Tel:** +260-211-290 258/291 777
Fax: +260-1-290 258/253 952 | **Email:** director@drgs.unza.zm | **Website:** www.unza.zm

HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

Approval of Study

15th January, 2019

REF. No. HSSREC: 2018-OCT-003

The Principal Investigator

Dear Mr Robinson Mambwe

RE: "Preparation of Student Teachers for Learners-Centred Education During Pedagogical Practices and Use in Colleges of Education, Zambia"

Reference is made to your submission. The University of Zambia Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee IRB resolved to approve this study and your participation as Principal Investigator for a period of one year.

Review Type	Ordinary Review	Approval No. 2018-OCT-003
Approval and Expiry Date	Approval Date: 15 th January, 2019	Expiry Date: 14 th January, 2020
Protocol Version and Date	Version-Nil	-
Information Sheet, Consent Forms and Dates	English.	To be provided
Consent form ID and Date	Version	To be provided
Recruitment Materials	Nil	Nil

There are specific conditions that will apply to this approval. As Principal Investigator it is your responsibility to ensure that the contents of this letter are adhered to. If these are not adhered to, the approval may be suspended. Should the study be suspended, study sponsors and other regulatory authorities will be informed.

Conditions of Approval

- No participant may be involved in any study procedure prior to the study approval or after the expiration date.
- All unanticipated or Serious Adverse Events (SAEs) must be reported to the IRB within 5 days.
- All protocol modifications must be IRB approved by an application for an amendment prior to implementation unless they are intended to reduce risk (but must still be reported for approval). Modifications will include any change of investigator/s or site address or methodology and methods. Many modifications entail minimal risk adjustments to a protocol and/or consent form and can be made on an Expedited basis (via the IRB Chair). Some examples are: format changes, correcting spelling errors, adding key personnel, minor changes to questionnaires, recruiting and changes, and so forth. Other, more substantive changes, especially those that may alter the risk-benefit ratio, may require Full Board review and approval. In all cases, except where noted above regarding subject safety, any changes to any protocol document or procedure must first be approved by the IRB before they can be implemented.
- All protocol deviations must be reported to the IRB within 5 working days.
- All recruitment materials must be approved by the IRB prior to being used.
- Principal investigators are responsible for initiating Continuing Review proceedings. Documents must be received by the IRB at least 30 days before the expiry date. This is for the purpose of facilitating the review process. Any documents received less than 30 days before expiry will be labelled "late submissions" and will incur a penalty.
- Every 6 (six) months a progress report form supplied by The University of Zambia Humanities And Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee IRB must be filled in and submitted to us. There is a penalty of K500.00 for failure to submit the report.
- The University of Zambia Humanities And Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee IRB does not "stamp" approval letters, consent forms or study documents unless requested for in writing. This is because the approval letter clearly indicates the documents approved by the IRB as well as other elements and conditions of approval.

Should you have any questions regarding anything indicated in this letter, please do not hesitate to get in touch with us at the above indicated address.

On behalf of The University of Zambia Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee IRB, we would like to wish you all the success as you carry out your study.

Yours faithfully,



Dr. J. Ilubala Ziwa
VICE - CHAIRPERSON
The University Of Zambia Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee IRB

Cc Director - Directorate of Research and Graduate Studies
Assistant Director - Directorate of Research and Graduate Studies
Chairperson - HSSREC
Assistant Registrar - Research

Appendix 10 Permission to Conduct Research from the school of education



**THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA
SCHOOL OF EDUCATION**

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

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

Date: 8/02/2018

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Dear Sir/Madam

RE: FIELD WORK FOR MASTERS/ PhD STUDENTS

The bearer of this letter Mr. Ms. Robinson Mambwe Computer number 2015131614 is a duly registered student at the University of Zambia, School of Education.

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

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

Yours faithfully

Emmy Mbozi (Dr)
ASSISTANT DEAN POSTGRADUATE STUDIES- SCHOOL OF EDUCATION



cc: Dean-Education
Director-DRGS

Appendix 11 Letter of Permission from permanent secretary

All communications should be addressed to:
The Permanent Secretary, Ministry of General Education
Not to any individual by name

Telephone: 250855/251315/251283
251293/211318/251291
251003/251319



REPUBLIC OF ZAMBIA

MINISTRY OF GENERAL EDUCATION

In reply please quote

No.....

