

**CRITIQUING THE TEACHING OF HISTORY IN ZAMBIAN SECONDARY
SCHOOLS THROUGH BASIL BERNSTEIN'S LENS: A STUDY OF
SELECTED SCHOOLS IN LUSAKA DISTRICT**

By

Nisbert Machila

**A Thesis Submitted to the University of Zambia in Fulfilment of the
Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in History Education**

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Declaration

I, Nisbert Machila, declare that this thesis represents my own work, and that it has not previously been submitted for a degree, diploma or other qualification at this or any other University. All published work or materials from other sources incorporated in this thesis have been specifically acknowledged and adequately referenced.

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Internal Examiner 1	Signature	Date
.....

Internal Examiner 2	Signature	Date
.....

External Examiner	Signature	Date
.....

Principal Supervisor	Signature	Date
.....

Co- Supervisor	Signature	Date
.....

Abstract

This study sought to critique the teaching of history in Zambian secondary schools. The study used Basil Bernstein's theoretical framework on power and control. This study used a mixed-method approach in order to get a deeper insight into understanding the teaching of history in Zambian secondary schools in Lusaka district. The research design used in this study was a convergent parallel mixed method and purposive sample the participants. The study focused on six schools in Lusaka district, of which two were government, two private and two Missionary Grant Aided. A total of 48 teachers and 120 pupils were selected. The sample also included one curriculum specialist, one examination specialist and one standards officer, giving us three. Data were collected using questionnaires, interviews, lesson observations and document study. Thus, the first part of the study comprised 177 respondents. In order to answer the questions on significant differences between the Content-based Curriculum and Outcome-based learner performance, a total of 8,276 grade 12 history learners who sat for the national secondary school certificate in the selected six secondary schools were used. In order to analyse quantitative data, descriptive statistics were used to analyse the collected data using SPSS software, and qualitative data were analysed using themes that emerged. The findings revealed that teachers disliked using lesson plans as they stated that lesson plans were time-consuming compared to lesson notes. The study revealed that long serving teachers demonstrated more and better understanding of the syllabus. Several challenges were identified from studying how history is taught; the current format for the final national examination encourages memorisation of the content. As noted in Bernstein's lens, the selection of content taught in the classroom does not allow learners and teachers to have any power and control. In addition, the current history syllabus does not follow the horizontal and vertical discourses notion of Bernstein. Hence, learners start with World history, which they are not very familiar with and end with African history, which they are most familiar with. Further, the teaching of history in secondary schools faces a problem of periodisation, which is centred mostly on European accounts. Additionally, the current syllabus fails to take into account gender sensitive content as it is centred on male accounts. On the

Pedagogical practices utilised in teaching history to ensure effective teaching, the study findings indicate that most teachers used question and answer and the lecture method as one of the easy approaches. The study results show that history learners performed statistically better on Outcome-based education (M 66.24 and SD 31.24) compared to Content-based education (M 28.53, SD 20.36). The study also revealed that demographic factors such as type of syllabus, gender, and school type were statistically significant in their contribution to learners' academic performance. Another interesting finding of the study was that private and grant-aided schools outperformed government schools in both syllabus types due to good governance and human resource management, availability of teaching/learning resources, good pupil-teacher ratio, well trained and experienced teachers, teachers' motivation through awards and better infrastructure development. The study recommended the need for history teachers to use modern pedagogies in order to improve the teaching/learning process in secondary schools. Secondly, MOE, CDC and Secondary School Stakeholders should revisit the senior secondary school History syllabus for it to respond to the Zambian changing dynamics such as a shift from emphasis Eurocentric views to Zambianised History. Thirdly, The MOE through CDC should evaluate the implementation of the OBE in Zambian secondary schools in order to identify its failures and successes for better future policy implementation.

Keywords: History, Pedagogy, History teaching, Teachers, Learners, Syllabus, Curriculum.

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This thesis is dedicated to my mother, Margaret Machila, my husband, Kennedy Malama and my children, Millar Chipu Malama, Margaret Chabota Malama and George Wanga Malama. I dedicate all efforts exerted to produce this work to them. I am apologetic for my absence from home most of the time during my studies but grateful for their understanding. God bless them.

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Abbreviations

BSACo	British South Africa Company
CDC	Curriculum Development Centre
CBC	Content-Based Education
ECZ	Examinations Council of Zambia
GCE	General Certificate of Education
GRZ	Government of the Republic of Zambia
MoE	Ministry of Education
MOGE	Ministry of General Education
MESVTEE	Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
ORF	Official Recontextualising Field
OBE	Outcome-Based Education
PRF	Pedagogical Recontextualising Field
PCK	Pedagogical Content Knowledge
PD	Pedagogical Device
UNZA	University of Zambia
USA	United States of America

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Overview

History teaching has been influenced by various factors including pedagogy and school type, teacher preparedness and type of curriculum, among others. The study was centred on history teaching, teacher preparedness and pedagogy, while the second part centred on grade 12 secondary school history performance from 2010 to 2020. Thus, this chapter is concerned with the background to the study and the statement of the problem, the research aims and objectives, the research questions and the study's significance. The chapter further gives a historical development of Zambia's teaching and learning of the history subjects. Also, the chapter presents the limitation and delimitations, including the definition of the keywords. The chapter concludes with a synopsis of the structure of the thesis.

1.2. Background

History teaching and learning have existed in the world for an extended period. According to Oppong (2010:2), history as a “school subject can be traced worldwide back from the origins of the works of Thomas Arnold”. Arnold was a headmaster of Rugby from 1828 to 1842. Jann (1985) states that ‘Arnold’s developmental model of historical transformation housed the relative and the absolute, constantly evolving with the permanently fixed. Thus, the above provided his contemporaries with a means of diffusing the destructive potential of scientific thought for the bases of belief. This shows that history teaching as a discipline has a long tradition in the world. According to Cole and Barsalou (2006), history teaching helps learners become engaged, responsible citizens, even in societies where ethnic division, poverty, mistrust, and low-level violence remain endemic. As a result, history should be taught in a way that inspires learners to believe in their own ability to effect positive changes in society and contribute to national development.

History education is a very important aspect in one’s life because it is part and parcel of its culture (Afolabi, 2018:1). This is because history helps societies to critically

analyse and interpret human past in relation to the present. Through the study of history using various forms of evidence, history aids in examining, revisit and find solutions to the happenings around the world. Therefore, through historical investigation, various events can be understood much better. As observed by Carl (2009), history can guide learners to see trends and processes from a broader, holistic perspective and to understand them. Within the context of the Zambian school curriculum, the Ministry of General Education (CDC, 2015) regards the value of history as a tool through which the nation's development could be achieved. According to the Senior Secondary School History Syllabus (CDC, 2015), history as a school subject is important to understand the historical development of man from antiquity to the present time. History helps learners in applying historical knowledge, skills, and values to the understanding of historical events. It also enables learners evaluate sources of historical information to determine their authenticity and empowering learners with skills to write reasonable essays on some historical topics. Through the study of history, learners can also evaluate current social, political, economic, and cultural challenges to offer possible solutions.

In Zambia, the teaching of history can be traced as far back as the colonial period. Formally, teaching of history was first introduced by the missionaries (Snelson, 1974: 7-8). Since then, the subject has undergone many changes in the way the discipline has been taught. Upto 1924, Zambia was ruled under the British South Africa Company (BSACo). During this period missionaries and the company provided education. It is important to note that not much skill-full education was given to Africans. Bulfin (2012) observes that the BSACo did not see the need of educating Africans as they believed that they would not add any value to the territory's economic development. Rather than educate the African population to prepare them for skilled workforce, the British preferred to educate their own British children. It was only later, in 1929, that the first primary school for Africans was created. Secondary education was only provided shortly before World War II (Kuster, 1999). The history subject during this period was taught as an integral part of social studies under the primary section. Social studies were a combination of history, geography,

and civic education (Mwanakatwe: 2013:62, Chishimba & Simukoko, 2000:281). It is important to also note that the teaching of history during the colonial period was primarily a narrative of past European events focusing on memorisation of important names, places, and dates.

Snelson (1974:8) contends that the social studies curriculum offered by missionaries was balanced more on religious, academic, and industrial elements than on historical knowledge. Chishimba and Simukoko (2000:281), in support of Snelson's view, concluded that the school curriculum emphasised religious education and was British and did not include African content. The focus was not much on history as its aims were to support and promote pupils' character, moral and intellectual well-being. As a result, the content in history in the social studies curriculum focused on a policy of cultural imperialism based on Europeans. It thus was Euro-centric in its content selection, sequencing, and criteria of what was to be taught and not. The teaching focused on learners acquiring historical content knowledge of European superior power over the Africans. For instance, the main topics in history were how Europeans discovered Africa and the sub-topics of European travellers and explorers. In 1950, the curriculum was re-assessed; as a result, topics such as British history, transportation and communication were added (Chishimba & Simukoko, 2000). Several vital aspects of African history were not added to the social studies content. The narrative teaching of historical facts and texts aimed at fostering the development of a British colony. In this model, effective teaching of history and learning meant that learners did not need to go beyond recalling historical knowledge, thereby generating a shared memory. Thus, for many years, history was surprisingly neglected by British policymakers. However, one question that one need ask is how history was taught as an integrated subject? First, one would clearly argue that several gaps may have been left out due to its broadness; secondly, the criteria used to select and organise what was taught can be questionable. In supporting the above argument, Cartey and Kilson (1970) draw our attention by observing that the social studies colonial curriculum focused on implementing the British policy that aimed to replace African education with Western education.

At the secondary school level, history was taught as a single entity. In the colonial period, the secondary school system was classified into two; junior (form 1-3) and after independence there was the introduction senior secondary (form 4-6). It mainly focused on local, regional, and global history, but still remained British in nature and scope. Thus, the colonial curriculum did not incorporate topics concerning African issues (Ministry of African Education Report, 1959). Education in Zambia has always reflected an ideology of the superiority of British control and power characterised by inequalities. This is because from the policymaking process, the history included in the curriculum, the history taught in the classrooms and how it was taught reflected a sense of British control. Thus, it is imperative to state that final national examinations were all set and prepared in by Cambridge University Syndicate in Britain. It was thus vital for the United National Independence Party (UNIP) at independent, as a new government, to show change within the education system. However, Muleya (2015:107) points out that “the post-independence educational campaign, as elsewhere in the continent, was aimed at expansive national development. It would appear that the educational campaigns during this period were not necessarily preparing the learners for real social change and transformation”. We can note that the post-independence period in Zambia was faced with several educational challenges.

In the period after independence, Zambia inherited a British education system based on Western education. Despite gaining independence in 1964, the country’s education system relied much on mission schools and expatriates who did not understand the African learners and the environments they lived in. For instance, the junior curriculum content Form 1 to 3 and later grade 8-9 in history included topics on civilisation and the development of ancient kingdoms such as Egyptian civilisation. During this period, the government's focus was to change the curriculum to a more Africanised content to support the policy of decolonisation and Africanisation (Mukoboto, 2014:60). As a result, not much was taught about Zambian history during this period.

Beginning in 1977 there was a philosophical shift toward the teaching of history in Zambia. Zambia undertook its first educational reform, which emphasised education as an instrument for personal and national development. The second educational reform was in 1992, “Focus on Learning” which stressed the mobilisation of resources to develop school education. Later, in 1996 another educational reform, “Educating our Future,” was introduced. The policy addressed the entire field of formal education. It paid attention to democratisation and decentralisation. The history syllabus was revised to fully localise the high school examination formerly set by the University of Cambridge Local Examination Syndicate in Britain. The syllabus review was to necessitate the need to improve the quality of education at the secondary school level. The syllabus was formulated as a follow up of the localisation process for high school (Grade 10-12). This syllabus prepared learners for the School Certificate and General Certificate of Education in History administered by the Examination Council of Zambia. This was an important policy as it was meant to overhaul the colonial education system to meet the aspirations of an independent Zambia. The curriculum content included topics from Central, Southern African and World History. The focus during this time was mainly to give the learners a rounded global history. This paradigmatic shift gave rise to national identity as it included vital aspects of Zambian history and appeared linked to learners' needs and environment.

Despite the changes made in history teaching after independence, it is critical to mention that the history content may have changed in nature. However, how the policy message was transmitted through various levels of the education system might have remained the same and still followed a colonial standard. In October 2013, the Government of the Republic of Zambia, through the Curriculum Development Centre (CDC), introduced the new curriculum framework (CDC, 2015), which sought to fulfil the requirements of effective delivery of learning in schools. The OBE approach to teaching underpinned the new curriculum. The OBE curriculum is based on the ‘outcomes or the results or performance of the pupils. The objective of this approach to teaching learners in schools was to reduce and improve the quality of education services. Thus, in 2013; a national educational framework was developed and is

currently the framework that Zambia is using (Curriculum Development Centre (CDC), 2015:1). The new curriculum is centred on competencies for learners. According to CDC (2015: 39), “the content, structure, and process of teaching at senior secondary school level and the range of co-curricular activities should all be directed towards developing a learner who is accountable, well-educated, and capable of effective communication, among others. It is worth stating that history learners need to be exposed to a school curriculum that prepares them for lifelong and meaningful guidance. The curriculum was revised to meet the goals of the Education sector Millennium Development Goals and Vision 2030 with emphasis on Zambia becoming a middle-income country (CDC: 2015). In line with the 2013 framework, the history syllabus was reviewed, and it is based on outcome-based education. It aims to link learners' experiences to what is taught.

Various authors have traced the origin of and nature of OBE. Fisk and Ladd (2004) describe the method as an instructional one in which curriculum planners teach the general knowledge, skills, and values that learners should acquire. OBE is grounded in two pillars of knowledge: competency-based education and secondly mastery learning. To ensure students meet the outcomes, formative and summative assessments are rooted in OBE. The framework of historical understanding that underpins the OBE history curriculum is critical to the way teachers try to understand and implement it in the school. Counsell (2000: 61) states that to decide what history is to be taught, at school, regional or national level is to exercise phenomenal power. So, the messages systems that surround the way and how historical content is transmitted to the learners are of much interest in this current study.

In addition, the new curriculum incorporates history, geography, and civics into social studies in grades 8 and 9 (junior secondary). It is an interdisciplinary programme that has incorporated some aspects of Civic Education, Geography and History that were previously taught as separate subjects in the former's curriculum. The subject matter is arranged in a spiral manner, dealing with the same topic, moving from simple to the complex, while at the higher grades, the study extends in breadth and depth. The

syllabus considers factors of space, time perspective, and political and socio-economic changes. Integrated Social Studies aims to develop an understanding of the economic, political, geographical, and historical factors that influence social development (Curriculum Development Centre, 2013). The history subject is taught at a separate entity at the senior secondary school level. It covers three parts: Central and Southern African history (History Paper 1) and World history (History Paper 2).

1.4. Situating the Research: Global context and Zambia

An intellectual shift in history teaching over the years in the education sector has affected how the subject is taught in secondary schools. The teaching of history worldwide has been characterised by the search for better pedagogical ways to enhance effective teaching. Although there has been an increase in the discussion around the teaching of history and pedagogical practices of the subject, there is a need to explore more the instructional approaches used in the classroom, mainly as they apply to the way learners understand the subject. According to Hover and Yeager (2004), teaching and learning history must advocate for instructional approaches that engage learners in making history, allowing for the building of historical knowledge and not memorisation. In England, Kitson, Husbands, and Steward (2011) emphasise that the teaching history in secondary schools must be examined from the role of the teacher and how they apply the pedagogical practices in ensuring effective outcomes. Similarly, in India, history teaching has been questioned not only on the nature of the subject but also on the methods used to deliver the subject. Tok (2016) observes that India's learners face many problems in understanding history because of the vast content and the way the subject is taught. According to Musawi (2014), in Afghanistan, the quality of teaching history is mostly in such a way that fewer students get interested in studying the subject due to poor pedagogical approaches.

In Africa, history teachers encounter various challenges due to how the subject is taught. According to Thorp (2016:3), history teachers in Africa still face the challenge of using traditional approaches that focus on national and Eurocentric perspectives despite the curricular changes creating a historical lag. Thus, the situation in history teaching in Africa, in particular Zambia is influenced by several factors. History

teachers face challenges such as the tension between what content to focus on, learners constructing their own understanding of history, and poor methods used to enhance effective outcomes. In addition, the problems of historical inquiry and methods to engage in the teaching process on a given topics remain unclear. The failure rate of learners in the Grade 12 final examination remains high compared to other social science subjects. In 2019 history was recorded one of the lowest mean percentages at 23.38 per cent (ECZ, 2020). While the number of learners taking history in secondary school remains low, the performance rate has continued to be poor. For these reasons, the present study on critiquing the teaching of history in Zambian secondary schools through Basil Bernstein's lens is vital.

1.4. Statement of the Problem

The effective teaching of history in secondary schools is a prime area of concern for most historians and history teachers. Ministry of Education through the Curriculum Development Centre emphasises the relevance and use of various pedagogies in the teaching processes to ensure effective teaching and better learners' performance. Despite this emphasises for effective pedagogical practices in teaching history, teachers still face a series of challenges in attaining historical objectives at the secondary school level. Research around the world reports that teaching and learning history in secondary schools are still dominated more by emphasis on theoretical content, traditional methods of teaching and memorisation of historical knowledge than the critical competencies of learners (Rao & Namamba, 2017). Owing to this, most students describe history as a boring subject. There is a decline in learners interested in studying history because of the difficulty of acquiring historical knowledge and how the subject is taught in schools. It is also not clear whether teachers in history are provided with enough pedagogical resources in the various schools. This, in the long run, may cause ineffective outcomes in classroom practice. Against this background, this study used Basil Bernstein's lens to critique the history teaching in Zambian secondary schools, particularly in selected secondary schools in Lusaka province.

1.5. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to critique secondary school history teaching in the Lusaka District in Zambia using Basil Bernstein's lens.

1.6. Specific Objectives

The study had the following objectives:

- a. ascertain the lesson preparedness of history teachers in their classes.
- b. assess how history teachers sieve the various historical content knowledge from the syllabus that is delivered to the learners.
- c. determine the pedagogical practices utilised in teaching history to ensure effective teaching.
- d. examine the challenges faced by history learners in grasping the subject.
- e. determine whether there are statistically significant mean differences in secondary school history between content-based and outcome-based education in Lusaka District.

1.7. Research Questions

The main research question that guided the study was: how history is taught in Lusaka Province of Zambia in selected secondary schools using Basil Bernstein's lens.

1.7.1. The following five research questions reflect the above objectives of the study

- a. How do teachers prepare for history lessons for their classes?
- b. What factors do they consider in selecting various historical content knowledge from the syllabus to be delivered to the learners?
- c. What pedagogical practices are used in teaching history to ensure effective outcomes?
- d. What challenges do history learners face in grasping the subject?
- e. Are there statistically significant mean differences between content-based education and outcome-based education in general certificate history?

1.8 Significance of the Study

The study may be significant in several ways. It is hoped that the research may add some insights to the already existing body of literature on the subject. The study may be vital to educators such as training institutions. Training institutions such as the University of Zambia may borrow from the study's findings when training their students, especially those studying in education.

Since many scholars in Zambia have not widely explored history teaching methodology, this study is unique. The study may be a significant contribution to national academic development. The study's findings may serve as a guide to the Zambian government, Ministry of General Education, Curriculum Development Centre (CDC) and other stakeholders to reconsider how history is taught in secondary schools in Zambia. It may help educational administrator and policymakers identify appropriate ways of overcoming methodological barriers in the education system in Zambia. This might lead to programmes that support and encourage the appropriate use of methods to enhance teaching effectiveness and learning in the classroom.

It is hoped that the study may stimulate further research on the subject. The researcher anticipates that the study may empower teachers at school and classroom levels to rethink how history is taught in public schools. The study's findings might also help teachers of history reflect on their methodologies in teaching history and exactly how these can be enriched. Furthermore, the findings of this study may suggest actionable recommendations that education experts may use to apply appropriate tools to improve multi-grade teaching in Zambia. In addition, the study may help improve the levels of understanding and skills among history teachers and learners in schools by helping them on various pedagogies that can be applied in history education.

1.9. Delimitation of the study

The study was delimited to critiquing the teaching of history in selected Secondary Schools in Lusaka District. It specifically explores the pedagogical practices used by teachers in teaching history and critically examines learner performance at grade 12 between the outcome-based curriculum and the content-based curriculum. It is important to note that the study was delimited to only six selected secondary schools in the Lusaka district. A total of six schools were sampled based on the common feature that the schools offered history. Lusaka district was selected as a focal site with the assumption that, being the capital city of the country, it is better resourced with school resources and skills.

1.10. Limitation

The limitation of this study is that since only six schools were sampled from the Lusaka District, the findings may not be generalised as being representative of Zambia as a whole. Finding all the teachers who teach history in the schools was a primary challenge due to the global pandemic of the Corona Virus (Covid-19). Hence, data collection using interviews was a challenge as the researcher had to locate some teachers outside the school premises.

1.11. Operational Definition of Terms

In this section, definitions of terms, teaching, teacher, learners, curriculum, syllabus, pedagogy content knowledge, competencies and power and control are provided since a clear understanding should be established at this point of how these terms are used in this study:

Teaching: Teaching is an activity where a teacher helps a learner acquire some form of knowledge or subject matter. Thus, teaching is seen as a critical instructional skill and aids in successful problem-solving.

Learning: In this study, learning takes a functional role as it is coined as a reflective activity drawn from the learners' experiences to understand and evaluate the historical content knowledge and aid in understanding the new knowledge. Learning is understood as an act of various experiences, knowledge, skills, and values, which comes from a comprehensive process of teaching using various approaches and skills.

Effective teaching of history: Effective teaching of history is the possession of a firm knowledge base in history and the skill to convey this knowledge in ways that are meaningful to learners. Various factors are required to measure effective teaching of any subject and the factors varies from subject to subject. In this study, effective teaching is conceptualised as embracing various factors and skills to aid in achieving the outcomes and goals for learners in the syllabus. Therefore, effective teaching is understood in line with Shulman's notion of pedagogical content knowledge.

Pedagogical content knowledge: Pedagogical content knowledge (PCK), a crucial variable that helps to measure teaching/learning in education. Pedagogical knowledge (PK) shows the activity that teachers provide for students like the methods used in the lesson while content knowledge (CK) specifies the organised subject matter that student must learn over a period of time. PCK then is a combination of these two knowledge bases, content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge. PCK is also conceptualised as knowledge of teaching strategies used to delivery lessons in order to address learners' misconceptions and foster meaning understanding.

Outcome based or Competency-based curriculum (CBC): Zambia follows a competency-based education or an outcome-based education. A competency-based curriculum emphasises what elements are expected to do rather than mainly focusing on content. Unlike a content-based curriculum that focuses on key principles of construction of knowledge and memorisation of historical facts, CBC is based on the key principles of reading, writing and critical thinking. In this study CBC refers to a curriculum which emphasises install knowledge, skills, critical thinking, and analytical thinking in learners. CBC is used in this study as it helps to examine how

history taught under such an approach. In CBC approach learners have a greater ownership over the teaching/learning process and thus the process is learner centred. Teachers collaborate more with the learners, increasing their intentionality on what learners know from their experiences.

Content Based Curriculum (CBC): A content-based curriculum emphasises mainly focusing on content. Its principles are centred on acquiring knowledge and memorisation of historical facts. A content-based curriculum is an approach organised around content or information that students will acquire. Content-based curriculum focuses on learning about concepts rather than skills, values, and norms.

1.12. Organizational structure of the Study

The study is organised into seven chapters.

Chapter One introduces the background, statement of the problem, main aim of the study, specific objectives, research questions, and scope of the study, delimitation, limitation, and significance.

Chapter Two discusses the theoretical and conceptual framework used in the study. The study borrowed from Basil Bernstein. The chapter firstly introduces who Basil Bernstein was, and then discuss the various lenses used in this study. The primary lenses used in this study are class, code and control theory, classification and framing, and horizontal and vertical discourse.

Chapter Three presents the literature review. The study considers the following themes: purpose of history teaching, practical lesson preparation by history teachers, pedagogical practices in history teaching, learners' performance, problems, and challenges in history teaching. The chapter also discusses the research gap and ends with a summary.

Chapter Four discusses the research methodology. Research methodology mainly looks at how data was collected, interpreted, and analysed. The chapter also gives details on the research design, study site, study population, sample size, sampling

technique, data collection instruments, data analysis, data presentation, validity, reliability, and ethical consideration. The chapter concludes with a summary.

Chapter Five presents the research findings which are discussed in accordance with the study's research questions. The chapter presents the results according to the emerging themes. It also outlines the demographic representation of the participants in the study. The chapter also ends with a summary.

Chapter Six deals with the research interpretation of the data and discusses the link between the findings and the theoretical framework. The chapter helps answer the research gap of the study and ends with a summary.

Chapter Seven presents the conclusion and recommendations of the study. The recommendations are discussed in line with the findings of the study. The chapter ends with a summary too.

1.13. Chapter Summary

The chapter has discussed the background of the study. It has given an overview of the trends in the teaching of history from the curriculum to the classroom. It has also traced studies from curriculum policy to the teaching of the history subjects in the classroom. It has been established in this chapter that Zambia has seen a transition from a colonially based history education to a more competency-based curriculum. In addition, the application of Bernstein's theory of classification and framing in this research has been briefly explored. In the chapter that follows, a full discussion of Bernstein's theory and its relevance for this study is given.

CHAPTER TWO: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. Overview

In this chapter, the theoretical framework is presented which underpins the current study. The chapter seeks to illuminate the key theory that shapes the content and approach in this study. The importance of theory in research cannot be underestimated. For any academic research to be successful and meaningful, it must be located within a given theoretical framework. Scholars give various definitions of the term ‘theory.’ Abend (2008) defines a theory as is an explanation of a social phenomenon. The Basil Bernstein’s power and control framework helped the researcher find and answer the research questions and null hypothesis (Ho) that there is no correlation between academic performance and syllabus type. Nixon (2004: 34) suggests that three general features are essential resources for researchers. Firstly, the theoretical framework aided the researcher in the analytical interpretation of intent and action, secondly towards the speculative evaluation of alternative courses of action and thirdly it aids in the explanatory justification of the principles underlying practice. The major theoretical concepts employed in the analysis of this study include code theory, classification and framing, and re-contextualisation. Furthermore, the vertical and horizontal notions will be discussed.

2.2. An Introduction to Basil Bernstein (1924-2000)

Basil Bernstein was a British sociologist who was mainly influenced by ideologies of Durkheim (Sadovnik, 2001:1, Mutekwe, 2016: 118). His early works were primarily on language and its functional role in society. He examined the link between families and language transmission (Bernstein, 1960). Although Bernstein’s theories have been highly criticised (Pring, 1975, Gibson 1977, Atkinson, 2001) his works have given researchers grounds to understand and analyse educational issues and how they relate to the society. The evolution of Bernstein’s’ ideas appear fundamentally in five volumes referred to collectively as “class, codes and control, 1-V. Bernstein code

theory is essential in explaining and analysing the main principles underlying the transformation of knowledge into pedagogical communication. The notions of class, codes, and control will guide this study in examining how history teachers implement the curriculum.

2.4. Class, Code, and Control Theory

According to Bernstein (1973), the code theory provides a grammar for an analysis of how understanding is differentially specialised and how various forms of messages are produced and disseminated in a school setting (Hoadley, 2005, Moore, 2010). It is important to mention that every individual is surrounded by some form of knowledge, which can be produced within their community. Secondly, the school by teaching inducts learners into knowledge and thus creating a “school code.” The code refers to an orientation to organising experience and making meaning. The purpose of schooling is to specialise learners’ voice concerning the school code. Hoadley (2005:1) simply put it that “pedagogy in this view inducts learners into a ‘school’ way of organising experience and making meaning.” Mutekwe (2016: 118) indicates that the way language is used within a societal class affects the way people assign significance and meaning to the things about which they are speaking. Bernstein’s theory of code offers a critical standpoint to explore educational issues in Zambia. In support of Hoadley, Haugen (2009:152) articulates that the code theory “examines the reproduction of power in schools by looking at the way content is classified, and way interactions are framed.

The code theory explains how consciousness is differentially specialised in schools. Essentially, Bernstein’s code theory examines the general principles underlying the transformation of knowledge into pedagogic communication. He argued that language code could be divided into two; a restricted and elaborated code (Bernstein, 1975). Bernstein (1971: 61-66) explains that the language of the working-class children is the restricted code, while the middle class belongs to the elaborated code. He notes that while the restricted code is characterised by particularistic, explicit, and specific, embellished is universalistic and implicit Mutekwe (2016: 118). Mutekwe further notes that according to Bernstein (2010), both codes are vital in clarifying making

distinctions of realisation among learners. While the restricted code is used amongst working-class children, an elaborated code is associated with the middle class. Zambian public secondary schools use more of the developed code because most pupils come from the middle class. The elaborated systems are generally influenced by socialisation agencies such as the school environment, home, and external factors out the school such as the community.

According to Cause (2012) Bernstein suggests three message systems in formal education. There are curriculum, pedagogy, and evaluation (Cause, 2012). Through the message systems government (policy making), schools and teachers determine what and how knowledge is transferred to the learner. Besides, the message system regulates the control of the content that is to suggest that how the knowledge is selected, sequences paced, and the criteria used for all these are considered. As articulated by Bernstein (2003: 156) curriculum defines what counts as a valid knowledge, pedagogy defines what counts as valid transmission of knowledge, and evaluation defines what counts as valid realisation of knowledge. Educational knowledge code refers to the underlying principles which shape curriculum, pedagogy, and evaluation (Bernstein, 2003:106)

It must be stated that the forms carried by the code depend upon social principles which regulate the power and the control. Bourdieu (1991) supports the above view by indicating that ‘the school functions as a provider of social reproduction.’ This is because the school produces and reproduces knowledge and thus through pedagogical discourse power relations are enforced. These power relations can either be internal, that is, within the school or external that is to suggest outside the school. It is important to note that the Zambian public schools are an essential institution for the transformation and transmission of knowledge and helps learners to appreciate society. This is because public schools offer various courses that are taught to learners. For this knowledge to successfully be transferred to learners, it requires the effort of the teacher and the use of multiple pedagogies. One area that needs further developing in understanding the dynamics of classroom activities of teachers and learners is the context in which pedagogical practices are carried out in schools.

Stanley (1992) observes that a school is a vital place that helps to develop people's various relationship. He draws examples from Bourdieu philosophies which believe that schools do not reflect the dominant culture but are relatively autonomous institutions that are influenced both directly and indirectly by other powerful institutions. Zambian public schools are influenced by many factors such as policy, administration, teachers, peer groups and communities around the school.

All these factors affect the way the curriculum is implemented as they carry various forms of power and control. Besides, public schools may not necessarily directly impose the dominant order but function as one part of a broader group or symbolic social institutions. Thus, school functions as socialisation field and aids in producing and reproducing communications.

2.5. Classification and Framing

Bernstein used the notions of classification and framing to clearly understand the issue of how power and control influence education respectively. The terms provide a means of understanding how knowledge moves from one agent to another. According to Cause (2012: 63) "the notions offer a way of understanding and analysing three message systems in line with pedagogic re-contextualising field" (The re-contextualisation fields are discussed below in detail) Bernstein uses the concepts of classification (power) and framing (control) to emphasise the above interaction in the classroom.

2.5.1. Classification

The study will use Bernstein's' notion of classification. This notion provides an excellent framework for understanding and researching pedagogy (1973, 1999, & 2000). The teaching and learning of history and pedagogical knowledge are problematised in this study as a matter of framing and control aimed at creating a social order. Classification in this study will refer to governments' powers over the curriculum and regulations on what schools or teachers should do Classification is central to my study as it allows me to interpret the impact of OBE on the teaching of history in Zambian public secondary schools. Applying Bernstein's classification lens

to the way power relations may impact the pedagogies used by history teachers in Zambia and allowed the researcher to utilise a variety of viewpoints to create a multidimensional interpretation of how power relations may produce different subjectivities among the faculty. Thus, classification would help in addressing issues such pedagogical implications of power relations that exists by government over the curriculum process in relate to what teachers should teach.

Such scholars as Hannah (2016), Robertson (2007) note that Bernstein reveals in what manner educational codes are produced and reproduced by examining the link between classification and framing. Bernstein argues that classification and framing determine the structure of the knowledge, pedagogy, and evaluation in each education system. Classification reflects power relations in society by establishing boundaries between categories (agents, agencies, discourses, practices) regarding how strongly insulated they are from each other (Bernstein, 2000b). In another similar publication Bernstein (2003:158) clarifies that classification does not refer to what is classified but the relationships between contents. He, furthermore, argues that classification applies to the organisation aspect of pedagogy, the way in which power activates specific categories such as the school history subject, agents, discourse, and space (Bernstein 2003: 158).

Sadovnik (2001:3) observes that “classification is the degree of boundary maintenance between content and concerned with the insulation or boundaries between curricular categories” while “framing is related to the transmission of knowledge through pedagogic practices.” In this case, classification refers to the way in which knowledge is organised in the curriculum while framing relates to the transmission of knowledge through pedagogical practice. Classification can also be categorised into two, weak or strong classification. Classification can be strong when contents are well insulated from each other by firm boundaries; things must be kept apart. Where the classification is weak, things must be brought together (Bernstein, 1971; 1996).

Thus, this study will analyse the degree of the boundary between elements in history teaching to measure how power relations are produced and reproduced through the curriculum. Also, using the notion of classification the study examines how history teachers in Zambian public schools interpret and construct the history syllabus. From this examination, the strength of the boundaries exists between policies, aspects of surrounding the school and within the subject, the levels of power relations would be understood.

2.5.2. Framing

While classification, as noted above, must do with power relations, the notion of framing is used to examine the different forms of communication constructed in each pedagogical practice. Besides, framing denotes the interactional aspects of pedagogy, the way in which knowledge is selected, sequenced, paced, and evaluated in the classroom, regulating the moral order of the classroom and who has control over it (Moore & Maton, 2001). According to Single (1997:5) “control relations establish legitimate forms of communication appropriate to different contexts, for instance relationships between the teachers and learners in the classroom.

In this study, while classification refers to the power that government has through its various bodies such as Ministry of Education and Curriculum Development Centre (CDC) over the curriculum and regulations of schools as well as teachers. On the other hand, framing is concerned with the control teachers and learners have over the formation and later the implementation of the curriculum. Bernstein (1973b:88) emphasises more on the meaning of framing by noting, “Frame is the degree of control teacher and learner possess over the selection, organisation, pacing, and timing of the knowledge transmitted and received in the pedagogical relationship.” Thus, the framing model, as it relates to power and control those teachers and learners have over the activities in the classroom, is vital in this study.

Quoting Bernstein's words Lang (2017:47) simplified the meaning of framing by stating that

... framing also makes of educational knowledge something not ordinary or mundane, but something esoteric which gives a special significance to those who possess it. He suggests that when this frame is relaxed to include everyday realities, it is often and sometimes validly, not simply for the transmission of education knowledge, but for the purposes of social control of forms of deviancy. This weakening of this frame occurs usually with the less 'able' children whom we have given up educating. (Bernstein, 1971: 50)

Using the above statement, the concept of framing will be used in this study to analyse the control that teachers and learners pose in the classroom. In examining classroom activities in Zambian public secondary schools teaching and the choices about history practices cannot be made without considering these important factors. This is what renders this theory a lot of importance in analysing the findings of this study. In this study, the theory helps us appreciate and understand how specific power and control relations in the history classroom can lead to differential access to recognition and realisation rules which affect the pedagogical interaction.

This study uses the work of Basil Bernstein to examine and understand the relations of teachers, pupils, and the pedagogical practices in public schools. Through the lens of Bernstein's framing and control, the study critically analyses the teaching of history in Zambian public secondary schools. Bernstein (1977) demonstrates how power and control are spread in society from the dominant class via formal education and in the way, the content is classified, and interactions are framed. Classification reveals power relations of the community by establishing boundaries between categories. In this case, classification is concerned with the relations between the content and the curriculum. Therefore, in a public secondary school classification controls what teachers teach knowledge, skills, and discourses. While, framing is how knowledge, skills, dispositions are taught and learned.

Bernstein (1975: 231) observes that “in an integrated curriculum coded as weak classification and weak framing result in the subordinate of previously insulated subject or courses to some relational idea.” While in a collection curriculum code there is a robust classification and sturdy framing which results in the separation of distinct subjects and in a high degree of teacher control over how these subjects are taught (Young, 1981). Framing can either be internal or external. According to Haugen (2009) framing can be categorised into internal and external framing. Internal refers to who controls the communication in the education context: do learners have a low (+fi) or high (-fi) degree of control over the communication? While external framing concerned with whether the teachers have a low (+fe) or high (-free) degree of control the central authorities have over the school.

2.7. Recontextualising Fields

Bernstein coined what has known as Pedagogic Device (PD) which refers to the process of recontextualising knowledge for the purpose of creating school knowledge (Singh, 2002, Bertram, 2020). The PD is made up of various sets of laws which include distributive, recontextualising and evaluative. Hannah (2016) notes that the three laws are hierarchically related in that the distributive rules influence the recontextualising rules and the recontextualising rules influence the evaluative rules. The distributive rule guides on how knowledge is transmitted while the evaluative rule governs how knowledge is assessed i.e., instructional, and regulative (Bernstein 2000, Singh, 2002).

According to Bernstein (2000:31-35), recontextualising field refers to space where pedagogic identities and discourse are constructed with reference to power and control relations. Recontextualisation is the process of making meaning to what must be taught, in this case, done by the teacher. The teachers start to make and outweighs what is vital to be taught and not. At the same, the teacher makes judgments of how and when it must be delivered to the learners. Robertson (2012) notes that ‘recontextualisation rules construct the thinkable, official knowledge and what and how of pedagogic device. They provide the criteria that established what

counts as legitimate knowledge. In the classroom, this can be achieved through evaluation. For recontextualisation to be attained it is influenced by two fields: the official recontextualising field (ORF) and pedagogic recontextualising fields (PRF) (Singh, 1997). The ORF, in this case, would be the government and curriculum designers from Curriculum Development Centre who legitimises the knowledge. While PRF is where policy coming from ORF is interpreted and implemented by teachers who deliver the knowledge.

In this case, PRF refers to the arena within the school. The school is the place where pedagogic discourse is created and framed by teachers. Solomon and Tsatsaroni (2001) argue that 'while the state legitimises the principles of distribution of social power and control which are incorporated into the official pedagogic discourse these principles undergo further recontextualisation at the level of the transmitter 'discourse and then at the level of acquisition. Thus, we can conclude that at the school level there are three agents in the recontextualising pedagogic field: school administration, the teacher, and the learners. Also, important to note is the fact that the power that teachers, administrators, and learners over the process vary from teacher to teacher, school to school. Cause (2012: 60) suggests that in the process of recontextualisation, pedagogical identities are created.

Therefore, according to Bernstein (2000b:13), for the pedagogical identities to be successful, the regulative and instructional discourses of the school must be at play. The regulative discourse defines the rules of the social order while the instructional discourse creates specialised skills and relationship to each other. It defines the taught curriculum as well as the assessment practices of a school. The two-work hand in hand because they are intertwined to create pedagogic practices. What link the two are power relations, and the two can create conflicts in some case (Singh, 2002; Singh, Atweh & Shield, 2005).

While the recontextualising pedagogic field must do with the dome within the school, the official recontextualising field centres on the outside vault of the school. In this

case, it can be said that this is the government curriculum supremacy. The autonomy that ORF has over the practices of a school differs from government to government and nation to nation. At the same time, the degrees of PRF in schools largely depend on the strength of control of the ORF and how teachers and school managers interpret and implement ORF (Bernstein, 1990: 192). In this study, the ORF will be represented by the Ministry of General Education through the Curriculum Development Centre which determines what must be taught in secondary schools. While *Zambian Public Secondary Schools* serve the PRF. The notion of recontextualisation will be used in this study to answer the question of how history teachers in *Zambian Public Secondary schools* understand and implement the ORF, which is the curriculum in this case. Put simply how do teachers of history in *Zambian Public Secondary schools* understand and interpret the history official syllabus of the Ministry of General Education in their teaching/learning process.

2.7. Horizontal and Vertical Discourse

Another notion that will be adopted from Bernstein theory is that of horizontal and vertical discourse which are well explained in his paper ‘vertical and horizontal discourse: an essay’ Bernstein explains that discourse can be distinguished (Bernstein, 1999) between horizontal and the vertical. Morais (2016:2) points out that Bernstein’ model of pedagogic discourse helps us understand the what and the how of the teaching process in education.

Luckett (2012) informs us that Bernstein defines horizontal discourse as every day or common sense that comes due to a common problem. Bernstein (1999:159) tells us that horizontal discourse can also be said to be local knowledge. This kind of discourse can be supposed to be oral, local, context-dependent, specific, tacit, and multi-layered discourse. Bernstein’s concerns in this lens are to understand how discourse circulates in various forms. Under horizontal, segmental structured knowledge forms, there appears to be little relation between the knowledge acquired and mode of acquisition in one segment and the next. These segmental competencies also tend to be culturally localised. On the other hand, Bernstein (1999) suggests that

the vertical discourse as school or official knowledge. Vertical discourse is mainly characterised as a form of coherent, explicit, hierarchically organised structures. He added on to state that the, unlike the horizontal discourse, vertical discourse is a culturally specific segment but of specialised symbolic structures of explicit knowledge. In this study, the two discourses will be used to help understand how history teaches contextualises academic and non-academic forms of knowledge. In short, the horizontal and vertical discourse represents the principles of teaching from the known to the unknown in education. This notion of vertical and horizontal discourse will be used to examine what is it that learners already know that they bring to the history and how does it relate to what they learn in the classroom.

2.8. Why I chose to use Bernstein Theory

There are various reasons why I chose Bernstein's theory in understanding the teaching of history in Zambian Public Secondary Schools. Firstly, the theory is critical in understanding the fact that teaching of history is about power and control. I should state here that history is by nature a subject about power and control. Historical topics that are taught to learners for instance when we refer to Bantu Migration, we discuss the issues of kingship and power relations. History is about who dominates what and what relationships exist and how does that power influence social life. However, this studies as not only interested in the power that the subject matter contains but it focuses on power and control the transmitter (teacher) of the historical knowledge poses on the teaching processes in the classroom to the acquirer (pupil). As expressed by Michel Foucault 'power is a volatile, unstable and contested element hence power relations must be permanently renewed and reaffirmed'. Thus, power relations in Zambian public secondary schools vary from administration to administration and from teacher to teacher. The Bernstein's class, code and control theory provides a grammar for an analysis of how understanding is differently specialised and how various forms of message are produced and disseminated in a school setting. The code theory helped this study to examine clearly the reproduction of power in schools in the way content is classified and how interactions are framed in school settings in the teaching of history. In addition, the code theory is applied in

history methods in the classroom within the context of power control in the teaching and learning context.

This study borrows more of the notion of classification and framing from Bernstein's lens. Classification is concerned with the relation between the content and the curriculum. In a public secondary school, classification controls what teachers teach knowledge, skills, and discourses. This means, that classification can be regarded as the government's power over the curriculum through regulations such as policy (Mwanza 2016: 94). According to (Sadovnik, 2001) framing is the given classified levels and shows the distribution of control and power. In general terms, framing is how knowledge, skills, dispositions are taught and learned. It is important to note the notion of framing in this study relates to the control teachers and learners on what goes on in the classroom.

Besides, Bertram (2012) alludes to the fact that Bernstein's lens is unique in nature as they offer a vital tool for analysing the teaching of pupils in the classroom. The framework aids in describing the pedagogical practices produced in education because of inequalities. The distinction between power and control, unique in the discipline of sociology allows for the description of making (power and the potential unmaking (control) of the social reproduction of inequality. The Zambian Public Secondary Schools are not free from the inequalities in education, and thus the framework will help to better understand the history curriculum. It must be stated that Bernstein framework is an excellent contribution to this present study as it focuses on how historical knowledge is transmitted and received in the classroom. Mwanza (2016:93) contends that the teaching/learning process at any school does not take place in a vacuum. Thus, teaching/ learning processes are affected by many variables such as government policies, syllabus, training institutions and communities that are surrounding them. Furthermore, this study draws from Bernstein's work because it is critical in identifying and explaining pedagogical changes in education in Zambia. Above all his work aids in understanding a discipline that has been neglected and not well researched in Zambia. History education has received little or no

attention from scholars, and thus Bernstein's work will help a great deal to examine the teaching of history in Zambia. I hope that the work of Bernstein will complement a more detailed form of analysis and help to understand the transformation of knowledge in a history classroom. Using the words of Bernstein (1996: 37), he states that:

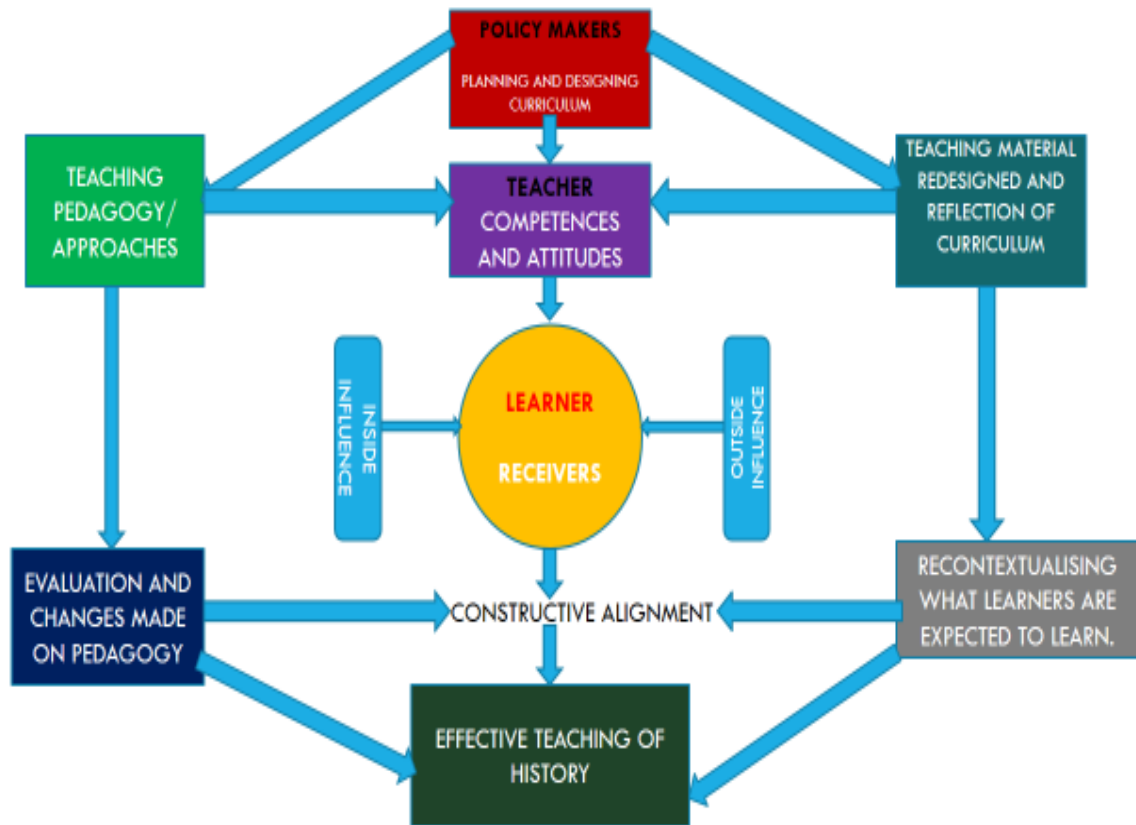
I have developed a model for showing how the distribution of power and principles of control translate into pedagogic codes and their modalities. I have also shown how these codes are acquired and so shape consciousness. In this way, a connection has been made between macro structures of power and control and the micro process of the formation of pedagogic consciousness.

As observed by Morasis (2006: 1) Bernstein's work inspired several generations of researchers, educators, and students all over the world. This study is one of a kind inspired by his work. Furthermore, the review of the literature (Mwanza, 2015, Namangolwa 2013, Chabatama 2010) suggests that although a number of scholars in Zambia have examined pedagogical relationships in the teaching/learning process as a critical factor for effective outcomes in the classroom, Bernstein's theory (1971, 1975, 1990, & 2000) has never been used in an integrated way to guide the analysis of pedagogical practices in academic achievement in a history classroom in Zambian Public Secondary Schools. As such this study will critically analyze the applicability of Bernstein's notion of framing and control, in a Public School set up. Using Bernstein's lens, this study problematised the teaching of history in Zambian Public Schools by critically analyzing the levels of framing; selection, sequencing, pacing, criteria, and control. Using Framing, the study intends to examine some of how history teachers in Zambian public schools inculcate historical knowledge to learners.

2.9. Conceptual Framework

The following were the primary variables in this study and have a bearing on the achievement of inclusive participation in curricula development and implementation as indicated in figure 1 below. The figure illustrates. Conceptual Framework Based on Basil Bernstein Theory.

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework



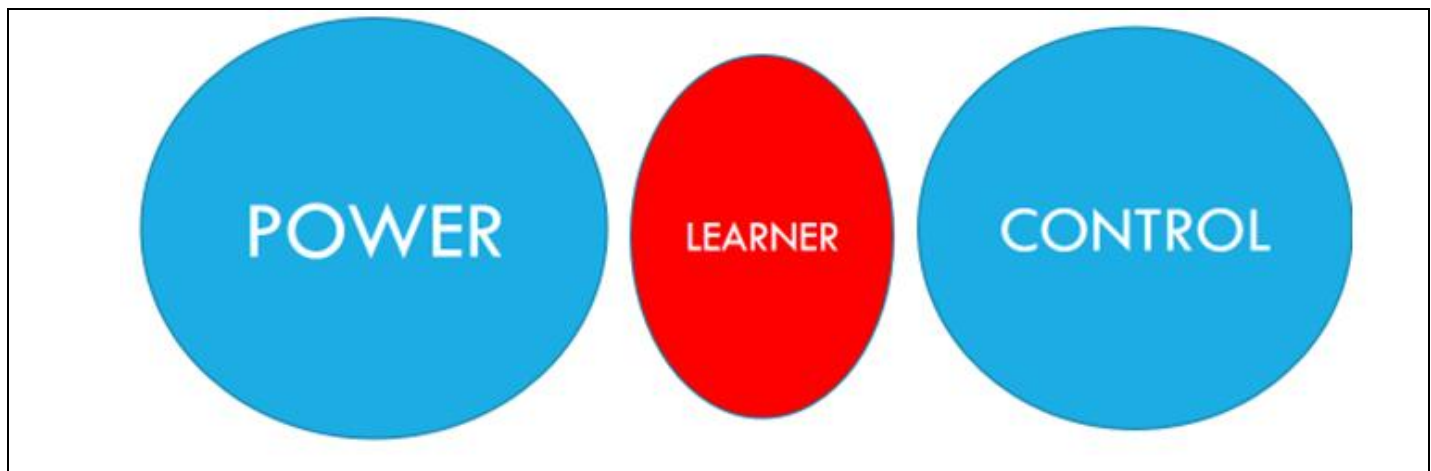
Source: Constructed by researcher from the study

Effective teaching of history from this conceptual framework can be understood from various sides. Firstly, that it is the policymakers from curriculum planning and designs that will influence how and what the teachers will teach. A policy will also affect the teaching materials and teaching pedagogy and approaches that teachers use to recontextualize what learners need to learn. Secondary school teachers are the direct implementers of the curriculum and must be part and parcel of policy-making process (Mwanza, 2017:8) According to Cause (2012:64) when teachers decide on how, when and what to teach learners in a given subject they help form learners' identities. Teachers will thus be required to have and create a balance at the constructive alignment stage on how and what pupils must be taught. However, based on the competencies and attitudes that teachers also have there can be an existence of conflict in the roles of the teacher between policy and the functions of a teacher. At the centre of

all these variables is the learner, who is the acquirer of the historical knowledge in the whole process. The learner is or can be influenced by out and inside stimulus that surrounds them. Hence the learner is between the power and the control relations processes and must make sense of what is brought to the classroom. See below for more detail.

Figure 2 below shows that learners in the classroom in their learning process are faced with a challenge of power and control relations. The level and extent to which the two affects the learners' outcomes in the lesson. The power and control relations affect the learning of the learners for instance in Zambia government policy on progression of all grades 7 pupils to grade 8 may have an effect on their performance at grade 9 which later affects their grade 12 results. It is a well fact that if a learner does not perform well at a given level, there is a high possibility that their performance may not be good as they further their studies.

Figure 2: Power Relations



Source: Ideal drawn from Bernstein

2.10. Summary

In summary, the chapter has delineated various ideas from Bernstein's code and pedagogical discourse theory, concepts of classification and framing, horizontal and

vertical discourse, reconceptualization used in the study. The theory will later be used to analyse how teachers apply various methods in the classroom within the context of power and control in the teaching and learning situation in selected secondary schools in Zambian Public Secondary schools. The chapter has situated my study within Bernstein's' notion of power and control in relation to the teaching of history. Thus, there are significant questions that this study attempts to answer regarding how, and how various stakeholders, such as policy makers, teachers and learners frame the teaching of history in Zambian public secondary schools. It is essential to examine the experiences because they can help us indicate the various gaps that exist in the pedagogical process of teaching history at secondary level.