P. O. BOX 50093
LUSAKA

27th August, 2018

Mr. Robinson Mambwe
University of Zambia
School of Education
Great East Road Campus
LUSAKA

**RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH IN SELECTED
PRIMARY TEACHER COLLEGES AND PRIMARY SCHOOLS OF MPIKA DISTRICT**

Reference is made to the above subject.

I am pleased to inform you that permission has been granted for you to carry out research in selected Primary Teacher Colleges and Primary Schools of Mpika District on your Doctoral study titled **'Third Year Pre-Service Primary School Teachers' Knowledge and Practice of Learner-Centred Methods in Social Studies.**

I wish you the best as you undertake to conduct research.

Dr. Felix Victor Phiri
Permanent Secretary (Administration)
MINISTRY OF GENERAL EDUCATION

Appendix 12 Letter of Permission from college principal



Council of Churches in Zambia
Malcolm Moffat College of Education



8th August, 2018

Mr. Robinson Mambwe
University of Zambia
P.O Box 32379
LUSAKA

Dear Sir,

RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT INTERVIEWS AND FOCUSED GROUP DISCUSSION WITH THIRD YEAR STUDENTS UNDER THE PRIMARY DIPLOMA PROGRAMME AT OUR COLLEGE

The above subject matter refers

We would like to request for permission to conduct interviews and focused group discussion with third year students under the Primary Diploma Programme at our college. The interviews will run in term two.

Your favourable response will be highly appreciated.

Yours faithfully,

Nkwale, B. (Mr.)
VICE PRINCIPAL

All correspondence to be addressed to the Principal

Plot No 80
Ngwansa Rd
P/18a/1

Cell
+260 974554879
+260 962958069
260 953837053

Tel: +260 215272151
+260 215382171
+260 215382344
principal@moffatce.org
www.moffatce.org

Appendix 13 Letter of Permission from college principal

REPUBLIC OF ZAMBIA

*All correspondence should be addressed to
The principal and not to any individual by name*

MINISTRY OF GENERAL EDUCATION
KITWE COLLEGE OF EDUCATION BOARD
P.O. Box 22596
Kitwe
Zambia

TEL : +260 212 212252
TEL/FAX : +260 212 212383
EMAIL : kitwektcollege@gmail.com

In reply please quote
No.

16th July, 2018


Mr. Robinson Mambwe,
University of Zambia,
P.O. Box 32379,
LUSAKA.

Dear Sir,

**RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT INTERVIEW AND FOCUSED
GROUP DISCUSSION WITH THIRD YEAR STUDENTS UNDER THE
PRIMARY DIPLOMA PROGRAMME AT OUR COLLEGE**

I would like to inform you that, you have been permitted to conduct interviews at our college in
the second term which runs from 14th May 2018 to 10th August 2018.

Yours sincerely,



Mubanga P.C. (Mr.)
Vice Principal
For/Principal
KITWE COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

Appendix 14 Permission from District Board Secretary (DEBS)-Mpika

ALL CORRESPONDENCES SHOULD BE ADDRESSED TO
THE DISTRICT EDUCATION BOARD SECRETARY



IN REPLY PLEASE QUOTE

REPUBLIC OF ZAMBIA
MINISTRY OF GENERAL EDUCATION
DISTRICT EDUCATION BOARD OFFICE
P.O. BOX 450144
MPIKA

11th September, 2018.

The Head Teacher
Mpika Primary School
MPIKA

**RE: INTRODUCTORY LETTER TO CARRY OUT A STUDY IN PRE-SERVICE
AND IN-SERVICE TEACHERS' KNOWLEDGE AND PRACTICE OF LEARNER-
CENTRED METHODS IN SOCIAL STUDIES**

Reference is made to the above captioned subject.

This serves to introduce Mr Robinson Mambwe. A Doctoral student at the University of Zambia and Lecturer in the School of Education Department of Primary Education.

Therefore, we are kindly requesting your office to allow the student carry out this very important study.