CHAPTER THREE: LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1. Overview

This chapter explores related literature around the globe within history education. The chapter scrutinises history teaching and how it affects learners' education achievements. History teaching serves an important concept of my study area and thus a critical review of literature shows that there is a gap on teacher preparedness and curriculum implementation comparative analysis. A review of studies on various ideologies shows that various countries follow different approaches which are basically influenced by political changes of a given country. It also explores the pedagogical approaches teachers use to enhance effective teaching of history around the globe. The chapter will be concluded with the research gap followed by a summary.

3.2. The Purpose of History Teaching

History, as a term, refers not only to what happened in the past but also to the account of the past events, situations, processes etc. As one of the disciplines among social sciences, history represents accounts of multilayered and multifaceted human experiences across time and space. Historians try to explain what happened in the past by processing primary sources through such historical procedures and skills as selecting a topic, framing questions or hypotheses, documenting sources, gathering, and weighing evidence, building a thesis about the object of the study under investigation, and substantiating the thesis on the basis of logical reasoning, evidential argument, and imaginative thinking or historical empathy (Barton & Levstik, 2004).

Teachers of history desire to excite and engage students in the learning of history. In order to enhance engagement and active learning of history Dynneson and Gross (1999) note that teachers have to conceptually organise their history lessons from very different perspectives as history is a very complex arena of knowledge that requires domain-specific thinking skills. In addition, history intersects with every

knowledge system and leads to the conversion of historical thinking skills into other dimensions of knowledge, like the historical chronological development of math, science, religion, and language (Cowgill & Waring, 2017). In as much as other knowledge systems, like theology utilise historical thinking skills because they themselves are historical, historical thinking abilities are the essence of history (Drake & Nelson, 2009). Accordingly, Drake and Nelson (2009) further note that the historical thinking skill of cause and effect and continuity or change is applicable to many of the other domains. In an applicable environment, teachers of history need to know the purpose of history and “teach” it to the educational level of which the pupils are learning history.

History teachers need to have a thorough understanding of the nature of history as a domain of knowledge because epistemological beliefs affect not only their approaches to reading and understanding historical texts but also their instructional practices (Wineburg, 2001). If teachers lack an adequate understanding of the conceptual foundations of the subject they teach, they are likely to misrepresent content by simplifying it. Similarly, Matthews (1998) argues that if teachers are to make effective curricular decisions in enhancing a deeper student engagement with the subject, they should have well-developed conceptions of the nature of their subject area. On the other hand, Yilmaz (2008) acknowledges the need for protecting students from political manipulations of different interest groups in order to facilitate a satisfactory understanding of the nature of history on the teachers’ part. There are two sharply contrasting perspectives on the nature of historical knowledge. These are idealist and scientific views of history. While historians, who stick to the former view history as an art, are called idealist or autonomist, those historians who advocate the latter perspective, who see history as a science, are called scientist. Thus there is need to embrace a holistic approach rather than a dualist approach, thereby presenting perspectives of “idealist” and “scientist” historians, two ends of the continuum of historical tradition.

The past itself or historical data do not have meaning in themselves. The past is composed of countless numbers of disconnected historical facts. As such, it is

formless and gains meaning and form only through the historian's ability to imagine and to see the past events and situations from the viewpoints of historical agents. Imagination plays a big role in establishing the relationship between disconnected historical facts. Linking a given event to its context or detecting a given historical process demands thoughtful imagination. Thus, history show us the process of development in the society where we live, the progress of laws, manners, customs, religion, our ideas and so on, which process changes according to human needs in the communities. Continuity of the progress and development of humans in society is a big reality that history can teach for humans to improve their understanding. Therefore, without the ideas of progress and evolution, it is difficult to study history. Accordingly, history is not just transformation of content to students rather history teachers should convince children about values and inform them what history can do, that the other subjects cannot.

Therefore, historian attempt to understand the past by viewing historical events within their contexts, through the eyes of the past people. The historian thinks himself or herself into the thoughts, motivations, values, beliefs, and actions of his or her historical agents to be able to discern how historical events developed. This means that there is not a single correct view of any historical event or process under study, but there are many equally plausible versions or correct views, each requiring its own style of representation via narrative plot structures (Jenkins, 1999, 2003, Ankersmit, 2001).

It is the very nature of historical knowledge itself that demands not a single but multiple views of the past. Any given event in the past is open to equally correct multiple interpretations. This is because historical knowledge is not value-free but subjective as well as theory laden, and thus it inevitably reflects a point of view. Other reasons for the equally plausible multiple interpretations of the past also stem from the nature of historical knowledge, which can be summarized as follows:

the historian's frame of reference, race, ethnicity, disciplinary orientations, and so forth result in the construction of different

explanations about the past events; innovative conceptual frameworks or movements in historiography keep the interpretation of the past changing (i.e., the same historical event can be interpreted from a feminist, cultural, sociological, socialist, Marxist, postmodern, linguistic points of view, and so on (Yilmaz, 2008).

That is, conceptual frameworks for thinking about history produce differing interpretations of the past events, each bringing certain historical concepts and forces to the fore in the analysis of the past such as the concept of gender in the case of feminist approach to the past and mode of productions and social conflicts among classes in the case of Marxist or materialist view of history): the use of language, narrative plot structures, literary tropes and verbal structures affect the historian's thoughts and perceptions and thus ultimately shape his or her attempt to construct historical knowledge; and social and cultural climate of the era in which the historian lives affects his or her explanations of past events, people, processes, and institutions (Yilmaz, 2008: 161). The perspective on historical knowledge or the way historical explanations come into being is guided, to a great extent, by the principles of the linguistic or discursive turn in history. The works of Hayden White, Keith Jenkins, Frank Ankersmit, and Sol Cohen, all of whom are the practitioners of the discursive approach to history, have an impact on this view of history. The linguistic turn with a postmodernist twist postulates that a historical account of any event or process is constrained by the historian's background, conventions of language, genre, and mode of employment, argument, and cultural or social contextual issues.

Historians are affected by the ideology of their times and cannot get rid of their sex, class, ethnicity, or cultural background and so on. The historians' exposure to a particular culture during a particular period influence not only their conceptual frameworks but also their selection of the object of the study and interpretation of it. That is, historians' subjectivity, academic training, philosophical outlook, theoretical orientations, ideological positions, and socio-cultural backgrounds inevitably come into play in shaping their explanations of the past. As Cohen (1999) argued, historians

purposefully attempt to persuade their audience with some sociopolitical or ideological aim in mind. By means of rhetorical conventions and strategies, historians intend to persuade readers that their account of the past is truer, more objective, and worthier than another version and this in turn leads readers to develop a particular attitude toward the past and the present and to take particular courses of action in the present (Cohen, 1999: 69).

Subsequently, if the teacher has not yet built a strong sense of why history is taught, he or she is unlikely to make reasoned and informed decisions about planning, implementing, and assessing history curriculum and instruction. Hence, history teachers should have a clear conception of what purposes history should serve in the culture and society in which they live. Because of the centrality of such awareness to the teaching and learning of history, the most important goals and purposes of history education and history teaching needs to be viewed from a broader perspective (Yilmaz, 2008). More specifically, Yilmaz (2008) posits that students are expected to identify and act upon societal problems of different sorts for the common and individual good. Students' attainment of those expectations depends, to a large extent, on the historical skill of critically evaluating not only information but also the logical and evidential bases of an argument or a thesis. Students need to be acquainted with the historical methodology to help facilitate the effective decision-making skills needed in life outside the classroom walls. To that end, school history should be aimed at developing students' historical thinking and reasoning skills by providing them with historical knowledge, procedures, and skills, by means of which they as young citizens can distinguish facts from opinions; detect biases, prejudices, and unwarranted claims; weigh contrasting evidence; recognise the core of one's argument and its logic along with the strength of evidence; and critically evaluate other's positions and perspectives.

Once students' historical thinking skills – which are applicable and transferable to everyday affairs and problems - are developed and enhanced, students are likely to recognize when they are exploited and manipulated by certain interest groups. School history, therefore, first and foremost should teach students how to approach and use

historical information critically from multiple perspectives. It should increase students' capacity to view the past from different angles rather than impose a certain perspective on students. History teaching should change students' conceptions of history by encouraging them to identify and act upon the most important historical questions about the past. In other words, history instruction should not treat historical knowledge as an end in itself but as a means to increase students' ability to understand complex human experiences across time and space. The ultimate goal of teaching history should be to help students enlarge their understanding of the increasingly interdependent social world and their place in it (Yilmaz, 2009).

History should not be used as a means to socialise students of different ethnic and socio-economic backgrounds into the mainstream or the dominant group's world view and culture by transmitting that privileged group's cultural norms and values to students (i.e., history as a tool for cultural transmission). Rather, history should be used to help students not only recognise their own cultural roots, identity, and heritage, but also gain insight into other people's cultures and world views (Yilmaz, 2009). Hence, school history should instill in students' recognition of cultural pluralism and tolerant attitudes toward different ethnic groups. Likewise, it should help students sharpen their awareness of the Eurocentric or ethnocentric views of the past. However, Van Hover and Hicks (2004) assess the status of history teachers in line with initial preparation and professional development in the United States of America and in the international context. They contend that there was no clear, shared conception of what history education ought to be and rarely linked to students' learning in history classrooms. Furthermore, it is also rarely linked to fostering partnerships with teachers and other stakeholders involved in education delivery. Husbands (2017) in his works "What do history teachers (need to) know: A framework for understanding and developing practice" points out that understanding of procedural knowledge is key for comprehending and teaching history. In a similar study Husbands, Kitson and Pendry (2003) view teachers as responsible actors in their work and thus teacher knowledge is key for educational achievements.

3.3. Global Context of Secondary history Curriculum Ideologies

This section deals with various studies from selected countries around the world on transformation of various ideologies governing history education. Literature on ideologies surrounding history curriculum offer a critical and holistic contrast of the kind of history taught in a given country. Ideologies play a fundamental role in education as they shape policy choices. Despite, its prominent role in education, scholarship on curriculum ideology there need for future research between policy and implementation in order to determine the outcome. Thus, I explore related literature on various history curriculums. Recently, there has been a shift in the scholarly discussion in history education and the new transformation is on school history ideologies. Bantovato (2017) observes that there has been a number of prominent changes in the most recent rounds of curriculum revision in most countries around the World. There has been a scholarly debate on the meaning of ideology. Some scholars (Leinonen, 2001; Laursen, 2006; Martin, 2015) relate ideology to legitimate power of a social group or class. The Oxford Research Encyclopaedia (2020), on the other hand, defines ideology as a system of ideas and ideals especially one which forms the basis of economic and political theory and policy. This study adopts Leinonen's (2001: 12) definition of educational ideology refer to specific and systematic set of ideas and beliefs of some social groups, governments or non – government, considering the purpose and meaning of education in society. Most school history is based on ideological approaches characterised by political, economic, cultural, and national-building (Zajda & Whitehouse, 2009; Nescorlarde-Selva, Uso-Domuech & Gash, 2016). This discourse is important in order to understand the various experiences on history education. In addition, it will help the researcher to have a clear historical analysis on the best pedagogical practices that can aid in improving the current status of history in Zambian secondary schools particularly in Lusaka district.

The path taken in the United States of America in teaching history is a disciplinary approach which mainly is anchored on historical inquiry approach to learning

(Hawkey, 2015). According to Bertram (2019) inquiry approach deals with procedural and substantive knowledge. She further notes that substantive knowledge (Historical knowledge) which is what happens when and why. In general terms, substantive knowledge is content of History or subject matter. On the other hand, procedural knowledge emphasises on the vocabulary and concepts (Lovesque, 2018, Chapman, 2017). In the words of Saks, Ilves and Noppel (2021:2) procedural knowledge (Practical Knowledge or knowing how) involves an individual's skills and ability to accomplish an activity using certain strategies.

Therefore, the United States of America's education is deeply rooted in tradition, particularly within disciplines that help shape the cultural and political identity of nations. For most American schools, the history curriculum is categorised into two. The first category looks at the United States as a separate entity whereas the second category looks at the rest of the world. Thus, teaching of History in the USA is often organized by nations or continents in a way that keeps courses on the United States separate from the others. These courses usually assume a distinctive national experience without testing that premise or integrating the American story into larger world patterns. This separation of national from world history stems partly from the special civic agenda that teaches of American history about the nation's history and to instil in them a sense of national pride and civic responsibility (Guarneri & Davis, 2008).

Guarneri and Davis (2008) further state that the divided history curriculum in the United States of America reflects and reinforces the mythic ideas about American national uniqueness and separateness that have deep roots in its own culture. The idea that Americans have built a unique nation with a special destiny has been voiced in so many ways by politicians, preachers, and teachers that it has become part of the worldwide norm. However, the United States does not exist apart from events and trends in the larger world, and it never has. Therefore, to be accurate, America's history must be told with these global connections and impacts in mind, highlighting the global context of American nation building. These experiences link America's history to those of other settler colonies, industrialised nations, and multi-ethnic

societies, opening up opportunities to explore family resemblances and to construct thoughtful comparisons that can replace simplistic dichotomies between and among societies. Equally Grotenhuis (2016) observes that the approach to national building should be based on the capacity of people to handle multiple identities that are not necessarily contradictory but reflect the complexity of the contexts that they live in. The further notes that national identity must be an on – going process of change and adaptation. This is because it links to social construction, which is a basis for people to interact and exchange ideas.

Tsyrlina-Spady and Lovorn (2015) state that, the United States' History education has been used as a political tool for decades. The U.S. uses history classrooms to instil various political and national building ideologies through history textbooks and curriculum that have come under fire by politically motivated groups especially those groups representing the far right. On the other hand, the right-wing politicians in states such as Oklahoma and Georgia have tried to inhibit the teaching and learning of History in their states by cutting or even eliminating funding for public school history education because of their belief that History has a liberal bias. The right-wing politicians, therefore, tend to emphasize negative aspects of the U.S' history while leaving out positive aspects of it.

The experience of the school history ideology governing Russia is a unique one that represents an ideology of historical narratives, blending certain aspects of soviet and Russian historiography. In addition, the history curriculum aims at developing a learner with a common identity, patriotism, nation-building and citizenship education, a positive-affirmation of the country (Zajda, 2013). Since the textbooks used in school history are produced by the state, most of the content is aliened to national building. This in short means that the history teachers must be well informed of the various conceptual changes that are in line with policies by government.

Tsyrlina-Spady and Lovorn (2015) indicate that the Russian history textbooks and curriculum are designed to develop students' senses of belonging and feelings of pride as emerging citizens of a strong and robust state. Tsyrlina-Spady and Lovorn

(2015) further state that, Russian history textbooks and curriculum were in accordance with the Russian curriculum standards (2009-2012) and also reaffirmed by the 2014 Concept of a New Instructional-Methodological Set for Teaching History. Therefore, the main objectives of History in the Russian education system can be seen as that which is shaping students in the spirit of patriotism and respect towards their homeland: a multinational Russian state. Zajda (2015) suggests that teachers must demonstrate that they understand the definite ideological shift in the interpretation of historical narratives and the events under study. This means understanding the content in the approved textbooks by the Ministry of Education to be an effective teacher. This kind of approach may have consequences such teachers teaching for examination purposes where learners' performance is the main goal. Cytrin (2018) contents that, the other danger is that of ideologically biased training and indoctrinating teaching which in most cases contradicts with critical scientific historical inquiry.

A study by Masooa and Twala (2014) in their study 'the teaching of South African History in the Post-Apartheid Era: Towards critical and epistemological criticisms' note that since 1994, the South African education system has restructured itself on the ideology of equity, human rights, democracy, and sustainable social development. They observe that South Africa since the apartheid era has faced a number of challenges in the teaching of history such as balancing the teaching content taught in schools, the discontinuation of subject and how to teach contemporary history. As a result, in 2005 a new curriculum was introduced called C2005 which placed history in the broader category of the social sciences of geography and historical facts (Bbot, 2008). This new approach to teaching History is based on the competences of the learners in order to suit the changing educational needs.

A similar study was conducted by Peterson and Sieborger (2006) which revealed that the education system in South Africa could be understood from the legal and philosophic foundation of the country based on democracy, equality, opportunity, and non-racialism. During the apartheid era the history taught in the country was ideologically linked to the apartheid regime. However, as alluded by scholars such as

De Wet and Wolhuter (2009) the current transformation of education in South Africa plays itself out within the societal framework of the ruling party's (ANC) ideology of the national democratic revolution which basically addresses the legacies of the past. Bertram (2019) analysed the South African curriculum documents and observes that history taught in schools is centred on a disciplinary approach to school history. The disciplinary helps teachers and learners to engage in historical inquire based on evidence, critical sources, and clear interpretation of knowledge. Peterson and Sieborger (2006) allude to the fact that there has been a great change and transformation on the ideology underpinning the school history in South Africa. The history taught in schools was a result of this construction and was ideologically and politically linked to the apartheid regime. However, in the post-apartheid period the focus is on national reconciliation and unity, and the teacher as a centre of public memory and change.

The Rwandan approach to the teaching/learning of history is bases on the ideological notion of school history as an act to serve political and socialisation purpose. This ideology is mainly aimed at inculcating learners with values and norms of peace, rights, equality, and a sense of being to a nation. Freedman, Weinstein, Murphy, and Longman (2008) analysed the teaching of history in Rwanda. In response to the educational challenges faced in Rwanda, they explore the link between politics and teaching history. They articulate that school history in Rwanda is grounded on two ideological principles. First and foremost, the principle on government's political goal of teaching history to promote a unified Rwandan identity and secondly, the teaching of history to shape this new identity. In a similar study conducted by Bentrovato (2015) entitled 'Narrating and teaching the nation: The politics of Education in Pre- and Post-Genocide Rwanda' argues that there is need for through reform of history education in Rwandan schools in order to better fulfil the promised role of schools as tools of social cohesion and reconciliation. This means that there must be a revision in the historical textbooks used in schools in that they need to be more factual and inclusive to promote a curriculum that is democratic and peace oriented. She further argues that 'In order for curriculum and textbook revision to be genuinely inclusive

and allow the required democratisation of education in Rwanda, a discursive liberalization is a prerequisite, which would allow a critical examination of dissenting views as opposed to the imposition of what some observers have criticised as an elusive consensus created by current authorities' (p. 219). Further research by Bantrotovato and Schulze (2016) and Bantrotovato (2015) highlight that regardless of the circumstances that History is taught, for instance, in the aftermath of violence and reconciliation through education is the basis for a vision for a common future. Therefore, History education plays in understanding the ideology of reconciliation, promotion of democracy and peace building cannot be undermined in this case in Rwanda.

Zimbabwe, just like South Africa and Zambia, experienced waves of curriculum changes. In Zimbabwe the history curriculum being used is the Ordinary Level (O level) which is general a combination of African and non- African history (Sibanda & Blignaut, 2020). The ideological principle underpinning history curriculum in Zimbabwe is transformational ideas of equality, freedom, national consciousness, and improved outcomes. Unlike the colonial British Eurocentric approach which did not reflect an ideology centred on the interests of the state the new history curriculum focuses on critical thinking rather than memorization and the traditional methods of teaching (Matereke, 2012). This school history was replaced by 'syllabus 2167' which was focuses on content knowledge, patriotism, and national consciousness (Ndlovu-Gatsheni 2013, Tendi, 2010). In 2015 a new approach based on outcomes was introduced in order to enhance historical reform and skills. This new approach encourages teachers to teach factually and to be more critical. However, Mupa and Chinooneka (2015) argue that most teachers in Zimbabwe fail to employ a variety of teaching methods in their teaching. The challenges in the education sector in Zimbabwe include failure to engage learners in patriotism, political involvement in curriculum process and lack of critical thinking for learners (Clerk: 2009, Sibanda: 2019, Tawanda, 2018). Similarly, Moyo and Modiba (2013) point out that the history curriculum of Zimbabwe is mainly bases on the production of subjectivity and identify in order to lead to nationhood. The content selection is skewed towards promoting a dominant group while syntactic knowledge is manipulated to make

students be what the state wants them to think and be. Therefore, it is clear that the Zimbabwean history curriculum is centred on providing a student with a powerful nationalist identity and in order to achieve it a critical pedagogic practice approach needs to be used (Barnes, 2007, Moyo & Modiba, 2013).

According to the MoE (2015), the major goal of teaching History in Zambian secondary schools to ensure that learners acquire and interpret historical events and apply them to real life situations. The ideological approach used to teach school history in Zambian secondary schools is based on national building, democracy and is skill based. As noted by Kelly (1996) the education system in Zambia has undergone changes from education which was much rooted in the British colonial system. Zambia, like Zimbabwe and other British colonises, inherited a British system of education that was segregated in nature. Similarly, Mwanza (2018) points out that at the time of independence in 1964, Zambia inherited a small and racially segregated educational system from the British. Consequently, the newly independent nation needed to embark on an expansion of education provision in order reduce racial segregation, fight inequities as well as create an educated workforce for the nation.

Correspondingly, Leinonen (2001) points out that in the early years of independence, the Zambian educational system was based on the state's ideology of Socialistic Humanism. Thus, education was anchored on national and economic development. However, due to the economic crises, there was a shift in the 1990s in the ideological approach as the educational and political situation changed. Furthermore, there was a change around the world from the socialistic ideology to that of a belief in capitalism coupled with liberal democracy. Zambia has undergone two educational curriculum reforms. The first and foremost, content-based curriculum and the outcome-based education (CDC, 2015). The outcome-based approach focuses on a skills, values, and attitudes of learners (Mulenga & Kabombwe, 2019). In a similar study Kabombwe, Machila and Sikayomya (2021) found that there was no difference between the content-based education and the outcome-based education in Zambian secondary school history examination papers as both focused on lower order thinking skills

instead of the higher order skills. Hence, there is need to ensure that pupils are well taught, and the examination must be able to a higher level of analysis in order to be meaningful enough.

3.4. Effective Lesson Preparation by History Teachers

In Zambia, teachers seem to have a major responsibility in adapting the curriculum to meet the needs of the pupils. Also, the Basic School Curriculum Framework (MOE, 2000) and the Teacher's Curriculum Manual (MOE, 2001) place the responsibility for adapting the goals and the teaching methods in order to suit the pupils' strengths and weaknesses on the teacher. The education system in Zambia had it clear through the Educational Reforms of 1977 that the teacher education curriculum should produce a teacher who is well prepared in the subject matter and in the methods of teaching in relation to what was relevant for schools. Thus, it was clear in the minds of those who were behind these reforms that in order to have a well-prepared teacher, there was need to design a curriculum which was relevant to what was obtaining in schools.

The Focus on Learning gives general guidelines about the expected quality of teachers graduating from colleges and universities. Focus on Learning states that the quality of Zambia's schools reflects the quality of the teachers manning these schools, while the quality of the teachers reflects the effectiveness of the institutions that trained them (MoE, 1992). As such, the programme for teacher education, therefore, must be kept under constant review to ensure that it responds to the real needs of Zambia's schools (MoE, 1992:97). In the 1992 education policy document *Focus on Learning* in Zambia was expected to be designed in such a way that it would prepare teachers with knowledge and skills that were relevant to their job description in their different subject areas. In 1996 a new policy document on education known as *Educating Our Future: National Policy on Education* was issued. Regarding teacher education it was recognized that: The quality and effectiveness of an education system depend heavily on the quality of its teachers. They are the key persons in determining success in meeting the system's goals. The educational and personal

well-being of pupils in schools' hinges crucially on their competence, commitment, and resourcefulness (MoE, 1996:107).

The Ministry of Education through this policy advocated that essential competencies that are required in every teacher are mastery of the material that is to be taught and the skill in communicating that knowledge and skills to learners. Therefore, quality teacher education was emphasised. However, the extent to which teacher education reforms have been implemented over the years in view of the quality of teachers graduating from universities and colleges of education has raised concern among Zambian scholars (Banja, 2012, Chabatama, 2012; Manchishi & Masaiti, 2011, Manchishi, 2004). These scholars have all seriously questioned the quality of the products of the Teacher Education curriculum from the universities and colleges of education in terms of the knowledge and skills that they possess for teaching.

The teaching of History can be a challenging experience due to the abstract nature of the subject. The abstractness lies in the fact that events in the past cannot be reproduced and re-examined for authenticity, and motives for which actions were taken are not open to physical examination and scrutiny. As such, Taylor and Young (2003) contend that History is a complex task encompassing the transformation of the subject matter into a form that enables learners to gain meaning, while at the same time retaining the integrity of the subject. It is for this reason Aggarwal (as cited in Ghansah, 2009) notes that the teaching of History for that matter requires more ingenuity from teachers as the subject demands well prepared conscientious teachers of sound knowledge. Again, teachers of History need to possess a sound professional training in the theory and art of teaching and assessing the learning outcomes of students so as to equip students with the "intellectual toolkit that will allow them to make connections with the past and make informed decisions about their lives in the present and in the future" (Taylor & Young, 2003:177).

Furthermore, History teachers should understand the substantive and syntactic dimensions of history as a discipline. They need to know both the historical knowledge, the structure of the discipline, and the inquiry methods used by historians,

i.e., constructing historical explanations by processing historical information via historical research. An understanding of what it means to know and to do history is essential for history teachers to see which knowledge, concepts, skills, and values are of foremost importance to students in their learning (Yilmaz, 2008). Nevertheless, having a command of the substantive and syntactic components of history is a necessary but not a sufficient condition for effective history instruction. The fact that a teacher is well-trained in the discipline of history does not mean or guarantee that he or she can effectively engage students in the subject. There is another type of knowledge that history teachers should have if their instruction is to successfully realize the goals of schooling in general and the goals of history teaching in particular. It is generic and subject-specific pedagogical knowledge that helps the teacher transform the subject matter knowledge into effective learning experiences for students.

According to Yilmaz (2008), History teachers should be familiar with the recent shift in the perspective on what learning is and how it occurs and then design their instruction accordingly. From the constructivist perspective, learning is an active process of constructing understanding and meaning by linking new information about a topic with what is already known, previously acquired knowledge and experiences. This view of learning requires that instruction be designed from the perspective of the learner rather than the perspective of the teacher. Because it is cognitive and constructivist learning theories that emphasize the learner and the construction of knowledge, history teachers are expected to draw on these learning theories, rather than the old-fashioned behaviorist approach, to develop their repertoire of instructional practices. Teaching models based on the concept of learner-centeredness which grows out of constructivist learning theories, therefore, should characterize history instruction.

OECD (2013:23) states that teachers need knowledge and skills that will assist their learners to attain learning outcomes that are clearly defined. Darling-Hammond, Hyler, and Gardner (2017:1) underscore that sophisticated teaching is required to develop 21st century student capabilities, like in-depth mastery of difficult content,

thinking critically, dealing with complicated problems, and efficiency in communication and collaboration; hence, the need for teachers to acquire and improve pedagogies that are needed to deliver these skills. Moreover, Victoria (2014:9) agrees that teacher effectiveness includes appreciation that every learner is capable of learning; individualized teaching to ensure that every student's needs are met, focusing on meaning and comprehension instead of merely completing assignments; emphasis on powerful formative assessment; and facilitating students' active participation in learning.

3.4.1. Attitudes of Teaching and Learning history

David and Cheruiyot's (2016) indicates that attitude is central to the education process. They further note that, attitude can either promote or inhibit students' behavior related to students' choices to attend, respond, value, participate or make commitment to educational activities. This coincides with Richardson in Sikula (1996), who points out that attitudes are important in understanding teachers and learners' thoughts, classroom processes, practices, and changes. Richardson in Sikula (1996: 3) further defines attitudes as a set of constructs that name, define and describe the structure and content of mental states are thought to drive a person's actions. Similarly, OECD (2019) defines attitudes as principles and beliefs that influence one's choices, judgements, behaviours, and actions on the path towards individual, societal and environmental well-being. Mukwasha (2018) also defines attitudes an orientation towards or tendency or predisposition to respond in a specific manner to stimuli, including people, objects, and situation. Mukwasha (2018) further indicates that attitudes can be seen as negative or positive thoughts, feelings, and actions towards something. Conceptualising the term attitude is normally explained in line with negative or positive thoughts that relate to objectives of a society. Although attitudes may at certain times directly be seen, the phenomenon may be identified through people's behaviours (Sert-Agir, 2019).

Recent debates about attitude of teachers and learners towards school history have drawn attention from historians and educators (Langat, 2015; Constantinescu, 2016;

Oroujlou, 2011, Wassermann, 2017). An exploratory analysis on school context, student attitudes, behaviour, and academic achievement by Akey (2006) points that, to achieve academic competency and learner engagement, attitudes play a vital role. Therefore, teachers must utilise critical approaches in keeping awake the learner's interest in the subject taught in order to ensure effective learning (Topala, 2014).

3.4.1.1. Attitudes of Learners towards History

Literature reviewed indicates history learners around the world have different perceptions towards history education. Black (2009) examined the attitudes black history educators and learners have held toward secondary school history education from 1948 to 2008, in particular the province of Mpumalanga. Black (2009) argued that while the history education offered to black learners in South Africa secondary schools during the apartheid era was unpopular largely due to its pro-government subject matter, post-apartheid secondary school education is in danger of becoming increasingly marginalized within the school curriculum as it cannot successfully compete with a modern, technological, and materialistically orientated society. Mukweshu (2018) examines the attitudes of history learners in history at secondary school level in Mount Darwin Rural district in Zimbabwe. Findings indicate that even though learners developed negative attitude towards history at secondary school level, they can be stimulated by effectively equipping the school with enough history material resources and use of interactive methodologies and parent involvement. A study by Joseph (2003) reveals that in order for students at the upper secondary-school level to engage in abstract and reflective thinking and to formulate perceptions of their own, the teachers need to recognise their potency and influences of the learners toward the subject.

In their study, Wassermann, Maposa and Mhlongo (2018) found out that learners in the rural area preferred sciences rather studying History because they believed that sciences were advantageous for their future prospects. Therefore, History was associated with learners who could not cope with science-based subjects such as mathematics, physical sciences, and commercial subjects. Learners had negative

attitude towards studying History as they linked it to job creation and economic benefit.

Arguably, Fru (2015) suggests that learners' conception of History can be changed by encouraging them to identify and interpret historical concepts through various instructions by the teacher. In this way, History should be used to help learners to understand and recognise their potential. David and Cheruiyot's (2016) study on attitudes of students towards the study of History in Kenya showed that most of the students had positive attitudes toward History and the government. However, the study attributes that the positive attitude to the subject did not lead to high performance due to lack of adequate teaching/resources in schools such as textbooks.

Daniel (2007) identifies the factors that inhibit pupils' attitude towards History learning to include the teaching methods, the teachers themselves, job opportunities, historical facts, and content. The study further notes that to change the learners' negative attitudes, teachers should avoid using lecture methods as it encourages passive learning as opposed to active learning. Therefore, whatever method is chosen, teachers need strong content knowledge to make challenging content understandable and to allow for ideas to be developed fully and coherently. Teachers need to weigh their options thoughtfully, making decisions about what methods and content best meet their goals and the needs of their students for a given unit of instruction.

3.4.1. 2. Attitudes of Teachers towards History

In their study, Adrews, McGlynn and Mycock (2009) established students' attitudes towards History related to the distinct factors: Traditional/conservative and multicultural/liberal. The regression results revealed a positive relationship between a strong sense of national identity and a traditional attitude towards History even when controlling the student's background characteristics. In addition, Fitzpatrick's (2018) study focused on a qualitative study on teaching and learning history in classroom contexts and observed that the teacher's purpose influenced how they taught and what students learned. The results of the study show that teachers need to use practical and conceptual tools to enhance learners understanding of historical concepts.

Ata (2017) reminds us that a positive attitude plays a critical role in learners' attitude towards the subject. However, the study also reviewed that teachers needed to improve on their teaching methods and techniques to ensure effective delivery of the lessons. Similarly, Kose (2017) argues that teachers use of methods and techniques in the classroom which influence the learner's attitude of the History lesson. Thus, he suggests that History teachers need training that increases awareness of their role in History teaching, incorporated with methodology and content knowledge. Gestsdóttir, Van Drie and Van Boxtel (2021) in their aim to give an insight into the beliefs that shape history teachers' orientations towards their subject and how they approach it, provide an insight into how beliefs about goals and strategies of history teaching play a role in teachers' inclinations towards teaching historical thinking and reasoning. Teacher beliefs are implicit to a certain degree.

Nyamwembe (2006) notes factors that lead to teachers' negative attitude towards History to include, among others, the broad and wide syllabus content, lack of teaching/learning resources and high teacher – pupil ratios. The findings in Voet & De Wever's (2016) study indicate that one of the important factors in teachers' attitudes towards teaching History is influenced by issues within the school context, such as the history curriculum, collegial interactions, or students' abilities. They, therefore, recommend that educational policies should be tailored towards creating an enabling environment that stimulates the teaching of historical reasoning skills, by organising specific professional development initiatives for passing on good practices to teachers, or by creating mentoring programmes within schools for teachers of History.

3.5. Pedagogical Practices utilised in Teaching History

Academic performance of learners and effective teaching are two main concerns of most history educators. A number of scholars argue that the teaching of history in secondary schools lacks teacher support to enhance tolerable contribution of critical pedagogical practices (Mwale, 2018, Moyo, 2014, Bertram, 2019, Machila, 2018). Similarly, Akyeampong et al (1999) argue that most 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 teaching. Further, Musawi (2014) notes that Afghanistan teachers have mostly used teacher-centred methods in educational process and students act as listeners. In addition, memorisation is an important part of understanding history and thus teachers force learners to learn history books, word for word. Literature review in Zambia shows that most history teachers not use learner-centred methods in their classroom (Namangolwa, 2013, Kabombwe, 2020, Machila et al, 2018). This is because most teachers do not use or actually fail to use appropriate teaching methods in their teaching. Machila et al (2018) observes that to achieve effective teaching, the choice of activity must be determined by the nature of the learning objectives and methods set for the lesson. There are various views on what constitutes a worthwhile method or pedagogy (Boadu, 2014, Young & Shaw, 1999). A number of studies have pointed out the importance of using critical pedagogies in the teaching of secondary school history (Shulman 1987, Tew, 2014, Hlungwani, 2022). Critical pedagogy is the notion that allows the teacher and the learner to extensively interact with various methods. In order to effectively teach any subject, there are a number of factors that one should take into consideration. One of the key considerations for effective teaching is that of pedagogy. In this study different methods of teaching are referred to as pedagogy. According to Mahaye (2000:210) a teaching method is a particular technique a teacher uses to help learners gain the knowledge they will need to achieve the desired outcome. Aggarwal (2013) defines method as a body of fixed and stereo-typed modes of procedures each applicable to its appropriate subject as a kind of ritual to be observed by all teachers, and in all circumstances. It must link up the teacher and his pupils into an organic relationship with constant mutual interaction.

According to Weiner (1995) most often history teaching has been reduced to a central textbook. A few studies (Chisholm 2013, Bertram & Wassermann, 2015) points that history textbook as a powerful source that helps transmit knowledge to learners. It is important to note that teachers cannot do without textbooks because they are the major secondary sources that contain historical content. Nevertheless, teachers must find better ways in which to deliver the historical content to their learners and one

such way is to use appropriate methods. History teaching methods can be grouped into two broad categories of teacher-centred and learner-centred teaching methods. Teaching methods such as lecture, teacher-led discussions and whole class discussions are categorized as teacher-centred methods while small group work, interactive discussions, primary source analysis, drama, role plays, and simulations represent learner-centred teaching methods (Maloy & LaRoche, 2010). By thinking critically about issues and by asking contentious questions, the pedagogical course will move beyond the mere knowing of History and consequently complex moral issues that transcend mere historical facts will be engaged with (Wassermann, 2014). Tew (2014) alludes to the fact that history teachers can follow both the thematic approach and the chronological approach. The thematic approach follows a pattern of topics clearly outlined in the learners' course outline while the chronological approach is guided by sequencing the topics in their occurrence. He alludes to the fact that regardless of the approach a teacher takes the most important component of the teaching in general is to ensure that it is engaging for the students.

There are a few methods that can be used to teach history. The oldest method of teaching history is the teacher exposition. Teacher exposition is sometimes referred to as the traditional method or lecture method. Teaching history in secondary schools is mostly based on teachers' lecture. The lecture method has been criticised by a few scholars for its focuses on teacher's knowledge and the teacher as a main facilitator in the teaching/learning processes. Afolabi (2018) notes that lecture method, though widely used in the Nigerian secondary school system, does not result in a noticeable change in attitudes held, and retention of learners' knowledge is very poor.

Regland (2007) advocates that another method for learning and teaching history that educational researchers have advocated is learning by "doing history". Doing history can be defined as works of historians for creating history based on research according to documents and existing artifacts. Therefore, doing history in the class can improve historical thinking skills, increase the engagement of students in history subjects and can help students practice history based on research (Ragland, 2007). In modern and high-quality schools, teachers create opportunities for students to think like history

teachers, and teachers doing history encourage them towards deep understanding. Teaching and learning history require methods and discipline-specific teaching practice and just by simple performance or general principle we cannot recognize the issue of history education. However, preparing a lesson plan can contribute effectively to history learning and teaching (Brown, 2009). One of the aspects of doing history is to engage students in activities in the class.

Young (2007) suggests group discussion in history teaching for more engagement. Group discussion can reinforce students to share and explore their ideas and deliver the content. Besides, all students participate in all activities during class discussion like reading, collecting information; they are engaged with ideas, and they can play the role of leader when they reflect their activity in the group or in the class. As a result, this situation helps students make friendly relation between themselves and teachers, promote students' participation in activities and increase the level of respecting the viewpoints of other students (Young, 2007). As well implementation, doing history requires historical thinking skills and content knowledge. Specifically, historical thinking skills can be different from the general model of critical thinking, and it follows according to the teaching plan. In studying history, there are needs for understanding the methods and paying attention to habits of mind, how we use themes, understanding the skills of historical thinking, writing the objectives and content standards that are part of tools and skills, and every history teacher needs to focus on these elements after considering the big ideas.

Equally, Brown (2009) emphasised students' discussion as it gives learners time for thinking. Otherwise, historical thinking is improved with use of historical films and going to museums for experiencing the historical events. Students in this situation become aware of what do the past look like and what does it mean. History teachers should make a distinction between historically significant and trivial events, to show whom and what important events affect environment and people across the time, like World War 1. For instance, those who are doing historical thinking can recognize these significant events or people according to their relationship with us in the present time. Seixas and Peck (2004) point out that epistemology and evidence is another

element of historical thinking to show which historical events are more warranted. Also, understanding the change is central to historical thinking based on assumption of continuity, progress and decline empathy, moral judgment, and historical agency, which show that historians' relations with power are related to elements of historical thinking for doing history.

Demonstration is another method that can be used to enhance effective teaching/learning in history. According to Cackov (2001:175), demonstration method is a process of planned, thoughtful and systematic setup in order to solve some subject phenomenon or process, and to acquire new knowledge from history teaching. Demonstration involves showing how something is done. Demonstration is classified as a learner-centred approach because it is an active learning method. It ensures that the learner through the guidance of the teacher, performs an activity as its main principle is focused on doing and practice. The method is usually accompanied with other approaches of teaching such as doing, showing, role play modelling, telling or explanation (Penda, Ndhlou & Kasonde-Ng'andu, 2015). Hussain (2020) dwells on the effects of demonstration method to improve the students' understanding of abstract concepts. The results of the study show that observation method is an effective method to improve the children's understanding regarding abstract concepts. The method enhances their proficiency, competency, receptivity and confidence.

Another method that history teachers can use to enhance teaching is the project method. The project method is derived from the educational ideas of John Dewey, who argues that education should not prepare a child for a future that is known but rather it should fit him rightly into society (Dewey, 1938, Williams, 2017). School history project is the systematic collection and evolution of information to describe, explain and understand events that occurred in the past. It is an attempt to reconstruct what happened during a certain period of time (Howell, 2003). Kolodziejski (2017) alludes to the fact that the application of the method in children's education has a great significance for their development as well as the act of knowledge acquisition and use. It helps learners to critically think and promotes social interaction and cooperation among the learners in the groups.

Question and answer method is intended to stimulate students' critical thinking and guidance during the lesson. Shanmugavelu (2020) points out that the method is vital in measuring the extent of understanding of the learners of the lesson. A teacher in this method may ask a series of questions to find out how many learners know about a topic and to determine what needs to be taught. Kochher (1992) points out that a teacher who never asks questions does not teach. Learners' questions make the perfect introduction and conclusion of a lesson. Simply put, question and answer method reveals everything necessary for pedagogical appreciation and invention (Yang, 2006).

Group work is another method that can be used by teachers to enhance effective teaching. This method encourages learners to work together and share knowledge. Burke (2011) observes that groups give more information than a single individual as they have a greater well of resources to tap and more information available. He highlights that one of the disadvantages of group work is that some members may rely too heavily on others to do the work. Group work may at times lead to members' not gaining satisfaction due to different viewpoints. Despite the demerits highlighted above, many studies show that effective student participation in group work is an important learning outcome for secondary schools.

Chesler and Fox (1966) point out that role play can be used to facilitate subject-matter learning through the dramatisation of literary and historical works. Role play provides learners with information vital for making evaluations of the subject matter. These scholars note that role play calls for a learner stepping outside the accustomed role that he plays in life, relinquishing his usual patterns of behaviour in exchange for the role and patterns of another person. In the context of our teaching, the purpose of role-play in the procedures course differs slightly from that of the theory course. A common aim of both is to train participants to think on their feet (Alkin & Christie, 2002). Somerville (2017) believes that role playing plays an indispensable part in human development and offers a unique opportunity for resolving interpersonal and social dilemmas.

Debate method is a form of communication either oral or written meant to transfer an idea or information. Debate can either be oral or in written as long as it can transmit the information intended. According to Najafi, Motaghi, Nasrabadi and Hesh (2016:212) the term debate means scratching and digging, it is a kind of dialogue to find an answer or solution. Davies (2011) states that debate method encourages critical reflection and aims to stimulate both novice and experienced teachers to think more deeply about their practice, and link research and evidence to what they have observed in schools. Apostu (2017) views debates from two perspectives, firstly from the perspective of the process, the debate is a structured way followed by the participants in order to confront their ideas; it has clear rules for organization and performance and in order to achieve the goal, the participants follow the default algorithm/path. Secondly, debate must be viewed in terms of content, the debate represents a resource for informing and structuring ideas for all participants and must influence opinions, beliefs and how things work.

3. 6. Learners' Performance

Pupils' performance is one of the key educational outcomes in any system of education, revealing the attainment of teachers', students', and schools' educational goals (Republic of Kenya, 2013). Therefore, poor performance points to the need for not only Zambia but all countries to work towards improving achievement of the intended educational outcomes in all subjects including History as a subject. Zambia's Education Mission Statement states that:

“to guide the provision of education for all Zambians so that they can pursue knowledge and skills, manifest excellence in performance and moral uprightness, defend democratic ideals, and accept and value other persons based on their personal worth and dignity, irrespective of gender, religion, ethnic origin, or any other discriminatory characteristic” (MESVTEE, 2014).

Therefore, learner performance is of utmost importance in the attainment of the educational goals in Zambia. This can be confirmed from Ko & Chung (2014), who advance that even if some scholars have objected to employing performance through

grading to determine the worth of education, the impossibility of using other kinds of assessment to arrive at a conclusion on the learning outcomes or pupil performance, over a specific time, means that almost every institution makes use of grades. This can also be confirmed from the Sixth National Development Plan where the quality of education in Zambia is said to have remained stagnantly low as revealed by poor performance of the pupils through test and examination results (MESVTEE, 2012).

Undeniably, Spady (1994) while commenting on American education, admits that learner performances and learning can serve as exit level outcomes that take account of today's realities which Americans anticipate will face adults of tomorrow. Learners should move through a series of progressively sophisticated learning outcomes (ONE, 1996). Teachers, therefore, must decide what must count as enabling learning outcomes (and therefore relevant in their context) capable of taking learners towards high quality and desirable learning outcomes.

Furthermore, educational institutions are mandated to use education as a tool for social transformation. The success of a school is measured by the quality of students it produces. The success of any educational institution is measured by the performance of its students in both academic and non-academic tests. This is supported by Yusuf (2008) who contends that the performance should not only be based in terms of test and examination results and student ability to apply what is learnt and the rate at which students move on to higher institution of learning but should include other areas such as whether the students have acquired the survival skills.

Despite that, the use of students' achievement in academic work to assess the teacher's effectiveness has gained ground. The measure of academic performance as a symbol of school success can be traced way back from the Victorian period (Bell, 2013). Since then, academic performance has been used to grade schools and most importantly to determine one's career paths. The 'good schools' are acclaimed to be those that can groom the students well enough to achieve the set standards. This is measured by use of students' academic performance both at school level and

nationally. The importance of students' high performance has attracted the attention of the public, policymakers, educators, learners, and Ministries for Education alike.

As DFE, quoted in Gray and Wilcox (1995) states "better information about schools is also important for raising the standards. For example, publishing tables which compare the performance of schools has encouraged many schools to take a hard look at examination results that their students achieve and how the school can help the pupils to do better." The level of students' performance has an impact on the roles played by education stakeholders. Students' achievement is influenced by several factors, primary among them being inadequate resources, low teachers' morale, teachers strike, lack of parental involvement, the new grading system, lack of teachers and students' preparedness for change, lack of teachers' incentives, students not serious with their schoolwork, poor leadership, the examination not addressing syllabi objectives and lack of support for homework (Molokomphale, 2014).

There is strong emphasis on the fact that the basic and traditional standard for measuring performance of a school is by looking at the academic results of learners i.e., whether children at various levels can score better learner outcomes in different subjects to qualify them to different higher levels. It is quite well known that Zambia's performance in national examinations at grades 7, 9 and 12 levels are mere averages in public schools and most private schools. Quality education is the hallmark of the MoGE in Zambia and resonating with and aligned to these philosophical / pedagogical conceptions, the vision of the Ministry of General Education (MoGE) is to provide, quality, lifelong education for all which is accessible, inclusive, and relevant to an individual, national, and global value systems (MoGE, 2019). Motifs of equity, accessibility, quality, relevance, inclusivity, lifelong learning, therefore, must be the guiding principles in developing any education system, platform, curriculum, intervention, or philosophy to sustain these fundamental blueprints for human and national development. Consequently, academic performance of learners is one of the most reliable indicators of quality education epitomising quality productive inputs and optimal resources utilisation.

Most psychological studies on learner performance argue that girls are weaker and less intelligent than boys in education. However, according to Ullah and Ullah (2019) the 20th century has seen a gender reversal change in performance as girls outperform the boys in most secondary schools. Conversely, numerous studies link the poor academic performance of learners to socio-economic problems, poverty, and politics (Engelbrecht et al. 1996, Cobbold & Oppong, 2010, Naylor & Sayed, 2014). Kapur (2018) identify poverty and illiteracy as serious barriers in learners' better academic performance. The problem of poverty is considered as one of the critical factors that hinder the academic performance of the students. When they do not possess the essential resources to enhance their learning, then they are unable to improve their grades as well, while the problem of illiteracy is also regarded as an impediment within the course of recognising the significance of education by parents/guardians (Kapur, 2018).

Moreover, the absence of professional coaching is in a way a vacuum making allowance for undesirable learning outcomes. Kapur (2018) indicates that normally in subjects such as mathematics and science, students need coaching. The main purpose of coaching is to make available extra classes for the students, so they can improve their academic performance. The poverty-stricken individuals mainly possess low literacy skills, or they are not educated, hence, they are unable to provide any kinds of instructions and training to their children. Students may achieve low scores because they lack the help obtained from trained and experienced personnel.

3.6. 1. Factors that Influence Learner Academic Achievement

Academic achievement can be defined as the rating of learners following an examination or assessment (Ternenge, Simon & Torkuma, 2021). According to Tabassum and Akhter (2020) the relationship of demographic factors and its impact on academic achievement has been a topic of concern to scholars. A study by Ingula, Rono and Ndambuki (2011:9) advises that teachers should be aware and be able to understand the numerous factors that may affect the progression of the students in any learning process, and they must endeavour to employ strategies that encourage the

involvement of learners. Naylor and Sayed (2014:8) indicate that there is much evidence to suggest that teacher quality encompasses several elements like classroom practices, subject knowledge, professional development, teaching experience and teacher-student relationships which, in turn, affect student outcomes.

Waseke and Simatwa's (2016) research in Kenya measured how quality of education on learners' achievement. The authors state that there are various factors that affect performance in secondary schools in Kenya certificate examinations; age, participation in co-curricular activities and excursions from school were statistically significant predictors in student academic performance. On the other hand, the researchers find out that age that in students with 18 years and above reduced student academic performance.

Molokomphale and Mhlauli (2014) investigated the reasons for the decline in students' academic performance in junior secondary schools in Botswana since 2010. The results of the study indicate that low performance was due to low students' morale or preparedness for the examination. In a related study Maluma and Banja (2019) examined the factors affecting pupils' academic performance at grade 12 level of selected Grant-Aided secondary schools in Zambia. The study revealed that higher performance was due to availability of constant proprietor support, availability of adequate infrastructure and the opposite was the case with lower performing schools.

Insah, Mumuni and Bowan (2013) in their study, used a regression analysis approach to determine the demographic factors and students' academic achievement in Ghana's tertiary institutions. They found that age and gender were positively related to the class attainment. Another interesting result of this study was that an increase in age of males decreased academic performance by a margin more than females. In a similar study Oppong (2013) examined gender differences in a scholastic achievement test as a function of method of measurement by comparing the performance of males and females in Cape Coast. The study results indicated that female students performed significantly better than male students on essay test items. A related study by Indrahdi

and Wardana (2020) using statistical data, shows that factors outside, teacher, curriculum and learning have a significant effect on student academic achievement.

3.7. Problems and Challenges in Teaching History

The teaching of history in schools cannot be said to be without problems and challenges. Some studies (Adeyinka, 1989; Cobbold & Oppong, 2010; Ruto, 2013) highlight several factors that affect the teaching and learning of history. A study conducted by Adeyinka (1989) on the problems of history teaching in some Nigerian secondary schools revealed that lack of essential teaching aids was the most serious problem of history teaching. Other problems revealed by the study were the absence of well-equipped libraries or history rooms, large classes, inadequate motivation of teachers, and students' low standard of written English.

Assessing the teaching and learning of history in the Central Region of Ghana, Cobbold & Oppong (2010) found that recommended methods were not used by history teachers in teaching the subject, and even those used were not used appropriately. It was also revealed that instructional resources were not frequently used in history lessons because such resources were either not available at all or were inadequate. Also, the number of periods allocated for history on the school timetable was found to be inadequate for the entire syllabus to be covered. Students were also found to possess negative perceptions about the subject as they regarded history as a compendium of facts to be memorized.

Ruto (2013) further studied the challenges associated with the managerial support in the teaching of history and government. It was found that most of the challenges associated with the teaching of the subject ranged from inadequate instructional materials to teacher motivation. Even though schools were able to provide support in the form of textbooks, maps, charts, and other instructional materials, such materials were not adequate for teaching. Again, funds to support teaching and learning were found to be lacking as was the opportunity for teachers to attend refresher courses to enhance the teaching of the subject. Moreover, teachers indicated that lack of motivation was a major challenge as well as head teachers' underestimation of the

importance of the subject. The study concluded that managerial support for teachers was inadequate in the procurement of instructional materials for teaching, recruitment of teachers, provision of funds for seminars and workshops, and motivation of performing teachers.

In a similar study on secondary school teachers' attitudes and challenges in the teaching and learning of history and government, Ruto & Ndaloh (2013) revealed that the subjects were overloaded with more topics than what teachers could cover. This was coupled with teachers' feeling that the periods allocated to the subjects were insufficient. The findings further showed that there were a limited number of history and government teachers despite the large number of students. Besides, there were lack of history and government sections in most school libraries, and even in schools which had history and government sections in their libraries, these sections were not well stocked with relevant books and instructional materials.

Boadu et al. (2014) in their study on the use of technology in the teaching of history in the Cape Coast metropolis in Ghana found that though teachers were aware of the various technologies that could be used in the teaching of history, they (teachers) used such technologies sparsely for instructional purposes. The study reported that teachers' positive perceptions about technology were not translated into practical use due chiefly to the unavailability of most of the technological devices. This took off some shine from history lessons as the use of technologies such as overhead projectors, interactive boards, computers, etc. contribute to making history less abstract and more meaningful to students.