Yours faithfully,

M.S.
A. P. Bwalya (Mrs)
District Education Board Secretary
MPIKA DISTRICT

Appendix 15 Permission from District Board Secretary (DEBS)-Mpika

ALL CORRESPONDENCES SHOULD BE ADDRESSED TO
THE DISTRICT EDUCATION BOARD SECRETARY



IN REPLY PLEASE QUOTE

REPUBLIC OF ZAMBIA
MINISTRY OF GENERAL EDUCATION
DISTRICT EDUCATION BOARD OFFICE
P.O. BOX 450144
MPIKA

11th September, 2018.

The Head Teacher
Kabale Primary School
MPIKA


**RE: INTRODUCTORY LETTER TO CARRY OUT A STUDY IN PRE-SERVICE
AND IN-SERVICE TEACHERS' KNOWLEDGE AND PRACTICE OF LEARNER-
CENTRED METHODS IN SOCIAL STUDIES**

Reference is made to the above captioned subject.

This serves to introduce Mr Robinson Mambwe. A Doctoral student at the University of Zambia and Lecturer in the School of Education Department of Primary Education.

Therefore, we are kindly requesting your office to allow the student carry out this very important study.

Yours faithfully,


A. P. Bwalya (Mrs)
District Education Board Secretary
MPIKA DISTRICT

Appendix 16 Appendix 11 Permission from District Board Secretary (DEBS)-Mpika

ALL CORRESPONDENCES SHOULD BE ADDRESSED TO
THE DISTRICT EDUCATION BOARD SECRETARY



IN REPLY PLEASE QUOTE

REPUBLIC OF ZAMBIA
MINISTRY OF GENERAL EDUCATION
DISTRICT EDUCATION BOARD OFFICE
P.O. BOX 450144
MPIKA

11th September, 2018.

The Head Teacher
Chikwanda Zone
MPIKA

**RE: INTRODUCTORY LETTER TO CARRY OUT A STUDY IN PRE-SERVICE
AND IN-SERVICE TEACHERS' KNOWLEDGE AND PRACTICE OF LEARNER-
CENTRED METHODS IN SOCIAL STUDIES**

Reference is made to the above captioned subject.

This serves to introduce Mr Robinson Mambwe. A Doctoral student at the University of Zambia and Lecturer in the School of Education Department of Primary Education.

Therefore, we are kindly requesting your office to allow the student carry out this very important study.

Yours faithfully,

ms
A. P. Bwalya (Mrs)
District Education Board Secretary
MPIKA DISTRICT

Appendix 17 Publications and Book of Abstract

a. Journals

Mambwe, R., Chishimba, C.P., & Manchishi, P. C. (2019). Student Teacher Preparation and Self-Efficacy Beliefs about Inductive Teaching Learning Methods in Primary Colleges of Education. *Zambia International Journal of Education and Research*, 7(2), 179-196. ISSN: 2411-5681(online).

Mambwe, R. (2019). Social Studies Student Teachers' Views on the implementation of Learner-centred approaches in Zambian Primary Schools. *International Journal of Research and Innovation in Social Science (IJRISS)*. 3(3), 101-109. ISSN: 2454 – 6186 (online).

Mambwe, R., Cheyeka, A.M., & Manchishi, P.C. (In Press). Are Classroom Instruction Practices in Primary Colleges of Education in Zambia Learner-Centred? Lessons from Social Studies Lecturers' Ratings and Student Teachers' Views.

b. Book of Abstracts

Mambwe, R. (2019). Zambian Pre-service Student Teachers' views on Learner-Centred Methods in relation to Teacher Education: Case of Four Selected Primary Colleges. *National Conference on Pedagogy, 29th – 30th November 2018* at Golden Peacock Hotel, Lusaka, Zambia.

Mambwe, R., Cheyeka, A.M., & Manchishi, P.C (2019). Are Classroom Instruction Practices in Primary Colleges of Education in Zambia Learner-Centred? Lessons from Social Studies Lecturers' Ratings and Student Teachers' Views. *Southern African Comparative and History of Education Society (SACHES), Tuesday 29TH – Thursday 31st October 2019* at Roof of Africa Hotel and Conference Centre, Windhoek, Namibia.