Rono (2015) also studied the constraints on effective history and government instruction in secondary schools in the Bomet district in Kenya and revealed several factors which affected the teachers' perceptions of teaching the subject. According to the study, a major constraint that hampered the effective teaching of the subject was the unavailability of instructional resources as there were challenges in purchasing resources, especially textbooks. Again, the instructional periods allocated for the coverage of the syllabi were found to be insufficient. Coupled with insufficient

instructional time was lack of in-service training of teachers on new methods of teaching, subject knowledge and materials and resources development. Also, there was inadequate number of history and government teachers in most of the schools. It was reported that history and government lacked direct relevance to the job market, and this negatively affected how teachers taught the subjects. Chimee (2021) attributes the challenge of teaching history to the way African historiography has been written and sequenced. He points out that African historiography has been following divisions, schemes and sequences set by the Western World. As a result, this creates a problem with periodization in African history which focuses on Western accounts rather than events in Africa. Hamer's (2022) study argues that history teaching is faced with imbalance of gender representation in its nature, scope, and coverage. The focus in history has been on more of a male figure than females. Thus, one can argue that the lack of historical role models in the historical textbooks and other forms of learning history negatively affects the attitude that female learners have on the subject.

3.8. Research Gap Identified

From the literature reviewed above, it is evident that most scholars focus on the importance of teaching history in the classroom, while others point to teacher/learner engagement in the classroom. There has been extensive emphasis on the significance of pedagogical approaches and strategies that can help in effective teaching/learning of history by several studies around the world. However, there has been lack of focus on how, when, what and why various pedagogical approaches, methods and strategies are applied in the teaching of history using Basil Bernstein's lens. Simply put, this study investigates how history is being taught in secondary schools in Lusaka province. It focuses on the pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) within the classroom and outside that are vital in ensuring that the set objectives for the learners are met in the delivery of lessons in history at secondary school level. It is important to note that the study considers that teachers, learners, and approaches (PCK) used are crucial elements in education and ensuring effective teaching in history. As noted by Boadu (2016:39) "the teaching of history can be a challenging experience due to the abstract nature of the subject". Following on this, most countries, Zambia inclusive,

have focused on the promotion of a more learner-centred form of teaching in secondary schools. However, the challenges remain on how to implement PCK approaches in the history classroom to meet the agenda of learner-centered learning, hence this study. Firstly, it is not clear whether history teachers possess enough PCK to teach the subject. Equally important in this study is to understand what challenges history teachers face and what best practices can be developed to improve the teaching. It is also unclear whether the teaching methods used have a direct effect on the performance of the learners at grade 12

3.9. Summary

The presented the literature review related to the study on history education. Firstly, it brought out the purpose of history teaching by conceptualising it in line with curriculum implementation. The researcher argued that history teaching is vital to learners, however most teachers may not know how or the right pedagogical approaches to use to ensure that history is given its value in society. In the second part of the review the researcher examines various curriculum ideologies used in different countries and located the Zambian history ideology in the context of democracy, national building and outcome based. Considering this review, the chapter examined the old curriculum and outcome based to understand the performance of the learners. It, furthermore, examined literature related to the attitude of teachers and learners in history. The reviewed scholarly works indicate that attitude plays a critical role in aiding learners' performance. The study also highlights various literatures on the challenges that teachers and learners face in history education. It is clear from the challenges brought out that there is need to find best practices and approaches that can help to improve the way history is taught in secondary schools. Hence this study explores such strategies by applying Basil Bernstein's theory. The chapter also discusses the research gap drawn after the literature review.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1. Overview

This chapter discusses in detail the methodology and research design. The chapter begins by providing the study setting and then giving a detailed description of the research design. In practical terms, it explains the reasons why the researcher used a mixed method approach. Further, it outlines the study population, samples size used and the sampling techniques. The chapter data collection instruments specifically, semi-structured interviews questionnaire, focus group discussion, classroom lesson observations schedule and content analysis checklist are also presented. This is then followed by a discussion on validity and reliability issues. The chapter furthermore discusses the procedure for data collection, methods of data analysis, and ethical consideration of the research and later a summary is provided.

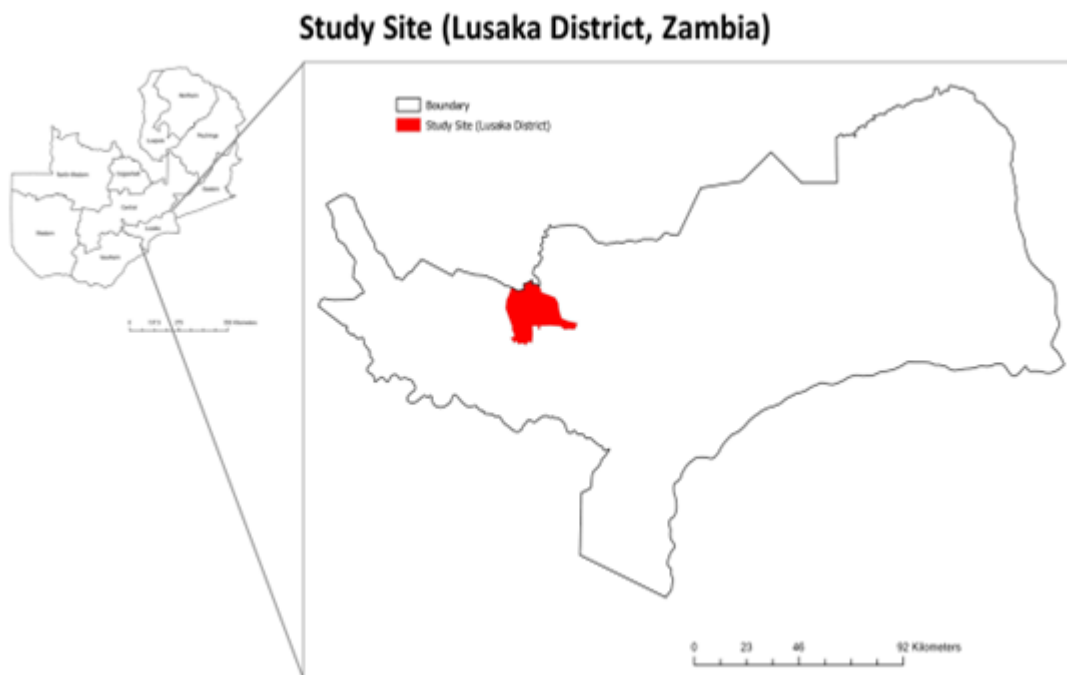
4.2. Study Setting

This study was conducted in selected secondary schools in Lusaka Province of Zambia. Zambia is a landlocked country situated in Southern Africa with a surface area of 752,614 square kilometres (see figure 1 below). Zambia attained independence from Britain in 1964. Zambia has a fast-growing population with the United Nations estimated at 19.42 million people (<https://www.populationu.com>). The population density of the country is mainly in urban area such as Lusaka which stands at 200 persons per square kilometre, hence greater demand for educational services. In addition, 50 percent of the population is below 15 years posing a challenge of educational provision. The management of public schools in the country is by the (Ministry of General Education) (MoGE), while private schools are run by private organisations or persons. MoGE's responsibility is to formulate and implement policies, laws, regulations, implement standards, licence, and supervise schools.

The Zambia education system has a 7-5-4 structure, namely 7 years at primary school, after which learners follow a 2 and 3years at junior and secondary school

respectively and 4 years at university level. Secondary education is divided into two cycles, that is junior secondary or basic education of grade 8 and 9. The second part is that of senior secondary grade 10 to 12. It is worth noting that history at junior level is integrated into social studies while at senior level it is taught as a separate subject. At the end of the senior secondary learners are required to write the school certificate examination. This study focuses on history teaching at secondary school level and among grade 12 learners.

Figure 1.1 Map of Zambia showing the area under Study



Source: <https://gisgeography.com/zambia-map/>

It is important to note that most Zambians have gone through public schools as opposed to private schools. This is because most of the parents are not able to pay the high tuition cost charged in private schools. Private, Mission Grant Aided and Public secondary schools have several things in common; they all use a common syllabus, write a common final examination and follow a common course pathway. In addition, all secondary schools follow a similar curriculum. In this study the three categories of school types that offer history at secondary level made up the focus of the study. The

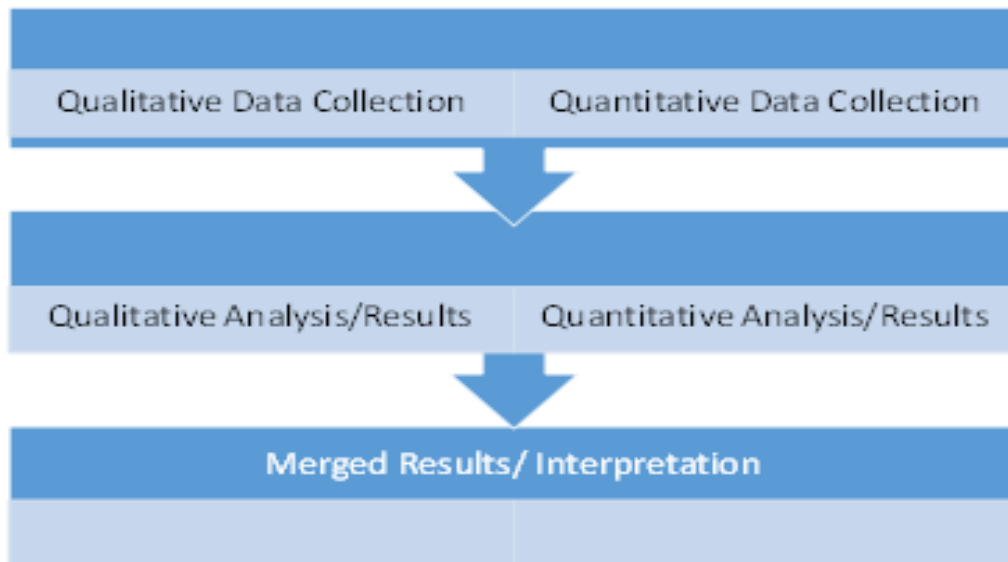
researcher selected six secondary schools because of easy access to the schools. The selected schools specific were located around the centre of the capital city of Lusaka, Zambia. Thus, there was a very high probability of getting access to various aspects relating to the teaching of history.

4.3. Research Design

The research design used in this study was a convergent parallel mixed method design (see figure 3). According to Creswell (2014) a convergent parallel mixed method is a design which converges or merges quantitative and qualitative data to provide a comprehensive analysis of research problem. In this design, data was collected at the same time then integrated during the interpretation stage. The convergent mixed method design also helped in overcoming and explaining study findings because in this approach both qualitative and quantitative data was collected, then analysed separately and then results compared to see if the findings confirmed or disconfirmed each other.

The study used a convergent parallel design to determine the teaching of history in selected secondary schools in Lusaka district (Piccioli, 2019, Demir & Pismek, 2018, Creswell & Clerk, 2011). The study focused on teachers' preparedness and the pedagogical practices used in history teaching. Secondly, the study determined if there was any significant difference between the Outcome based education curriculum and the Content based education curriculum. Firstly, the researcher collected both qualitative and quantitative data simultaneously. The results for both qualitative and quantitative were then reiterated, weighted and synthesized separately and later merged. This was followed by interpretation and discussion of the findings according to themes backed with the relevant literature.

Figure 3: Overview of Convergent Parallel Design



Source: Adapted from Creswell and Clerk, 2015.

4.4. Rationale for use of Mixed Methods

The combination of qualitative and quantitative methods was useful in this study as this helped to explain quantitative data using qualitative analysis (Bryman, 2012, Tashakkori & Teddie, 2003). According to Creswell (2003:22) a mixed methods approach is one in which the researcher tends to base knowledge claims on pragmatic grounds. It employs strategies of inquiry that involve collecting data either simultaneously or sequentially to best understand research problems. The data collection also involves gathering both numeric information as well as text information to understand a given phenomenon. This study adopted a mixed method approach to downplay the shortcoming of both quantitative and qualitative approaches. Mixed methods approach was chosen because of its strength of drawing on both approaches and minimising the limitation of either approach. Hence, because both approaches had bias and weaknesses, and the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data neutralised the weakness of each form of data.

Quantitative research focuses on statistical results represented by numerical data, qualitative research presents data as descriptive form and focuses understanding phenomena in its natural form (Piccioli, 2019, Denzin & Lincoln, 2000, Leedy 1993). Quantitative data tends to be more open-ended, in this study the researcher incorporated quantitative methods which involved closed-ended responses such as questionnaires. Quantitative is used to answer questions on relationships within measurable variables with an intention to explain, predict and control a phenomenon. The quantitative method typically begins with data collection based on a hypothesis or theory, and it is followed by the application of descriptive analysis of the findings (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007, Denzin & Lincoln, 1998). Given this (Liamputtong 2016: Xiii, Creswell, 2012, Day 2008a) reviews that qualitative research is essential when a researcher needs to understand a complex issue in detail. As such the detail to be achieved requires interaction with the persons involved. The study takes a naturalistic approach in that its purpose is that of describing a complicated situation as it is using various sources.

Qualitative methods were used in this study to understand given phenomena (Willing, 2013, Hancock, 2002, Moriarty, 2011, Day 2008b). Unlike quantitative analysis, qualitative research does not base its conclusions on measurements. Besides, in qualitative research, there is a created relationship between the researcher and the participants that are less formal. Richard (2006: 1) notes that a standard feature of the qualitative research is that they aim to create understanding from data as the analysis proceeds. The qualitative research applies to this present study because the study under examination is broad and must be well explained. Moreover, qualitative research method helps to interpret human behaviours and social events. Hancock (2002:6) states that qualitative research is concerned with developing explanations of social phenomena. The present study uses the qualitative method because it will be best suited to help to come up with answers to the research questions of the study that are concerned with finding the answers to questions which begin with: what? why? how? (Hancock 2002:6). This is in line with Elmusharaf (2014:3) who notes that

‘qualitative methods will help you to understand other people better and avoid misunderstanding.

According to Hancock, Ockleford, and Windridge (2009:6) the focus of qualitative research is to understand human nature and behaviour. Qualitative studies help to obtain a lot of in-depth information from people (Denzin, 2010, Bryman, 2007, Mason 2002). Therefore, a mixed method approach provided me the opportunity to understand the issue under Study (Creswell, 2014, Guest, 2013, Creswell, Fetters & Ivankova, 2004). Both forms of methods provided me an insight of the study problem from different perspectives. Given this background a parallel convergent design which focuses on both quantitative and qualitative methods was chosen.

It is important to answer the question what was mixed and why? in the study. In order to answer the research questions in this study a mixed approach was used. The following research questions were used for mixed approach: How do teachers prepare for history lessons for their classes?, What factors do they consider in selecting various historical content knowledge from the syllabus to be delivered to the learners?, What pedagogical practices are used in teaching history to ensure effective outcomes?, What challenges do history learners face in grasping the subject?. Quantitative method was further used to answer research question number 5; Are there statistically significant mean differences between content-based education and outcome-based education in general certificate history?

4.5. Research Paradigm

This study was located within the interpretivism paradigm. Interpretive researchers believe that reality of people’s life affects experiences of the external world (MacNaughton, Rolfe & Siraj-Blatchford, 2001). Interpretivism paradigm was used in this study to help in the data analysis because the aim of this paradigm is to help give a detailed and authentic to a study. Thus, research adopts an interpretivism paradigm to help in understanding how knowledge is implemented from the curriculum to the classroom in history teaching (Muijs, 2012, Crotty, 1998).

The current study adopted the interpretive position because it will help to provide a systematic way of analysing and reporting the findings. This paradigm also helped me to understand the problem in great depth as it provides a variety and use of various research techniques. The interpretivism paradigm provided me with the most appropriate and fruitful method of exploring educational processes and philosophical theories as it helps in examining events. Thus, such an approach is vital in investigation history teaching and its philosophical underpinnings.

4.6. Population

Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) define population as an entire group of individuals, with common observable characteristics. Therefore, this section looks at the population the researcher used in the study and results of the study. The target population for the study comprised history teachers, history pupils and Ministry of Education history stakeholders as they were the key informants from the selected schools. History teachers and history learners were the primary respondents of the study as they provided the researcher with information that was essential to the study. The reason for this kind of population is that they were directly in contact with the transmission and receipt of historical knowledge in the classroom.

4.6.1. Sample

This study was conducted in Lusaka district, Zambia. The district was chosen for mainly two reasons. Lusaka city being the capital of Zambia does influence several educational changes and innovations in other parts of the country. The researcher centred on main population of Grade 12 learners. The study focussed on six schools in Lusaka district of which two governments, two private and two Missionary Grant Aided. A total of 48 teachers and 120 pupils were selected. The sample had six Head of Departments (HOD), one from each school. The sample also included one curriculum specialists, one examination specialists and one standards officer. The sample considered both male and female teachers and learners. Against this background, the study comprised 177 respondents broken down as indicated in the table 1 below:

Table 1: Description and number of Participants

S/N	Methodology	Description	Number
1	Quantitative	History Teachers	48
2	Quantitative	History Pupils	120
3	Qualitative	Curriculum Specialists	1
4	Qualitative	Education Standard Officer	1
5	Qualitative	Heads of Departments	6
6	Qualitative	Examination history specialist	1
Total			177

Source: *Field Data, 2021*

4.6.2. Sampling Procedure

The researcher used both probability and non- probability sampling in this study. Random sampling which is a probability sampling was used in the selection of the Secondary schools. This helped the researcher as every school in Lusaka district had an equal chance of inclusion in the sample. A Random lottery method was used in picking up the schools from the 73 Secondary schools in the district. Thus, Random sampling ensures the law of statistical regularity which states that if on an average the sample chosen is a random one, the sample will have the same composition and characteristics as the universe (Kothari & Garg, 2019, Onwuegbuzie & Teddie,).The type of non-probability sampling used in this study was purposive. Purposive sampling is defined as the careful selection of specific individuals, events or setting. Purposive sampling techniques were adopted for the selection of the sample of this study area and all participants in the study. Teachers and pupils were also purposively selected, using the purposive criterion sampling. Criterion sampling is based on the principle that all participants are grounded in the same conditions, in this case, all have an interest in history (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010a, Patton, 1990). Curriculum designers, Examination Council of Zambia History specialists and Standards Officer were conveniently selected because there are critical informants on the issues of policy and have specialized knowledge of the problem.

4.7. Data Collection Tools

To answer the research questions various research tools were used in the study. These included: interview guides, written documents, questionnaires, and lesson observations. These are discussed below.

4.7.1. Interviews

Interviews are considered as the significant and most popular form for qualitative research. Generally, a meeting is the verbal conversation between two people with the aim of gathering substantial data for the goal of research (Nwankwo & Obiakor, 2022, Tashakkori & Teddie, 2010b, Denzin & Lincoln, 2008). According to Omari (2011: 82), there are three levels of interviews which include: unstructured interview, semi-structured and structured interviews. In the informal interviews, the respondents have freedom in the way they answer the question. Thus, there can be a high level of bias or error in the information, while the semi-structured interviews are developed around a core of structured questions and require a lot of skills to probe. In the structured interviews, the interviewer is aided by a well-defined structure resembling the format of an objective questionnaire, permitting clarification and elaboration within narrow boundaries (Omari, 2011).

The study used semi-structured interviews to have a broad and in-depth understanding of the discussion of the problem under investigation. Using semi-structured interviews, the research question was answered clearly and in detail. This was achieved by interviewing participants with extensive experience in Zambian public secondary schools. Hancock (2002: 13) observes that semi-structured interviews involve a series of open-ended questions based on the topic areas the researcher wants to cover. This enabled both the interviewee and the interviewer to discuss issues. Thus, there was a sense of engagement between the two, as the interviewer had the freedom to probe the interviewee to explain unclear statements. A one-on-one interview was also carried out with the curriculum designers. All the interviews were recorded during the study and later transcribed.

Interviews were conducted from the CDC, the Examination Council of Zambia (ECZ) and then later from the District Education Office with the history specialists. History teachers and learners were selected from the Department of Social Sciences specifically from the History section. The information from the interviews was collected using an audio recorder or a tape recorder. This enabled the researcher to get back and forth for any references during data processing and analysis.

4.7.2. Lesson Observations

This study utilized classroom lesson observations, to gain further insight into the research problem. It is evident that the observations play a vital role as a research tool and has been used by many scholars. According to Mason (2002:98) observation clearly, requires a complex set of intellectual and social skills and a researcher needs to rethink how to use them. Furthermore, observations mainly utilize the sense of hearing and seeing for a researcher to make judgments. Urquhart (2015:3) clearly explains the advantages of observation in social research. He points out that observation research is useful, feasible for practitioners, and can be combined with other types of data collection methods; observation research can obtain uniquely reliable and valid answers to the research problems. Chesterfield (1997) identifies the following as the main strategies that an observer can use in carrying out classroom observations: an observation point, piece of the furniture, teacher's helper, and the role of the students. In the 'observation point' the researcher finds a point from which the whole class is visible, and he/she has little contact with the teacher and pupils during the process. Similarly, in the second strategy 'piece of the furniture' the observer sits as a student but does not take part in the class activities. In the third strategy 'teacher's helper' the observer moves around the classroom much like a teacher and is part of the lesson activities. The final strategy is 'role of a student' which basically allows the observer to take up the position of the learner in the classroom. This allows the researcher to gain an in-depth collection of data on why learners behave in certain ways in the classroom.

All the methods were used in selected classrooms to have a clear and in-deep understanding of the activities in the history classroom. This helped to clearly understand how historical knowledge is transmitted in the school considering Bernstein's theoretical framework.

4.7.3. Questionnaire

Questionnaire was employed in the study to collect data on the topic. The questionnaire was administered to history teachers in the sample. The questionnaire had six parts that teachers were required to answer. The questionnaire had items on the following variables to help determine the teaching of history: lesson preparedness, factors to determine selection of historical content, pedagogical practices to enhance effective teaching, Learner performance and challenges faced by teachers and learners in history. The design of the questionnaire was aided by the pilot study.

4.7.4. Document Analysis

Document analysis was used in this study to compliment the data from the other sources of data such as focus group discussion and semi-structured interviews. Mason (2002: 105) notes that the analysis of documents is key to social research. Document analysis involves interpreting and finding meaning in the text (Scott, 1990). Mogalakwe (2006:2) points out that there are two types of documents that are used in the documentary study, namely primary documents, and secondary documents. He further defines primary documents as eye-witness accounts created by people who experienced or were part of the event, while secondary documents are documents produced by people who were not present at the scene but who received eye-witness accounts to compile the documents or have read eye-witness accounts. The present study examined documents such as the syllabi used in history teaching, the curriculum, teachers' lesson notes, assignments and any policy documents related to the study. A critical review of policy documents; local, national and international will help to gain insight of the topic. The documents will be used to highlight curriculum processes and the context in which power relation and control may occur. Below is the list of the documents used in this study.

Table 2: Documents Analysis in the Study I

Serial #	Document Name	Importance
	New Zambian Curriculum Framework Policy-2013	Contains critical information on the goals, purpose, and vision of curriculum
	Teacher Implementation Guide	Contained information on the pedagogical practices for teachers in schools
	History Secondary School Syllabus	Contained information on the history content, aims, references to be used when teaching
	Teachers Schemes of work	Shows specified information on what teacher plan to teacher in the year/term
	Teachers Lesson Plans	Shows specified information on what teachers' delivery in the classroom and the pedagogical practices used.
	Selected Examination Council of Zambia Final History Papers	Information on the types of assessments tools that pupils are given.

Source: *Field Data 2021*

These documents provided me with important background information, such as how the formation of the OBE curriculum policy was done. In addition, the documents helped in the data analysis as a way of supplementing data from my primary instrument, focus group discussions, lesson observations, and the semi-structured interview. See table 3 below.

Table 3; Summary of Data collection plans

Data collection	Research Participants	Date Collection Instrument	Research information	Data recording method
Semi-structured interview	Curriculum specialists, standard officers, teachers, Administrators	Interview Guide	curriculum and control relations	Audio-recording/tape recorder
Focus Group Discussion	Learners Grade 12	Focus Group Discussion Guide	Lesson practices and assessments	Field Notebook and Audio-recording
Lesson Observation	Class Teachers	Lesson observation form	Lesson practices and pedagogical discourse	Video recording and Field notebook
Document analysis	Education Policy reforms and laws	Discourse analysis guide	Curriculum changes and practices	Field notebook

Source: *Field Data 2019/20202*

To get an insight of the study the research instruments were constructed, piloted, and applied to understand the complexity of the study.

4.8. Processing, Analysis and Presentation of Findings

This section shows the methods that were used in the processing, analysing, and presenting of findings.

4.8.1. Processing

Hancock (2002: 14) states that when a researcher collects data, analysing the data requires careful consideration and preparation. Processing of data in the study included editing, classification, and tabulation. Editing of data involved two processes: field and post-field editing. Data collected was edited during and after the research to confirm the facts on the topic. The data was then organized according to the various themes. Data was analysed both qualitatively and quantitatively. Empirical results from the research were related to the theoretical framework to ascertain the link of the topic to Bernstein's lens. Furthermore, the research findings were presented transparently. Besides tables, charts, pictures, and grams were utilized.

4.8.2. Qualitative Thematic Analysis

Hancock (2002) explains that data analysis is a logical and organized search for meaning and a method to process data so the findings from studies can be communicated to others. Data was analysed using thematic exploration and code development. The process of analysis was done according to developing themes from the data collected (Hollway & Jefferson, 2013, Boyatzis, 1998). Braun & Clarke (2006:10) shows that "A theme captures something important about the data, about the research question and represents some level of patterned response or meaning within the data set. An important question to address regarding coding is what counts as a pattern/theme or what size does a theme need to be?" A descriptive approach was used, and the analysis followed an inductive approach. The emphasis in this approach pointed on participants' views and understanding of the study and comparisons

highlighted during the interviews (Creswell, 2005). The researcher in this study identified the essential themes forming from the data by categorizing them to carry out a closer and more detailed exploration.

4.8.3. Qualitative Content Analysis

Data was further analysed using the content method. The study used the three stages of qualitative analysis: description, evaluation, and explanation. This aided in making a comparison and ordering the data. As the primary volume of data was generated through interviews with the teachers and pupils, the study used various techniques of content analysis to understand the topic under study, for instance, discourse exploration (Kvale, 1996). The preliminary findings of the study were relooked and re-examined to find unexplained events from documents.

4.8.4. Quantitative Data Analysis

Quantitative analysis involves describing and interpreting data statistically and with numbers (Koppa, 2021). O’Gorman and MacIntosh (2016) note that quantitative data analysis deals with information expressed as numbers, as opposed to words. Thus, quantitative data analysis is a form of research that uses a large scale to evaluate data. It is important to note that researchers’ choice of data analysis method is affected by several factors such as the level of measurement for the variables under study, distribution variables and the units of variables. In this study, quantitative data were analysed simultaneously with qualitative data. This is because the study used a convergent parallel mixed method design. A descriptive explanatory approach was used. Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to analyse data collected from the questionnaires of the teachers and learners. The SPSS was used to analyse questionnaires and other data organised as cases with variables, which helped answer the research questions on the teaching of history and pedagogy. SPSS helped to generate descriptive statistics which gave summary statistics such as the mean, median, standard deviation and frequencies. The second form of analysis was done using Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). ANOVA is a statistical analysis for evaluating the equality of mean for example mean differences of means on a single, at least internally-scaled outcome variable across two or more (Thompson, 2006:303). Thus

ANOVA was used to answer the research questions on the type of syllabus and determine the demographic factors and how significant they were on learner performance, the study employed. The researcher adopted ANOVA as the research data consisted of quantitative response variables and more categorical explanatory variables (Kovalchenko, 2021). The researcher did not apply a t-test as it is used to compare or analyse to data groups or population. Thus ANOVA was suitable as the researcher was testing the mean of more than two groups in this case for six schools. In addition, the researcher avoided t-tests as ANOVA controls for the Type I error which is a false negative conclusion.

Methodological triangulation was used to determine convergence of the constructs thus operationalised by the extent of the statistical correlation between the results of the different measurement operations. As noted by Kelle and Bernhard (2019), triangulation in history education is aimed at generating a complete result with the help of two partial findings that could not stand on their own. Data collected was classified by outlining and grouping it into similar responses from participants. Quantitative data was presented in graphical depiction form and frequencies. The choice of which variables to compare against each other was guided by the aim and research questions. Also, the choice of a table or a chart was based on what best explained the question being addressed to the reader. This is because tables can be difficult for readers to process if they contain too many figures. The shape of the data is often more important than the specific numerical values in interpreting its meaning.

4.8.5. Data Analysis Using the Theoretical Framework

The study applied Bernstein's lens as an analytical tool to appreciate and understand the theme under investigation. The theory helped understand the curriculum practices and processes. Interviews and focus group discussions were designed in line with the theoretical framework. The conceptual framework is well outlined and discussed in chapter two. This study does not intend to utilize the theoretical framework to test Bernstein's lens. However, the study used the theory in understanding curriculum implementation in the teaching of history. Bernstein's ideas were used to comprehend

the level of power and control that teachers possess over the curriculum implementation process and practices in the teaching of history in Zambian Public secondary schools.

4.9. Trustworthiness

Pilot and Beck (2014) note that, trustworthiness of a study refers to the degree of confidence in data, interpretation, and methods used to ensure the quality of a study. This can be achieved through the establishment of protocols and procedures by the researcher that is essential to for a study to be considered worthy of consideration by readers (Amankwaa, 2016). Therefore, trustworthiness in research ensures that people accept the research findings, build future research upon them, utilize them to inform public policy, and use them to guide individual choice and community action. Trustworthiness is what will make lay people believe experts and help control the subjective biases, confounding variables, and other sources of noise that are said to undermine the objectivity of research (Sandelowski, 1993). However, in as much as most experts are agreeable that trustworthiness is necessary in research, arguments on what constitutes trustworthiness are still profound (Leung, 2015). For this study, trustworthiness has been categorized into the following: Validity, Reliability, Dependability, Credibility, Conformability and Transferability. Therefore, in this study, Trustworthiness was ensured by protecting the importance of the study. Thus, all interview interpretations were represented in the accurate picture of the information provided by the participants. Research conclusions were confirmed to the information provided by the participants and from document analysis.

4.9.1 Validity

According to Kothari (2004) validity is the most critical criterion and indicates the degree to which an instrument measures what it is supposed to measure. In other words, validity refers to the extent to which differences found with a measuring instrument reflect true differences among those being tested. Validity as noted by Mertler and Vannatta (2010) is the level to which an instrument truthfully reflects the precise concept or construct that the researcher is attempting to measure. Validity is

an important variable that this study considered because it is not only an essential part for assessment but for measurement as well. This study considered external validity despite it focusing only on Lusaka province in Zambia; it also tried to appeal and impress upon all the stakeholders to look at ways and means of finding appropriate ways of teaching history across Zambia and among SADC member countries. The study also ensured that there was internal validity by employing different methods of data collection which included the use of informants, or interviews on norms and values which illustrated the fact that each type of method had specific limitations (Mouton, 1990). To ensure internal validity, this study employed different methods of data collection in order to compensate for limitations of each. Validity was further ensured through the use of various methods such as lesson observation, document study and interviews which were reliable, rendering the findings as valid. Another requirement for validity is to ensure anonymity. This was done by ensuring that participants did not identify themselves on the questionnaires.

4.9.2. Reliability

Reliability refers to the consistency of a measure. Neuman (2003) notes that reliability is the degree to which a test is free from measurement errors thus, the more measurement errors occur the less reliable the test. According to Taherdoost (2016), reliability is also concerned with repeatability, which means that a scale is said to be reliable if repeated measurement made by it under constant conditions will give the same result. Simply put, reliability is the extent to which results are consistent over time and an accurate representation of the total population under study. There are basically two forms of reliability that is external and internal reliability. To ensure reliability in this study, the researcher administered the questionnaires twice on the teachers and pupils under the same conditions in order to check if the same results could be produced. This ensured that comparisons were reliable. Reliability was further enhanced through integrating the theoretical framework which aided in investigating the level of reliability in the study.

4.9.3. Dependability

Scholars such as Creswell (2018), Streubert (2007) and Sandelowski (1986) indicate that dependability is the consistency and reliability of the research findings as well as the extent to which research procedures are documented, allowing someone outside the research to follow, audit, and critique the research process. Therefore, dependability is particularly relevant to research applications that are in the early stages of testing findings in multiple contexts to increase the confidence in the evidence (Adams et al. 2014). Under dependability, researchers should document research design and implementation, including the methodology and methods, the details of data collection (e.g., field notes, memos, the researcher's reflexivity journal), and reflective appraisal of the project (Shenton 2004, Polit et al. 2006, Streubert, 2007).

Furthermore, a number of scholars note that reflexivity, which is a self-assessment of subjectivity, can result in reduction of bias and increase dependability by increasing transparency of the research process (Best, Kahn & Jha, 2018, Guba 1981, Malterud 2001, D'Cruz et al. 2007, Tong et. al. 2007). For this study, the researcher ensured dependability of the study through consistency and reliability in the methodology and methods employed that were clearly documented to allow the reader to assess the extent to which appropriate research practices were followed.

4.9.4. Credibility

It is important to point out that in qualitative research credibility and trustworthiness are necessary for a successful study. This ensures that the researcher is accountable and responsible for any information given to them by participants. The most potent means for strengthening credibility in qualitative research is through triangulation. Credibility is comparable to internal validity (Liamputtong, 2016). Credibility and authenticity are used to determine whether the research is genuine and reliable or not. It thus testifies that the research findings can be trusted. This will be achieved in various ways, triangulation, member checking, peer review, and reflexivity. To show that the conclusions and interpretations of conclusions derived from the imagination of the researcher are credible, several methods are used to collect data. Besides, the

researcher will use multiple quotations from the data to confirm and illustrate emerging themes and the involvement of multiple participants.

Credibility of the study, or the confidence in the truth of the study and therefore the findings, is the most important criterion (Polit & Beck, 2014). This concept is corresponding to internal validity in research. Techniques used to establish credibility include prolonged engagement with participants, persistent observation if appropriate to the study, peer-debriefing, member-checking, and reflective journaling. Evidence also should be presented of iterative questioning of the data, returning to examine it several times. Negative case analysis or alternate explanations should be explored as well.

4.9.5. Conformability

Conformability in research shows the degree to which the findings of the study are consistent and could be repeated. Just like in Credibility, this is corresponding to objectivity in research (Polit & Beck, 2014). The Methods used to show conformability in a study include maintenance of an audit trail of analysis and methodological memos of logs. Therefore, researchers ought to keep detailed notes of all their decisions and their analysis as it progresses. In some studies, for instance, in Nickasch et al (2016), notes are reviewed by a colleague whereas other studies may employ peer-debriefing sessions with a respected qualitative researcher in order to prevent biases from only one person's perspective on the research. In addition, depending on the study, the researcher may conduct member-checking with study participants or similar individuals.

4.9.6. Transferability

Transferability in a study can be seen as a type of external validity that shows the extent to which the researcher's phenomenon or findings described in the study are applicable or useful to theory, practice, and future research and other contexts (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Therefore, transferability is fundamental to the applicability of research findings because policymakers and managers can rely on data, conclusions, and recommendations from a single or small number of research

projects, often relying on evidence from a range of contexts that can be different from the one in which applications will be made, to make their policies and management decisions. Thus, it is central that researchers clearly state the extent to which findings may or may not be relevant to other contexts (Johnson & Christensen, 2019, Denzin & Lincoln 2011). Therefore, the methodology and analysis of the study should be able to show that the study can be clearly related (transferred) to the original theory.

4.10. Research Ethics

Ethical issues are vital aspects of research. The word ethics is derived from the Greek word 'ethos' which implies a person's character or disposition. According to Kimmel (2007: 28) ethics are "rules of behaviour or conformity that help to code or set principles." Therefore, ethics is a branch of philosophy that deals with the conduct and how people behave towards each other or their relations.

Academic research and writing need to be accompanied by given behaviours when carrying out and propagating their research outcomes. It is important to note that ethical responsibility of any given research is upon the researcher. This is because ethical conduct will have a direct effect on the findings of the investigation. As observed by Kimmel (2007:29) research considerations help ensure that one's scientific endeavours are compatible with one's values and goals, through shared guidelines, principles, and unwritten laws. Akaranga and Makau (2016: 2) allude to the fact that the benefits of the research findings could be weighed against the costs of acting unethically.

Further, ethical issues have been associated with one's values. This approach to ethics suggests that the ethical or moral researcher makes judgments about research practices by their values and not by blindly following codified ethical guidelines. However, as a researcher, it is vital to have guidelines on one's conduct to be reminded of what and what not to do. Research ethics help prevent abuses and it assists researchers in understanding their responsibilities as ethical scholars. Many factors influence the decision of a researcher's consideration of ethics, and these are discussed below.

4.10.1. Privacy and Confidentiality

Privacy is one of the essential facts that a researcher must consider if their findings are to make meaning. Kimmel (2007: 140) explains that privacy is the claim of individuals, groups, or institutions to determine for themselves, when how and to what extent information about them is communicated to others. Also, privacy has more to do with the respect for the person, protecting of anonymity and prohibition of breaches of confidentiality. Confidentiality refers to the right to maintain the privacy of personal data divulged during a professional relationship with a researcher. The researcher considered issues of confidentiality by not using the real identities of the participants.

4.10.2. Informed Consent

Informed consent has been defined as the provision of information to participants, about the purpose of the research, its procedures, potential risks, benefits, and alternatives, so that the individual understands this information and can make a voluntary decision whether to enrol and continue to participate (Ofo, 2019, Rakotsonane, 2019). To ensure that participants can give full informed consent, I will provide a whole discourse of the nature of the research. All participants should be required to sign a written consent form. In the case of learners under the age of 16 years, consent was sought from the parents or guardians and the school management.

4.11. Summary

In this chapter I have discussed the research methodology and design used in the studies. I began by outlining the study setting and research design employed in the study. I also explore why I used a mixed method approach and interpretivism paradigm. An explanation that guides the processes of research are given such as trustworthiness, validity, reliability, dependability, credibility, conformability, and transferability. Furthermore, I discussed the research ethic in the context of my study.

CHAPTER FIVE: RESEARCH FINDINGS

5.1. Overview

This chapter presents the findings of the study. The findings were based on a mixed method approach which helped understand the teaching of history in selected secondary schools in Lusaka district. The history syllabus was analysed to see if there was any guidance on how teachers were expected to teach the subject. The schemes of work and the lesson plans were analysed to see the extent of preparedness of the teachers, while Examination Council past papers and results helped to analyse the extent of pupils' pass rate.

Therefore, both quantitative and qualitative methods were employed in collecting data in this study. Accordingly, the quantitative data collected through the questionnaires for teachers were analysed statistically while the data collected through classroom observations and content analysis were analysed using the qualitative approach. Thus, this chapter covers the analyses and interpretation of both quantitative and qualitative data. Firstly, the quantitative part of the study is presented followed by the qualitative part.

5.2. Demographics of the Participants

The table below presents the demographics of the respondents in the study. The study sample shows that the main respondents were teachers and pupils. The respondents were required to answer the questionnaires and to take part in the interviews. The Table below shows that 37.5% of the respondents were male teachers while female teachers were represented by 62.5% and 47.5% of the respondents were male pupils while 52.5% were female pupils. Among all the respondents, the majority were female for both teachers and pupils.

Table 4: Frequency and Percentage distributions according to Gender and Type of Teachers and Pupils

Frequency and percentage distribution of teachers according to Gender Type

Variable	Category	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender			
Male	18	37.5	
Female	30	62.5	
Total	48	100	
Pupils (n=120)			
Male	57	47.5	
Female	63	52.5	
Total	120	100	

Source: Field Data 2021/2

The gender distribution of teachers used in the study shows that there were more females from the selected schools in Lusaka district. The table shows that 62.5% of teachers were female, while 37.3% were males. In addition, 52.5% of pupils were female, while 47.5% were male. This situation of more female teachers in Lusaka can be attributed to them shunning away from rural areas due to lack of social facilities such as hospitals, shops etc.

Table 5: Frequency and percentage distribution of academic Qualification of Teachers

Description	Category	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Academic Qualification	Diploma	6	12.5
	Bachelor's Degree	37	77
	Master's Degree	5	10.41
	Doctors Degree	Nil	Nil
Teaching Experience	<5years	7	14.58
	6-10years	19	39.58
	11-15years	10	20.83
	16years and above	12	25

Source: Field Data 2021

The academic distribution of teachers and teaching experience of teachers were shown in table 5. The table shows that 12.5% of teachers hold a diploma qualification while bachelor's degree percentage of teachers was 77% and a small number with master's degree at 10.41%. The study shows that there were no teachers with a Doctorate degree within the sample. The teaching experience distribution as displayed on the table indicates that 14.58% of teachers have taught for less than 5 years while 39.58 have work experience from 6 years to 10. From the sampled teachers only a frequency of 10 had work experience from 11years to 15years representing 20.83% while 25% had teaching experience from 16years and above.

Table 6: Frequency and percentage according to Type and Category of Schools used in the Study

Category		F	%
Private	Co-education	2	33.33
Government (GRZ)	Co-education	2	33.33
Missionary Grant Aided	Boys	1	16.66
	Girls	1	16.66
	Total	6	100

Source: Field Data 2021

The sample covered 6 schools around Lusaka which were categorised in three: Government (GRZ), Private owned and Missionary grant aided schools. The table 5.3 shows the type of schools used in the study. Questionnaires were distributed to teachers in the 6 schools. These participants were drawn from 2 Government schools, 2 Missionary grants aided, 2 Private schools that offer history within Lusaka district in Zambia. The return rate was 100%. Government secondary schools are described as schools owned and funded completely by government. Missionary grate Aided are schools that are partly funded by a missionary church and government, while a private owned school is one that is completely funded and owned by private persons or corporations but registered with the Ministry of Education. School is classed according to gender; co-education was used to refer to mixed sex that is both male

and females, while boys and girls referred to single sex. According to table 5.3 about 33.3% represented the schools selected.

5.3. Structure of the Findings

As indicated in chapter four, the study used a mixed-method design. Data was sourced from teachers and pupils. The findings are discussed according to the research questions and other emerging themes. This section presents the results of the study according to the research questions and the themes that developed. These findings are structured according to teacher preparedness in teaching history, attitude, and motivation towards teaching history. As discussed in the methodology chapter 4, qualitative data was collected from actual classroom encounters and observations. Another set of qualitative data was collected using content analysis such as secondary school history syllabus and schemes of work. The purpose of the content analysis was to answer the questions on preparedness of the teacher to teach historical content.

5.4. Lesson Preparedness

The first research question sought to determine how history teachers prepared lessons for their classes. To measure this variable quantitatively a questionnaire and face to face interview were used. The research question was important because from it the researcher was able to indicate a number of variables that could be used to measure the preparedness of the history teacher. In addition, the question was important because lesson preparation was vital in enhancing effective delivery of the historical content. The specific question asked was *how do teachers prepare for history lessons for their classes?* In order to answer this question, teachers and pupils were required to answer a questionnaire. Pupils are key in any implementation of the lesson content thus their role in measuring the extent of teacher preparedness. Teachers were required to answer the questionnaire by way of ticking the options which stated in it. Table 7 below shows the frequency and percentage of teachers' views on lesson preparedness in history.

Table 7: Frequency and Percentage of Teachers Views on Lesson Preparedness in History

No	Items	SD		DA		UC		A		S A		Cumulative	
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	Disagree %	Agree %
1	I like to Prepare for history class before the lesson	12	25%	7	14.5%	12	25%	2	4.1%	15	31.2%	40%	36%
2	No need for lesson plan since due to long in the profession	5	10.4%	3	6.2%	7	14.5%	15	32.2%	18	37.5%	16.6%	69.7%
3	Recognise individual differences of learners in my lesson planning	13	27%	1	2.5%	5	10.4%	8	16.6%	13	27%	43.6%	39%
4	Lesson planning helps teacher to know how I will teach my topics	10	20.8%	0	0%	11	22.9%	10	20.8%	17	35.4%	21%	57%
5	Lesson planning is vital to understand the previous knowledge of the learners	5	10.4%	8	16.6%	7	14.5%	5	10.4%	23	47.9%	28%	57%
6	Lesson planning helps teacher to research more and delivery my lesson	10	20.8%	1	2.08%	7	14.5%	14	29.1%	7	14.5%	41%	45%
7	Lesson planning helps teacher to evaluate the understanding of learners on a given topic	14	29.1%	7	14.5%	3	6.2%	9	18.7%	16	33.3%	43%	51%
8	Lesson planning helps teacher to develop a learner-centered environment	0	0%	5	10.4%	16	33.3%	7	14.5%	20	41%	11%	55%
9	Lesson planning is vital to achieve learners' outcomes	6	12.5%	5	10.4%	1	2%	21	43.7%	15	31.2%	22%	75%
10	Confident to teach a lesson when I plan	1	2%	5	10.4%	4	16.6%	20	41.6%	18	37.5%	13%	79%
11	Real teaching is in the class not in the lesson plan	2	4.1%	6	12.5%	7	14.5%	16	33.3%	16	33.3%	18%	67%
12	Lesson notes are enough to deliver a lesson objective	2	4.1%	2	4.1%	6	12.5%	16	33.3%	21	43.7%	10%	77%

Source: Field Data 2021

The findings above show that the average cumulative percentage of 40% of the teachers disliked preparing lesson plans while, 36% had no problems with lesson preparation. As can be seen in the table above, the average cumulative percentages on those who disagreed on the question on teachers' recognition of learners' individual differences was 43.6% while those who agreed were 39% and the uncertain were 10.4%. Those who agreed with the statement on how lesson planning helps teachers to deliver their topics was at 57% and 21% disagreed. Lesson planning is vital to understand the previous knowledge of the learners agreed 57% while 28% disagreed. Lesson planning helps teacher to research more and deliver my lesson those who agreed were 45% while 41% disagreed. Lesson planning helps teacher to evaluate the understanding of learners on a given topic in agreement were 51% while 43% disagreed and 6.2% were uncertain. Lesson planning helps teacher to develop a learner-centered environment, 55% respondents agreed while, 11% disagreed and 33.3% were uncertain. Lesson planning is vital to achieve learners' outcomes, 75% agreed while 18% disagreed and 2% were uncertain. Confident to teach a lesson when I plan agreed 79% agreed while 13% disagreed and 16.6% were uncertain. Real teaching is in the class not in the lesson plan agreed were 67% while disagreed were scored 18% and 14.5 were uncertain. Lesson notes are enough to deliver a lesson's objectives agreed 77% while disagreed scored 10% and 12.5% were uncertain.

The above responses were consistent with the qualitative data that was collected through interviews. Qualitative data was collected using face to face interviews. The teachers' responses were coded as TR and a number to represent the numerous views by the teachers. The findings were clustered according to positive and negative responses. The following were some of the responses from selected teachers.

Positive Responses

TR1: I adequately prepare because lesson plans are a form of my work plan. You need to plan for the day's work, weekly, termly, and yearly in order to effectively delivery the content.

TR2: Lesson preparation is good and can lead to better results if one prepares in advance and this is what I often do because they define a teacher. In private schools you cannot do without preparation. Lesson preparation is very important it has keynote which you might have forgotten before, during and after a lesson delivery. That's why we evaluate madam in the lesson plan.

Negative Responses

TR4: I do not prepare because I have all the notes. Some teachers have files full of lesson plans, but learners still complain of not being taught well, why I seen no need of the lesson plan, its best to use just notes.

TR5: Lesson preparation by using a lesson plan doesn't show the true picture of the lesson delivery in the class because we even teach things not in the plan.

TR6: Lesson preparation is not necessary if you already know what to do because lesson plans in the first place must be optional to people training at university or college and not mandatory tool because the important tools are syllabus, schemes of work and records of work.

TR7: Lesson planning is very stressful because after all I don't use it for the actual teaching in my class some, I don't usually write the plans. A teacher spends too much time writing lesson plan instead of teaching, I usually don't write these plans.

5.4.1. History Content taught in Secondary Schools (Syllabus)

Document study of the history syllabus was done in order to examine the content taught to learners. Thus, during data collections history syllabus for senior secondary was analysed to see what type of content learners were expected to learn. This was done to establish whether or not learners were introduced to the right content as stated by the Ministry of General Education. The topics have been presented according to the order and sequence in which they must be taught according to the syllabus. The themes in the syllabus are divided into topics, specific objectives, and content, which state what pupils should have achieved by the end of the course of instruction in each

grade. The study findings revealed that the major aim of the syllabus was to ensure that learners developed an understanding of the functions and roles of people and their cultures in the past and present. The syllabus also aimed at developing an understanding and appreciation of values traditions, technology, and education of learners. In addition, it aims at creating an awareness of human interactions with the environment and an awareness of the consequences of western European expansion. Furthermore, the syllabus aims at ensuring that learners understand social, political, economic, geographical, and historical factors which determine human beings progress (CDC, 2013).

5.4.2. Teachers' Familiarity with the Syllabus

The syllabus is an outline of work or topics and methods to be covered in a course for a given subject. It is a document design by government through its policy makers such as the Curriculum Development Centre to be used in schools in order to ensure consistency and guidance to subject teachers. As a result, the syllabus unifies studies in schools by limiting the scope of content taught and examination as government controls the content to be taught. Thus, through the use of face-to-face interviews it was essential in this study to examine the extent to which teachers were familiar with the history syllabus.

The findings of this study reveal that most long severing teachers demonstrated more and better understanding of the syllabus. They explained that the syllabus had a lot of gaps such as arrangements of content from grade 10 to 12 was not well done. Some even stated that the syllabus did not take into account the needs of learners as it starts from Southern African history followed by European history then Central African history. This is noted from the responses:

TR.8. I am very familiar with the units/topics in the syllabus such as African and European history. We teach under African History topics such as Migrations, Kingdoms, European history topic like Russian, China, and Second World War (teacher had been teaching for 15years).

TR.9. *I am familiar with the syllabus and its changes since 2013. The change basically is not much as the content is the same but what changed is the examination structure in that now you have one word answer questions, for example there can be a map with follow up questions and another section for essays (teacher had been teaching for 19years)*

The results of the study also show that some teachers lacked proper familiarity with the syllabus. They did not have any clear explanations on what the syllabus stated on the content to teach or how to teach the concepts. Some indicated that it was not their role to clearly understand the syllabus content but the duty of the heads of department and section heads. They stated that their role was to understand the schemes of work which is mainly a responsibility of the section head to write. This is illustrated by the following responses:

5.4.3. Quantitative Findings on Familiarity with Syllabus

Teachers were asked to answer a quantitative question by way of ticking their option on whether they were familiar with the history senior syllabus.

Table 8: Frequency and Percentage on Familiarity with History Senior Syllabus

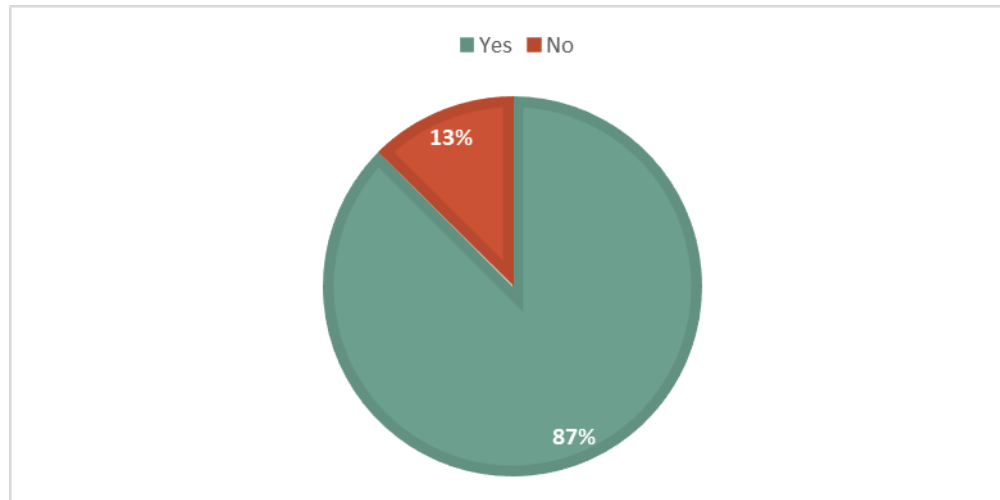
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Yes	45	93.75	93.75	93.75
No	3	6.25	6.25	6.25
Total	48	100	100	100

Source: Field Data 2021

The findings from table 8 above show that 93.75% of the respondents stated that they were familiar with the senior secondary history syllabus while 6.25% stated that they were not familiar with the syllabus. The few teachers who stated that they were not so familiar with the syllabus also noted that the main documents that they used in the teaching/learning process were the schemes of work, lesson plans, individual work plans, lesson notes and records of work which were prepared by the heads of

department. They also noted that most schools followed a common scheme of work hence there was no need for them to be aware of the syllabus. See Figure below.

Figure 4: Pupils' Familiarity with History Senior Syllabus.



Source: Field Data 2021

One of the themes that emerged from the study was to find out how familiar pupils were with the history syllabus. The results show that 87% of the pupils were aware of the syllabus components and clearly mentioned them as; Central African history, Southern African History and Europeans History, while others indicated that the syllabus was divided into African History and European history. The results show that 13% of the students failed to identify the kind of history in the syllabus.

5.4.4. Document Analysis on Senior Secondary History Syllabus

During data collection various documents were analysed such as syllabus, records of work, lesson plans and schemes of work used by teachers in schools. The syllabus was given special attention because of its value in ensuring that the right and correct historical content is delivered to the learners in schools. This was also important in order to find out the course outline taught to learners. The senior secondary school syllabus covers content to be taught from grade 10 to 12 as designed by the CDC through the MOE (CDC, 2015). Most teachers said that the content was too broad and hence they did not cover many of the topics in the syllabus. It is also interesting to

note that at grade 10 the history taught is Southern African, grade 11 centred on World History and grade 12 centred on Central African History.

5.5. Document Preparation of History Teachers in their Classes

One of the objectives of the study was to establish if history teachers were adequately prepared to teach in their classes. In order to answer this objective, lesson observation sheet and questionnaires were used in order to measure various variables under this objective. Firstly, teachers are trained to teach history in secondary schools from teacher training institutions such as Colleges of Education and Universities under the programme of Bachelor of Arts with Education in History (at the University of Zambia). During training of a teacher at college or University level, they are prepared in different courses to enable them to develop critical professional and pedagogical content knowledge to help them deliver lessons effectively to learners. Professional documents such as scheme of work, lesson plan, records of work and tests are vital in ensuring that teachers effectively teach their lessons to pupils. In order to effectively teach the lesson, teachers are required and trained on how and why they should prepare professional documents. The training of how to prepare professional documents is also done during the period that teachers are in university or college level.

5.5.1. Preparation of Professional Documents

Through face-to-face interviews most of the teachers stated that preparing of professional documents was vital in the teaching/learning of history. They explained that lesson professional documents are most appropriate in enabling the teaching to be logical, systematic, and also to enhance the contextualization of the content to the learners' needs. They also added that professional documents enable the teacher to plan for activities for learners such as class exercises and homework taking into account the pupils' backgrounds and learning needs. They note that professional documents help teachers to select, prepare and use appropriate teaching, learning resources and methods. The responses were coded as TR to represent teacher. All the teachers interviewed were drawn from the 12 schools. The following were some of the positive responses from selected teachers.

TR.10. Professional documents are very important and need to be prepared prior to the lesson delivery or during the holidays. This helps to know the methods, content, learners' needs and the period when to teach. Learners have learning differences so the documents will help to indicate what you need to do.

TR.12. Schemes of work, lesson plans and records of work should be prepared show us the content, methods, and materials that we should use when teaching in the term or year. It became so easy to prepare for the lessons when I am not in school someone can easily stand in for me. So as a teacher we just need these documents because they made teaching an easy job.

TR.13. I prepare professional documents because they are a replica of what is in the syllabus as they help to breakdown the content and how to teach the content. One can only measure their teaching by using the professional documents.

Further, the findings of this study reveal that some history teachers despite preparing professional documents thought that it was not necessary to do so. Based on their responses, teachers explained that the process of preparation of the document was involving and wastage of time for delivery of lessons. The teachers revealed that the vital aspect in teaching was someone understands of the subject matter and experience one serviced. The following are selected summaries of responses from teachers obtained from face-to-face interviews.

TR.14. There is too much paperwork when preparing these professional documents, as a result teachers have limited time to research and prepare adequately for the lessons.

TR.15. Sometimes we are given unnecessary responsibilities, a teacher cannot even prepare adequately and the results of this are poor lesson delivery which leads to learners not able to acquire the knowledge. Preparing professional documents especially lesson planning is too much and involving, hence teachers use lesson notes.

5.6. Selection and Sequencing of Secondary School History Content Knowledge

With regard to how history teachers select and sequence content knowledge that is taught in the classroom, a questionnaire and face to face interviews were done. The findings of the study show that some of the key aspects to be taken into account include background of learners, teaching from the known to unknown, teaching and learning aids and objective of the lesson. Such teachers showed clear understanding of the syllabus and how to sieve the content into actual teaching. The following were some of the responses:

TR.17. I just go through the syllabus, then try to break it down into smaller topics into the scheme of work then into lesson plan but mainly we have a common scheme as a school made available by the HODS.

TR.18. Using my experience of being in the service for 13 years and being section head for history it's my responsibility to ensure that teacher's critical breakdown through scheming the various content to be taught to the pupils.

While on the other side, some teachers appeared to lack the knowhow of how to sieve the content. Teachers who faced challenges of sieving the content stated that the syllabus was designed to be followed as it was and did not see the need of selecting or screening the content. Consider the following responses:

TR.19. Ministry of Education should understand that as teachers we have a lot of classes so the best, I do is just to follow what is in the syllabus. The syllabus has everything that I need so I just follow it.

TR.20. Madam (Ms. Machila), the syllabus is well sequenced and orderly so it's difficult to start changing things.

In order to further establish the aspect on how historical content knowledge is sieved before teachers' delivery their lessons, a questionnaire was given to teachers. Below is a table showing the responses. Teachers were asked to tick the appropriate box in front of each item. This is in line with the quantitative data. See table 11 below (next page).

As shown in the table 11, the cumulative figure for those who disagreed on guidance by national curriculum which is basically the government was 10.3% while 85% agreed. The respondents who agreed when asked on their consideration of syllabus as a tool to guide what they teach were 88%, while 13% disagreed. Those who note that the final examination was a criterion they used for selection of the material was 83% while 17% disagreed. Those who consider the learners' experiences and background before selecting what to teach the number of those who agreed was 33% while 85.4% and uncertain 6.2%. Choose the teaching learning activities based on the available resources for history in the school those who disagreed were 20.8% while agreed 79.1% and those respondents who used time available as a base on what to teach agreed were 74.9% while 18% disagreed and 6.25 were uncertain. On disagreed having power on what to teach 81.2% disagreed, while 12.29 agreed. Respondents who felt that there were a lot of history materials that could be used in the teaching/learning of history in schools agreed 52% while 37.4% disagreed and 10.4 were uncertain. The table below depicts these statistics vividly.

Table 8: History Teachers Sieve the various Historical Content

No	Items	SD		DA		UC		A		SA		Cumulative	
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	Disagree %	Agree %
1.	I am guided by the National Curriculum while selecting the teaching activities	3	6.2%	2	4.1%	2	4.1%	22	45.8%	19	39.5%	10.3%	85%
2.	I consider the syllabus material before selecting the teaching content	3	6.2%	3	6.2%	0	0%	12	25%	30	62.5%	13%	88%
4.	The final examination has an impact upon my selection of the learning materials and content	5	10.4%	3	6.2%	0	0%	7	14.5%	33	68.7%	17%	83%
5.	I consider the learners' experiences and background before selecting what to teach	1 1	47.9 %	1 8	37.5 %	3	6.2%	10	20.8 %	6	12.5%	85.4%	33%
6.	I choose the teaching learning activities based on the available resources for history in the school	5	10.4%	5	10.4%	0	0%	6	12.5%	32	66.6%	20.8%	79.1%
7.	I am not influenced by anyone as I have the power to choose what to teach	1 5	31.2 %	2 4	50%	0	0%	3	6%	6	6.2%	81.2%	12.2%
8.	I consider the amount of time I have to determine what I teach	5	10.4%	4	8.3%	3	6.25%	11	22.9%	25	52%	18.7%	74.9%
9.	I feel that there are a lot of history materials that can be used in the teaching/learning of history in schools	1 1	22.9 %	7	14.5 %	5	10.4%	8	16.6 %	17	35.4%	%	52%

The findings of the study further show that the selection of historical contents at grade 10 (Southern African History) starts with the geographical set up of Southern African, followed by state formation and ended with the liberation movements and nation building. The content for grade 11 (World history) sequence and scope starts with the geography of world states and ends with contemporary issues such as gender-based violence, conflicts in Rwanda and Middle East Coast. The senior secondary school history syllabus sequence for grade 12 (Central African) starts with geographical features of Central Africa, followed by migrations, and ends with liberation movements. The time frame of course is offered over a period of three (3) years and each class taking history is allocated four (4) periods per week, each period lasting forty (40) minutes.

5.7. Pedagogical Practices Utilised in Teaching History to Ensure Effective Teaching

The qualitative document study findings from the senior secondary school history syllabus grade 10-12 acknowledges the following as some of teaching and learning methodologies:

- Desk and field research
- Role play/drama
- Debate
- Teacher exposition
- Learning and teaching aids
- Question and answer

Further, qualitative research was done using face to face interviews on what methods history teachers used when teaching the subject. The study findings indicates that most teachers used questions and answers and the lecture method as two of the easy approaches. It was also observed that the two methods were also more user friendly in that the teacher would cover more syllabus work. The following were some of the respondents' views:

Tr.21. *My class has a lot of pupils so in most cases I use class discussion, question and answer and teacher exposition.*

Tr.22. *We mainly use question and answer and teacher exposition because we don't have enough teaching aids.*

Tr.23. *I try to use and enjoy debate method, role play but in reality, I cannot do away with lecture method, discussion and question and answer method.*

Quantitative research was further done; in order to determine the extent to which various teaching/learning methods are used by teachers using a questionnaire. Participants were asked to tick in the box how often they used the method in their teaching. Table 12 below shows that 58.2% of the respondents agreed to often use of the question-and-answer method, while 33.3% disagreed and 8.3% were uncertain. 68.7% disagreed to the use of demonstration while 22.9% agreed and 8.3% were uncertain. Those who agreed to the use of project method were 22.5% while 71% disagreed and 14.5% were uncertain. Of the 48 respondent 79.1% agreed to the use of lecture method, while 16.6% disagreed and 4.1% were uncertain. Those who agreed to use of ICTs was 39.5% while 60.4% disagreed. 70.7% agreed to use of assignments while 12.4% disagreed. 50.1% of the respondents agreed to use of class discussion while 37.5% disagreed and 13% were natural. Those who agreed to the use of role play were 23.3% while 81% disagreed and 4% were uncertain. To the use of stories those who agreed were 52%, while 39.5% disagreed and uncertain 4.3%. 70.1% disagreed to use of games and 29.1% agreed. 10.3% of the respondents agreed to use of Field Trips while 89.5% disagreed.

Table 9: Frequency and Percentage on Methods used in History Teaching

No	Items	SD		DA		UC		A		SA		Cumulative	
		F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	Disagree %	Agree %
	Question and												
1	Answer	11	22.9%	5	10.4%	4	8.3%	9	18.7%	19	39.5%	33.3%	58.2%
2	Demonstration	27	56.2%	6	12.5%	4	8.3%	6	12.5%	5	10.4%	68.7%	22.9%
3	Project	25	67%	2	4%	10	21%	4	8%	7	14.5%	71%	22.5%
4	Lecture Methods	5	10.4%	3	6.2%	2	4.1%	3	6.2%	35	72.9%	16.6%	79.1%
5	Group work	6	12.5%	9	18.7%	2	4.1%	9	18.7%	22	45.8%	31.2%	64.5%
6	Pictures	23	48%	7	15%	5	10%	6	13%	7	15%	63%	28%
7	ICTS (computer, internet, PowerPoint etc)	24	50%	5	10.4%	0	0%	3	6.2%	16	33.3%	60.4%	39.5%
8	Assignments	4	8.3%	2	4.1%	8	16.6%	20	41.6%	14	29.1%	12.4%	70.7%
9	Class discussion	7	14.5%	11	23%	6	13%	10	21%	14	29.1%	37.5%	50.1%
10	Role Play	34	79%	1	2%	2	4%	7	15%	4	8.3%	81%	23.3%
11	Stories	13	27%	6	12.5%	4	4.3%	10	20.8%	15	31.2%	39.5%	52%
12	Games	32	66.6%	2	4.1%	0	0%	5	10.4%	9	18.7%	70.1%	29.1%
13	Field Trips	43	89.5%	0	0%	0	0%	2	4.1%	3	6.2%	89.5%	10.3%

Source: Field Data 2021

5.8. Teachers' and Learners' Attitudes towards Teaching History

Teachers' attitude towards teaching of history is an important requirement in enforcing effective teaching/learning. Thus, one of the themes that emerged from the findings was on the attitude of teachers towards the subject. The findings reveal that most teachers had a negative attitude towards teaching the subject. They explained that the subject was too broad, complex and in most cases boring to teach. The negative attitude of teachers can also be noted in the curriculum change where history has been made as an optional subject at national level and removal of the subject as a standalone at junior secondary (Grade 8 and 9) where history is integrated as with Geography and Civic Education as Social Studies. Negative proponents of history argue that the subject should be taught under Social Studies because history as a subject is too remote from the experiences of the pupils. History does not teach pupils about their daily experiences in society. Further, they argue that in the global world we need to teach subjects that can give pupils jobs upon completion of grade 12.

5.9. Teaching for Testing/Examination

The study revealed that the teaching of the subject lack's learner-centred methods and in some cases content knowledge. This was clearly evident from the lesson observations as most teachers were testing learners in their teaching and not delivering the lesson content. From the lesson observation the study observed that teachers focused on making sure that learners passed the assessments and final examinations. The teachers did not prepare learners for obtaining the historical knowledge that they required but that learners needed to learn to pass. Some of the comments observed were:

TR.24. Can you pay attention, why are you making noise when I am teaching? I will be giving you a test next week and when you fail, I will punish you!

TR.25. Boys and Girls this topic is an important (topic: great trekkers) so you must listen well when I am explaining that why I put you in the groups so that you discuss

in detail, these are some of the questions that may come in the final examination: Can you pay attention I will be bring this question in the exam?

The findings above from the lesson observations were similar to the results from the face-to-face interviews with the teachers. Most teachers noted that the teaching/learning process in schools is aimed at passing end of term tests and final grade 12 examinations. It was also noted that in some schools the main aim was to ensure that the standards and quality of the school were kept maintained. One teacher stated that:

TR.26. *“You see madam.... here the key thing is passing at the end of the day because performance analysis is done at the end of the final examination results by class and grade, this means that a teacher can be exposed when if the learners fail the examination. So, the Head teachers and the managements always want the name of the school to be classified as one of the best and maintain standards in comparison to other schools. When learners in my class perform better, the PTA/School gives awards to the teachers too. So that focuses us to work hard.”*

Another teacher (TR27) had this to say, *“We teach to impart knowledge to the learners and also skills, but on the other hand they should also pass the final examinations because Head teachers scold at us if learners fail”*.

5.10. Challenges faced in Teaching and Learning History

With regard to the challenges faced by the learning in understanding the subject matter, a number of reasons were given. The research question was asked in order to get a clear picture of challenges that learners faced in the subject area. Learner' responses were coded as L to represent a learner and a number to represent the views. When the learners and teachers were asked the question on challenges, this was these were some of their answers;

LEARNERS

L1: *I like to study and learn history only that it is too involving as you have to study a lot of things*

L2: *“Madam (Ms Machila), history is a hard subject you need a good teacher to explain and things for knowing years and the story are hard”.*

L3: *“The subject is hard but if you know how to write essays and find time to study it one can easily pass it”.*

TEACHERS

TR.28. *“I think one of the biggest challenges we face in history is there are too many topics to teach”.*

TR.29. *“Teaching materials such as textbooks are few in the school and some do not have the recommended topics in the syllabus. Most cases as a teacher you have to use personal resources and books are expensive”.*

TR.30. *“The challenge is history is a broad subject and pupils have to study a lot of topics and here we hence limited resources and high teacher-pupil ratio”.*

5.11. Learners Academic Performance in History in the Period 2011 to 2020

This section presents the analysis and interpretations of the quantitative findings on the second research area of the study; determine if there was any difference between content based education and outcome based education curriculums in history from 2011 to 2020 in the 6 selected schools in Lusaka district. In order to measure the statistical significance of the differences between the content-based education and outcome based, learners were drawn from selected secondary schools who sat for the final examination from 2011 to 2020. A total of 8,276 made up the sample. See table 13 below.

Table 10: Frequency and Percentage distributions according to Syllabus type and Pupils who wrote the History Final Secondary school certificate examination.

Syllabus Type	F	%
Content Based Curriculum 2011-2015	Paper I & II-5895	71.23
Outcome Based Curriculum 2016-2020	Paper I & II- 2381	28.77
Total	8,276	100

The table 13 shows the frequency and percentage distribution of pupils who sat for the final examination in the period 2011 to 2020 according to the syllabus types. The table shows that in the period from 2011 to 2015 under the content-based curriculum a total of 5895 sat for the examination which gave a 71. 23%, while in the period 2016 to 2020 the number of pupils reduced to 2381 giving a total of those who sat at 28.77%.

Table 11: Percentage and grade distribution School History Certificate

RANGE	GRADE	DESCRIPTION
75%-100%	1	Distinction
70%-74%	2	Distinction
65%-69%	3	Distinction
60%-64%	4	Merit
55%-59%	5	Credit
50%-54%	6	Credit
45%-49%	7	Pass
40%-44%	8	Pass
0%-39%	9	Fail

Source: ECZ 2021 Performance Report

The table 14 shows performance according to grade distribution. The grades are grouped in five categories namely, Distinction, Merit, Credit, Pass and Fail. It is important to note that history has two components at final examination; African History which is divided into Central and Southern African history coded as paper one, the other coded as paper two which is World History. Each paper is marked out of 100%, meaning total final mark for history is out of 200%. This grading system is used to determine the required points that a student can qualify to further their studies at college or university level.

Table 12: Description Statistic for Performance of History by Type of School

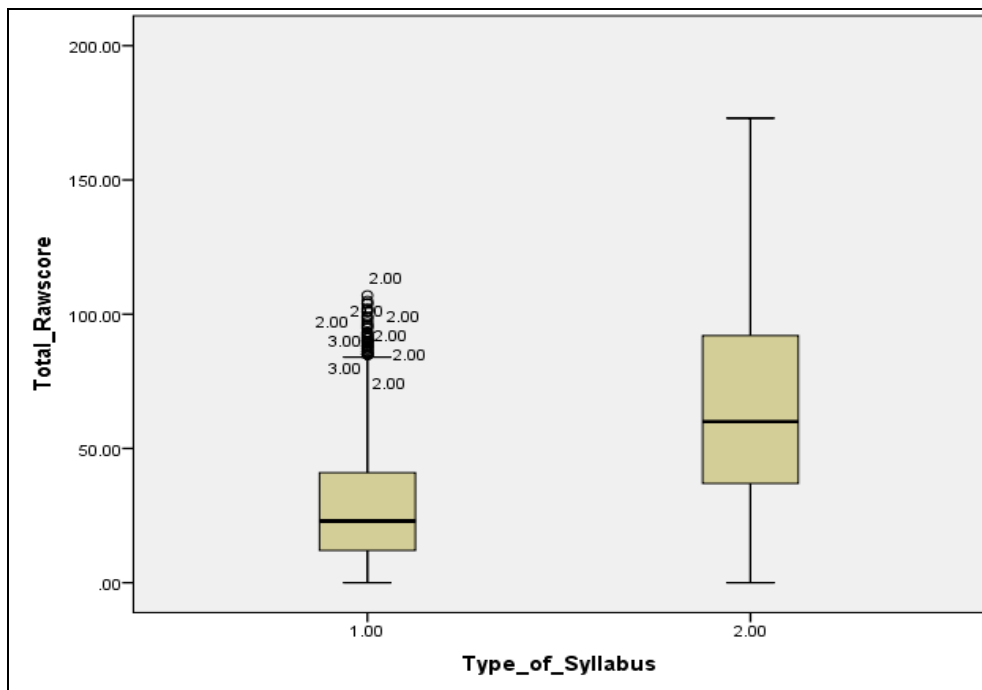
YEAR	GOVT SCHOOL		GRANT-AIDED		PRIVATE		TOTAL	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
CBE								
2011	19.87	16.38	56.39	15.08	49.19	18.34	23.69	19.59
2012	20.11	15.93	74.04	17.12	44.37	14.77	24.87	21.34
2013	25.56	16.09	67.43	13.67	48.1	14.78	30.02	19.83
2014	27.57	17.01	67.65	13.88	51.63	23.37	33.05	21.44
2015	26.62	16.8	61.45	13.4	48.39	14.68	31.03	19.62
Total	23.95	16.44	65.39	14.63	48.34	17.19	28.53	20.36
OBE								
2016	53.38	29.79	109.71	25.63	88.06	27.23	60.88	34.05
2017	94.36	34.33	136.27	20.08	111.47	24.7	100.31	35.15
2018	57.5	25.95	108.4	27.91	103.63	20.62	68.31	32.74
2019	49.49	24.75	89.8	24.01	70.47	26.49	53.95	27.34
2020	43.49	23.5	89.69	27.2	69.52	26.33	47.74	26.93
Total	59.64	27.66	106.77	24.97	88.63	25.07	66.24	31.24

M=Mean SD=Standard Deviation CBE=Content Based Education OBE=Outcome Based Education

In order to determine whether there were statistically significant mean differences between content-based education and outcome-based education in general certificate history, a one-way ANOVA was used. The results in table 15 shows that history learners performed statistically better on outcome-based education ($M 66.24$ and $SD 31.24$) as compared to content-based education ($M 28.53$, $SD20.36$). The mean difference observed was statistically significant ($(1, 8275) = 3699.92$, $p<0.01$, $eta=0.96$).

Figure 5 below shows that there are statistically significant differences between the outcomes-based education and the content based. It is clear that while some learners may have performed well in content-based education syllabus there was a statistically significant different in syllabus 2 as learners ‘performance was much better.

Figure 5: Type of Syllabus



To answer the objective on how demographic characteristics influence secondary school history academic performance as a function of school type and syllabus a multiple regression analysis was used (*see table 16 below*). The results of the regression show that in model I the variables used were 3; school type, gender, and age and that the model was a significant predictor of academic performance, R

squared= 0,136, while model 2 predictors were 4; school type, gender, age, and type of syllabus. The model 2 shows R squared= 0.432 that there was a much better statistical significance in learner performance when type of syllabus was added to model 1. Further, the results of the analysis show that model 2 was significantly better than model 1 in terms of the type of syllabi as it had a great influence on learner achievement in the school history performance.

Table 16: Summary of Regression Results of Demographic factors on Performance

Model	Predictor	B	Beta	R²	AdjustedR²	SEE
Model 1	Type of Syllabus	0.369		0.136	0.136	29.48605
	Age	-2.327	-0.37			
	Gender	-0.036	-0.026			
	School Type	20.802	0.364			
Model 2	Type of Syllabus	38.130	.544	0.431	0.432	23.91641
	Age	-026	-018			
	Gender	-3.146	-049			
	School Type	21.991	.345			

The study further sought to determine if there was any statistically significant difference between paper I and paper II and syllabus type. Table 17 below shows the difference of the learners' performance based on the syllabus type and the type of paper. The results showed a significant difference in the two syllabus types and papers. The findings in the table show that history learners performed statistically better under outcome based education in both papers, paper I scores of performance ($M=32.91$ and $SD=18.97$) and paper II ($M=33.76$, $SD=19.81$) compared to content based education paper I which is Central and Southern African History ($M =13.51$, $SD=10.88$) while paper II which is World History ($M=14.22$, $SD =11.20$).

Table 17: Description statistics by Syllabus type & Paper type

	<i>CBC</i>	<i>OBC</i>
Paper I	<i>M</i>	13.51
	<i>SD</i>	10.88
Paper II	<i>M</i>	14.22
	<i>SD</i>	11.20

M=Mean SD=Standard Deviation CBC=Content Based Curriculum OBC=Outcome Based Curriculum

Table 18 below shows the descriptive statistical analysis for the academic performance of grade 12 learners by gender in the period 2011 to 2020. In order to determine whether or not there was any statistical mean significant difference in the performance of grade 12 learners between the males and females a two-way ANOVA was used. The findings of the study are interesting in that there was less statistical significant difference between males ($M=27.73$, $SD=20.42$) and females ($M=27.72$, $SD=21.06$) in the Content based curriculum. The opposite was the case in the Outcome based curriculum as males' ($M=72.75$, $SD =38.38$) performance was statistically better than females ($M=60.16$, $SD=33.85$). Further, the results in the table show that history learners performed statistically better on Outcome based education ($M=66.67$ and $SD= 36.79$) as compared to content based education ($M =27.3$, $SD=20.71$).

Table 18: Description Statistics by Syllabus type by Gender

TYPE_OF_SYLLABUS	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
<i>CBC</i>	27.73	20.42	27.72	21.06	27.73	20.71
<i>OBC</i>	72.75	38.38	60.16	33.85	66.67	36.79
TOTAL	40.25	33.42	37.42	29.56	38.93	31.72

M=Mean SD=Standard Deviation CBC=Content Based Curriculum OBC=Outcome Based Curriculum

As shown in table 19 below a two-way ANOVA was conducted to analyse the effect of type of syllabus and gender on academic performance of history grade 12 learners who sat for the national school certificate in the period 2011 to 2020. There was a statistically significant interaction between the effects of type of syllabus and gender on academic performance ($f=97.79$, $df= 1.0$, $p=0.00$, $eta=0.01$). Simple main effects analysis showed that type of syllabus had a statistically significant effect on academic performance ($p = 0.10$). Simple main effects analysis showed that gender did have a statistically significant effect on academic performance ($p = 0.50$). Thus, the results revealed that type of syllabus had a greater influence as effect size was ($eta= 0.97$ than gender $eta= 0.50$).

Table 19: Effect size of type of Syllabus & Gender

SOURCE	SOS	DF	MS	F	P	ES
INTERCEPT	14,997,351.66	1.00	14,997,351.66	223.05		1.00
	67,237.39	1.00	67237.39a		0.04	
TYPE_OF_SYLLABUS	2,536,095.81	1.00	2,536,095.81	37.92		0.97
	66,877.84	1.00	66877.836b		0.10	
GENDER	67,237.39	1.00	67,237.39	1.01		0.50
	66,877.84	1.00	66877.84b		0.50	
TYPE_OF_SYLLABUS	66,877.84	1.00	66,877.84	97.79		0.01
* GENDER					0.00	
	5,655,652.01	8,270.00	683.88c			

5.12. Learner Performance in History According to ECZ

The table 20 below shows the various categories of learners and their characteristics of the writing and answering skills in the final examination. The learners were grouped in three; high performing, average performing and low performing candidates. The high performing candidates are those pupils who scored from 1-2 placed under distinction, those who scored from 2-3 were in placed under merit, average performing pupils were those who scored from 5-6 (credit) and 7-9 (pass to fail) were grouped under low performing candidates. See table 21 below:

Table 13: Characteristics of Learner Performance in History Groupings

No.	Variable	Characteristics
	High Performing Candidates	Adherence to instructions. Ability to present their work in an organized manner. The candidates applied the historical knowledge to the real-life situation very well. The structure of the paper was favourable to the candidates.
	Average Performing Candidates	Fairly presented essays. Incomplete work in most parts of one word answer Scanty knowledge about subject matter Generally, lack of knowledge in depth and answering out of context. Failure to demonstrate good Interpretation of questions and to give correct answers. Fairly exhibited appropriate techniques to explain phenomena in relation to the subject matter. Failure to give clear distinctions on concepts.
	Low Performing Candidates	Poor writing skills particularly observed in essay questions. Failure to display knowledge with regard to subject matter Lack of historical knowledge/facts Inability to interpret questions

Source: ECZ Examination Performance 2020.

5.13. Summary

The chapter has presented the findings of the study. The findings of the study indicate that most history teachers were not well prepared for their classes. This was seen from the lesson observations and the interviews as most teachers did not like preparation of lesson plans as they noted that there was too much paperwork in the teaching profession. Other results revealed that teachers and learners did not pose any power and control in influencing the content taught in the curriculum because as noted by Basil Bernstein theory on classification and framing of knowledge. This study notes that teachers were just end users as they were only involved in the implementation process of the curriculum. The findings further show that modern methods such as ICTs, project methods, games and field trips were in most cases not often used by teachers, while the lecture methods and question and answer were mostly used.

CHAPTER SIX: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

6.1. Overview

This chapter discusses the findings that were presented in chapter five. The chapter builds on the previous chapter and takes into consideration the relevant literature. Further, the chapter takes into account Basil Bernstein's lens and how the findings speak to the theory. Firstly, discussion is made on teacher preparedness and the pedagogical practices in history. This is followed by a discussion on the history curriculum. The chapter discusses and interprets the findings thematically. The chapter concludes with a summary.

6.2. Teacher Preparedness

The first objective of the study was to ascertain the lesson preparedness of history teachers in their classes. In order to deal with this objective, the main question was how do teachers prepare for history lessons for their classes? Various themes emerged from this objective: lesson preparedness, history content taught and familiarity with the syllabus.

6.2.1. Lesson Preparedness

With regards to teacher lesson preparedness, the findings of the study shows that there were various notions and opinions on this question, while a few teachers responded that they planned and prepared their lessons adequately, most teachers did not see the relevance of preparation. Those who said that preparation was important noted that it helps in motoring and evaluating the activities done by the teacher. They also noted that through planning a teacher can organise best and appropriate teaching/learning objectives, materials, and methods. This is in line with Taylor and Young (2003) who note that History is a complex task encompassing the transformation of the subject matter into a form that enables learners to gain meaning, while at the same time retaining the integrity of the subject. Equally, Aggarwal

(2013) agrees with Taylor and Young (2003) that in order to ensure effective lesson preparation, a teacher of History must have sound knowledge of the subject.

On the other hand, during the interview some teachers indicated that they did not adequately prepare for lessons. Some teachers stated that lesson preparation was involving, and they did not appreciate it as it took most of their time required for lesson delivery. Most of them recommended the use of lesson notes over lesson plans. Most of them stated that the lesson planning process was a mere aspect that did not add any value to the final grade of the learners as delivery was the vital one. These findings have diverse implications on the quality of History taught in schools. This observation is consistent with Yilmaz (2008), who argues that History teachers should understand substantive and syntactic dimensions of History as a discipline. Subsequently, this requires History teachers to prepare their lesson plans in order to know the historical knowledge to be taught, the structure of the discipline and the method to be used.

6.2.2. History Content Taught

The findings show that the History content taught in secondary schools is prepared by the Ministry of Education through the Curriculum Development Centre. An analysis of the Zambia Education Curriculum Framework (2013) shows that history is an optional subject. In addition, the findings of the study show that the purpose of school history and epistemological orientation is focused on a disciplinary history. The findings are in agreement with Bertram's (2021) study in South African history syllabus that centred on how learners develop an interest in studying the past, developing knowledge about and understanding the past. Similarly, the history secondary school syllabus focuses on learners applying historical knowledge and evaluating historical information to determine their authenticity. In critiquing the teaching of History in Zambian secondary schools, it can be clearly stated that history in Zambia has been undermined in the carrier pathways. One of the reasons why History as a subject has been undermined is the lack of the involvement of teachers in the curriculum development processes (Mwanza, 2015). This is in line with

Bernstein's lens on code, which denotes the regulative principle which underlies the various message systems, for instance curriculum and pedagogy (Atkinson, 1985 quoted Okeefe, 2014). According to Bernstein (1979), Curriculum is valid knowledge while pedagogy forms how the valid knowledge is transmitted. Similarly, Sandovnik (2001:4) contends that Bernstein's notion of code must be understood in terms of the concepts of classification and framing. Using the notion of classification and framing, classification which is basically government control over the curriculum and framing as the control teachers and learners have on the curriculum (Bertram, 2008; Bernstein, 2000).

The findings of the study are in line with Bernstein's notion of classification, in that, MOE and CDC have legitimate power through the government over what is coined in History curriculum. In this case classification can be seen as government's power over the History curriculum through laws, rules, and regulations such as educational policies. The legitimate power of a government determines and controls the type of History taught in the classroom in secondary schools. Zambia is a very good example of Bernstein's lens of classification as can be seen from a shift from political ideologies. For instance, during the United National Independence Party (UNIP)'s rule (1964-1991), there was a shift from the British educational ideology that was based on racial segregation to that of Socialist Humanism ideology, which focused on national and economic development (Leinonen, 2001). In this sense, the findings also coincide with the curriculum changes in 2015 in which Zambia changed the curriculum from a content based under the Movement for Multiparty Democracy (MMD) rule (1991-2011), to Competency Based Curriculum under the Patriotic Front (PF) government rule (2011-2021).

6.2.3. Familiarity with the Syllabus

The findings particularly on familiarity with the History syllabus review that most teachers were familiar with the syllabus content while a few were not familiar. Considering that History is one of the recommended subjects, it is important that teachers teaching the subjects must be aware of what should be taught. According to Bernstein (1973) framing is concerned with the control teachers and learners have

over the formulation and later, the implementation of the syllabus. In the context of this study, in order for teachers to clearly teach the subject matter, they must be able to frame the syllabus content, which simply implies that they must be able to contextualise the content in the syllabus in order for them to deliver the knowledge.

Correspondingly, lack of familiarity of the History syllabus by teachers and learners implies that most of them fail to grasp the content and learn respectively. First and foremost, if the teacher does not have a clear knowledge of the syllabus components, it is difficult to implement it. On the other hand, learners' failure rate at final examination at grade 12 can be attributed to the learners' unfamiliarity with what is taught. The findings are consistent with Wineburg (2001), who observes that History teachers need to have a thorough understanding of the nature of history as domain of knowledge, in that epistemological beliefs affect not only the approaches to reading and understanding Historical texts but also their instructional practices.

According to MOE (2015), the teacher of History must be familiar with the History syllabus content in order to effectively teach the subject. This is one of the expectations of the government through policy makers. Teachers have a responsibility for adopting and implementing the goals of the History syllabus, hence a teacher must be conversant with what to teach in the classroom. Drake and Nelson (2009) also agree that teachers of History need to know the purpose of History and teach it to the educational level required and this can be attained only by knowing the syllabus content.

In critiquing the teaching of History, the content that is taught to would be History teachers in Universities and Colleges of education leaves a lot to be desired. For instance, at the University of Zambia, according to the findings of this study, student teachers in the School of Education are compelled to take History under School of Humanities and Social Sciences where in most cases the courses that are meant to implement the syllabus at secondary school level are made optional, for instance, Southern African History. Inappropriate content and inadequate student preparation in training institutions is a major factor in ensuring effective appreciation of the syllabus content. In similar studies, Masaiti and Manchishi (2011) and Mwanza (2016) allude

to the fact that an unrelated subject content taught to students in higher learning institutions has diverse effects such as non-attainment of specific objectives, at secondary school level.

6.3. Sieving Historical Content Knowledge

Regarding how history teachers sieve, select, and sequence the various historical content knowledge that is taught in the classroom, the results of the study show that there were divided opinions and responses on how teachers sieve the various historical content knowledge from the syllabus. While a few teachers indicated that they did not have challenges on how they sieved, others faced a number of problems. By sieving, this study means how history teachers select, sequence and screen content and instructions of learning for pupils. Those who said that they did not face any challenges explained that using their experience in the teaching service they were able to sieve the historical content using the training they had acquired from college or university and understood that the syllabus was a general guide and needed to use various skills to select, sequence and screen the content to be taught.

The study findings show that most of the teachers were guided by the national curriculum to select what they taught in the classroom. In other words, they did not have full control of what was taught in the classroom. Further, the study results show that the selection of the content taught is influenced by both internal and external factors. Some internal factors highlighted in the results school learning environment, final examination performance of learners, time available in a given term and available resources in the school. At the same time, the study notes external factors such as political influences and government interference through institutions such as Curriculum Development Centre and Examination Council of Zambia as the key developers of the content. It is interesting to note that framing was also dependent on the school type, for instance in private and grant aided schools there was more room for learners to interact and influence the pedagogical practices in terms of the communication than in government schools.

Further, the findings of the study show that the Zambian senior secondary school syllabus is influenced by geographical and political spaces that the curriculum reflects and centred on a boarder African history and national building, broader range on World topics such as Unification of Germany, World War One and Two, Russian history, China etc. Additionally, it is remarkable to note that the Zambian senior secondary school syllabus follows a chronological ordering of topics across each year from grade 10 to 12. The chronological pattern in each grade starts with the beginning of each school year and continues to the end. Therefore, the teaching of history involves sequencing of events in context of time, to include an understanding of cause-and-effect relationships and continuity and change over time. This is an approach which is mainly referred to as chronological order which helps teachers to have a proper way of teaching and allow pupils to relate to the concepts taught. In order to make history more attractive to pupils, there is need to present the facts in a chronological way for easy understanding. The chorological approach has been criticised for its inadequacy in coverage and lack of depth (Tew, 2014). According to Hempel (1985) quoted in Tew (2014) the approach is insignificant for instance, when explaining through time period or event, multiple opinions and accounts of an event are not recognized.

Additionally, the results of the study show that the pattern of teaching topics is focused on universal knowledge of historical concepts. Universal history presents concepts as a coherent unit and traces history from past to present. Thus, the senior secondary school syllabus contains a substantial body of knowledge divided into three. Using Bernstein's' lens of recontextualising, which basically considers valuable knowledge by selecting and sequencing, the study notes that the secondary school history is focused on African history and World history. This kind of history is centred on producing a learner who understands and interprets national, regional, and international history. The findings of this study are in line with Bertram (2021) who noted that the selection and sequencing of knowledge is influenced by internal and external factors. This study's findings are similar to the selection and sequencing of South African and Zimbabwean school history. As noted by Bertram (2021), in South

Africa and Zimbabwe, school history covers international, African, and national history and seems primarily geared towards developing both global citizenship and ways of thinking historically. The opposite is the case with Kenya and Rwanda where the purpose of school history is nation building.

According to the Examination Council of Zambia Report (2020) the School Certificate Examination Ordinary Level Certificate awards are categorised into the following: School Certificate, General Certificate of Education and Fail. A School Certificate (SC) is awarded to a candidate who, at one sitting, and during the same examination; passes in at least six subjects, including English Language, with credit in at least one of them; or passes in five subjects, including English Language, with credit in at least two of them. A candidate who obtains grade one to eight in at least one subject, but fails to meet the School Certificate requirements, is awarded a General Certificate of Education (GCE). A candidate who scores Grade 9 in all subjects will have failed the examination.

6.4. Pedagogical Practices Utilised in Teaching History

To achieve the goal of teaching, history teachers must adopt effective methods in the education system. The study findings revealed that some teachers lacked pedagogical principles and in some cases content knowledge. This was clearly evident from the lesson observations as most teachers were testing learners in their teaching and not delivering the lesson content (See Appendix I). The teacher has many options to choose from different teaching techniques designed specifically for teaching and learning. The teaching method should be adopted on the basis of certain criteria such as pupils' prior knowledge of the subject matter, the learning environment, time, and set goals for learning. Good teachers believe that every pupil goes to school in order to have a clear understanding of concepts. Just like Zambia, according to Bertram (2008), South Africa has undergone a paradigm shift in terms of pedagogy from that of a theory of instruction focused on the teacher to that of the learner. She further notes that in South Africa, there is a strong emphasis on conceptual rather than factual knowledge with an emphasis on cognitive skills of understanding and analysing.

This study noted that most of the methods that arose learners' interest in history were rarely used by most of the teachers. The most commonly used methods were lecture method, question and answer and discussion method. The lecture method is an old traditional method that does not encourage learner engagement and participation. It allows learners to be passive and not active members of the lesson. It is also important to note that discussion methods according to the findings of the study using observation were teacher-led. Similarly question and answer methods were also controlled by the teacher as it was driven by the teacher supremacy and authority. The qualitative data collected was consistent with the quantitative data in which 58.2% agreed to the use of question and answer while 33.3% disagreed. Then, 79.1% agreed to the use of lecture method while 16.6% disagreed. The findings of this study are in line with Boadu (2016) whose study points out that effective teaching of history in Ghanaian schools has long been blighted by problems and challenges that have often gone unaddressed such as poor administration and lack of effective pedagogical approaches. As observed by Ragland (2007) most history teachers fail to avoid teacher-centred methods when delivering lessons. He recommends that teachers must 'do' history, meaning involving learners in historical thinking skills by engagement of learners in methods that are centred on them such as research. Young (2007) reports that group discussion must be more meaningful and participatory in order for learners to fully benefit. In a similar vein, Brown (2009) recommends that teachers must give learners time for thinking and use the appropriate methods such as historical films for learners' understanding of historical knowledge. In short, it can be argued that history teachers as noted by Dynneson, and Gross (1999) must desire to excite and engage learners in different perspectives by using pupil centred methods.

Given such a position that teachers must use various learner-centred methods, this study argues for using Bernstein's recontextualisation notion that teachers have the power and control at the level of lesson planning to use and engage learner-centred methods when teaching history. Bernstein (2000) recontextualisation is a process of adding meaning out of the content to be taught by teachers. Thus, teachers must be

evaluated through the use of various methods and make judgements on how and what can be delivered to them.

In line with Bernstein's notion of recontextualisation this study argues that for history teaching to be effective, teachers need to firstly reconceptualise the various methods that they use to teach the subject. This means that teachers must re-exam the methods that they use in order to suit the learning environment that is influenced by what Bernstein coined as two fields recontextualisation. The first field is Official Recontextualisation Field (ORF) and the second being the Pedagogical Recontextualisation Field (PRF). The ORF, in this case could be the Zambian government through institutional bodies such as the Curriculum Development Centre where knowledge is coined while PRF is the field in which the teacher tries to give meaning to the ORF, and this can be through the use of various teaching methods. From the document analysis of the secondary school History syllabus, there is no mention of the learner centred method to be used in teaching History. It was noted that the syllabus only takes note that teachers use learner centred methods. Therefore, it can be argued that PRF can largely be influenced by the power and control that comes from ORF (Bernstein, 1990). So, in this case, ORF in the Zambian context, can be said to be the Ministry of Education through the Curriculum Development Centre as the main determinant of what forms the History syllabus or the official knowledge. With this observation, due to the lack of outlining the learner centred method and the pedagogical guidelines on how to deliver knowledge from ORF, History teachers tend to use the teacher centred approach. Consequently, teachers must find strategies on how best to recontextualise historical knowledge and methods in teaching History in order for learners to understand and add meaning to the learning process.

6.5. Teaching from Known to Unknown (Horizontal and Vertical Discourse)

The understanding of how teachers use the principle of teaching from known to unknown needs serious attention. This is in line with Ochar (2005) who notes that learners should learn from known to unknown as history maybe a complex field of knowledge that requires domain-specific thinking skills. From the lesson

observations, it was noted that most teachers did not use the principle of teaching from horizontal to vertical discourse. History teachers need to teach from concrete to abstract. Teachers should make sure that learners have some sense of success in learning history, and they should emphasise on building on what learners know already. The horizontal and vertical discourse is one of the principles of teaching which suggests that learners do not go into school as blank slates. Learners possess prior knowledge acquired from their life experiences thus, it is the teacher's responsibility to enlarge the prior knowledge into more abstract knowledge. This kind of teaching entails that teachers must ensure that the learners' prior knowledge is linked with the new knowledge that is to be delivered to bring about effective, clearer, and more definite teaching and learning of the subject.

David (2017) observes that in order to have a successful lesson, a conducive learning environment or the 'Known platform' which allows the pupils to bring out what they already know must be enhanced. For example, before delivering a lesson on any topic, the history teacher must take time to identify the informal and non-formal themes that pupils hold on the topic at hand. The prior knowledge serves as a basis for the teacher to determine how best he/she can help the learners build up on the preconceived knowledge and adequately understand the topic in order to bring about learning.

Learning from known to unknown is also applied when a teacher uses analysis and synthesis. A teacher in this case divides the topic into easy parts and separates the elements in order to understand it easily, this process is called analysis. It is a process which helps in understanding the hidden elements of a topic. Since history is a complex subject that needs critical thinking and analysis, the fact that learning proceeds from known to unknown, teachers can use various ways of teaching it. Teaching history from known to unknown promotes effective teaching and learning as it enables the learners to grasp the new historical concepts they are being taught. Teaching history without considering the preconceptions of the learners can bring about rote learning and memorization of historical content. However, engaging the

known before the unknown help's pupils interpret, understand, relate, and apply the various aspects of historical concepts being taught.

6.6. Challenges in Teaching/Learning history

The findings revealed that learners and teachers faced the following challenges; broad content, perceptions about the subject, poor learning environment, lack of teaching/learning materials.

6.6.1. Broad Content

The findings of the study show that the History syllabus contains broad topics. Most teachers and learners experienced difficulties in the extensive nature of the History topics. The coverage of history syllabus is too broad and wide as it contains Central and Southern African history and World history. Some learners failed to grasp the concepts due to the wideness of the subject matter. Therefore, it is evident, as Ruto and Ndaloh (2013) suggests that the subject was over loaded with more topics than teachers would cover due to limited periods allocated to the subject. The findings of the study are in line with Boadu (2016) who observed that in Ghana senior history in high schools faced a challenge of overloaded syllabus among others. Thus, the study recommended that syllabus content needed to be integrated to make it sync with the periods given for its implementation.

6.6.2. Attitude about the Subject

The findings of the study show that some learners experienced difficulty in the subject and viewed the subject as hard. One of the challenges mentioned by the participants is that History was a tough and difficulty subject. While some learners viewed the subject as dull and boring, others viewed it as an interesting and relevant subject to society. Accordingly, Byrnes (2012) notes that despite History being useful by allowing us to learn from the past, it is complex, potentially problematic and may be elusive. Therefore, teachers must find ways of supporting learners to understand the content of History. Ferretti and MacArthur (2005) further suggest that such perceptions can be solved by clear historical explanations informed by evidence and interpretive analysis. Furthermore, they argue that practical instruction can help end

misconceptions and bias in historical interpretations as they give more meaning and detail.

6.6.3. Poor Learning Environment

The learning environment was one of the challenges that were noted by both teachers and learners. Pupils indicated that the learning environment was centred on the teacher as the teachers were seen as the main agents of knowledge. Teachers also indicated that they faced challenges in organising systematic classroom learning environments due to school administrative power and authority. This corresponds with Bertram (2011) who argues that for teachers to effectively deliver there is need to develop an enabling environment. In other words, there is need to develop a supportive environment that embraces teachers in order for them to teach effectively. Moreeng and du Toit (2013) further state that in order for teaching and learning to be effective, they suggested improvements to enhance the quality of the learning environment to one that is structured to encourage dialogue between teachers and learners. They concluded that balance between the enhancement of skills and construction of knowledge as a dominant feature of an environment that is conducive to History teaching. In line with the above, it can be argued that teaching/learning processes must always take into account favourable learning/teaching environments because education does not occur in a vacuum. As held by Mupa and Chinooneka (2015), a good school climate contributes to school effectiveness. The findings in Voet and De Wever (2016) study, therefore, recommend that educational policies should be tailored towards creating an enabling environment that stimulates the teaching of historical reasoning skills, by organizing specific professional development initiatives for passing on good practices to teachers, or by creating mentoring programmes within schools for teachers of History.

6.6.4. Lack of Teaching and Learning Materials

Participants indicated that lack of teaching and learning materials was among the challenges faced in schools. This was seen in most cases in government schools where there was lack of ICT equipment and infrastructure, history texts books, teaching and learning resources such as charts, pictures and maps. In most cases

teachers used their own personal resources to source the teaching/learning resources, for instance, buying of textbooks. The findings are in line with Beyani (2006) and Adeyinka (1989) whose studies show that lack of essential teaching/learning materials were among the serious problems that affected effective teaching in most secondary schools. The findings of this study also confer with Ruto's (2013) findings that most of the challenges associated with the teaching of History in government schools ranged from inadequate instructional materials to teacher motivation. This finding is consistent with Boadu et al (2014) in their study in the use of technology in Ghana whose findings indicated that despite their positive perception on the use of technology, it was not translated into practice due to non-availability of technological devices. Similarly, Ruto and Ndaloh (2013) argued that lack of school libraries in government schools stocking relevant books and learning materials resulted in ineffective teaching/learning in secondary schools. Chisholm (2013) and Bertram & Wassermann, (2015) note the importance of text books in teaching/learning of History.

6.7. Statistical Significance between Content Based and Outcome Based Curriculum

The results show that there was a significant difference between the Outcome based education syllabus and the Content based education syllabus. History learners showed better performance in the Outcome based education than that of the Content based education. The findings of the study are in line with the Curriculum Development Framework (2013) that supports the view that unlike the Content based education, Outcome based education is centred on competences of learners. The framework also notes that the content structure and process of teaching at senior secondary school level and the range of activities should be centred on well-educated and effective learners who can communicate. It is important to note that from the qualitative findings, it is clear that the content based education syllabus had a number of challenges such as; learners centred on memorizing content due to the format that was only essay based (see Appendix H and I). The findings of the study are in line with Cobbold and Oppong (2010) who observed that history learners had a negative attitude toward the subject as they regarded it as a compendium of facts to be

memorized. However, with the introduction of the OBE learners were acquainted with structure which incorporated short word answer questions and essays. Mulenga and Kabombwe (2019) in their study observe that OBE is one of the best approaches despite the challenges that various countries faces in implementation.

Further, the findings of the study show that despite having a statistically significant difference between the two syllabus types; content based education ($M=28.53$, $SD=20.63$) and outcome based education ($M=66.24$, $SD=31.24$), government schools still remained the lowest in performance while Grant-aided were the highest. Statistical results of the study show that government schools under the content based education syllabus scored ($M= 23.95$, $SD=16.44$) and outcome based scored ($M=59.64$, $SD=27.66$) while Grant-aided under content based depicted ($M=65.39$, $SD=14.63$) and outcome based had ($M=106.77$, $SD=24.97$).

There are many reasons that support this finding, among them government schools performance is lowest because power and control of the progression rate at entry point to senior secondary (grade 10) is in the hands of government through the MoE. Thus, government schools select low performers, hence it follows that there is a high possibility their performance at final examination may be low. In addition, learners in private and grant-aided schools are allowed to choose the stream of study as opposed to government schools where the power and control is in the hands of the school administration. Government schools are also faced with challenges of high teacher-pupil ratio, lack of teaching-learning materials, teachers-pupil' laissez-faire attitude toward work, truant pupils and lack of remedial work for learners. This was supported by Ruto and Ndahoh (2013) and Rono (2015) whose studies discovered that there are several factors that contribute to poor performance in history, such as limited history teachers and lack of instructional materials in government schools.

Another interesting finding of the study is that private and grant-aided schools employ very experienced teachers in the subject unlike government schools. This is because in most cases private and grant-aided schools focus on ensuring that they

maintain educational standards and quality of passing. As a result their focus is on ensuring that learners pass the final examinations by creating an enabling learning environment, weekly or frequent assessment and highly motivated teachers due to school awards on best results and other school incentives. The findings of the study are supported by Chabatama (2012) who observes that the acquisition of knowledge and skills is not considered important by both teachers and learners in private schools. This is because passing an examination has become more important to schools, learners, teachers and the Ministry of Education than the acquisition of long term critical skills.

6.8. Demographic Factors and Learner Achievement

The findings of the study show that demographic factors; age, syllabus type, gender influence learners' academic performance. On the aspect of age the results show that learners in the adolescents (16-19 years) were more likely to perform better than adults. This implies that the young learners were better performers in academics. This can be attributed to their concentration in the classroom, time management, cognitive development and teacher-learner interaction. According to ECZ (2020) adult learners were classified repeaters who sat for examination under General Certificate Education (G.C.E). It can be argued that adult learners in most cases were faced with life and social changes thus lacked time to study. In addition, adult learners in most cases did not attend physical classes when repeating the course and sat for the final examination without any interaction with their teachers. The findings of the study are in line with Insah, Mumuni and Bowan (2013), whose study in Ghana noted that age was statistically significant in student academic performance. Equally, in Kenya a study by Waseke and Simatwa (2016) observed that students aged 18 years and above showed reduced academic performance. Molokompale and Mhlauli (2014) in Botswana attributed the reduction in performance due to increase in age to lack of preparedness for the examination among adult learners.

Further, this study considered gender differences in the Secondary school history certificate on learners' academic performance. Results of this study show that there is statistical significant difference in academic performance between boys and girls. The

findings of the study show that males performed much better than females in Outcome based Education curriculum. It is interesting to note that the history Content based curriculum format for the national examination took an essay form while the Outcome based is centred on a structured and essay format. Thus, the difference in content structure coverage between the outcome-based syllabus and the outcome based syllabus explains the differences in learners' performance. It can be concluded from the findings that girls 'performance was better in the content based format than the outcome based one. This finding is in line with Oppong's (2013) study in Cape coast, who found out that female students performed significantly better than males' students on essay test items. The findings are in line with a Study in Kenya on history teaching and learners' attitudes by David (2016), which shows that more males than females like studying the subject. Further, the findings of the study are connected to Cohen (1977) who argues from a psychological view point that people have different cognitive styles in the way they understand and comprehend concepts. In this current study, it is clear from the results that boys had a stronger cognitive style in understanding, organising and analysing historical concepts than girls. Further, in support of this finding, Gobena (2018) in a Study in Eastern Ethiopia observed that males performed statistically significant better than females. Hamer (2022) attributes the low performance of girls in history to lack of female representation in most historical textbooks and curricula. In addition, the study observes that there have been insufficient resources and support to enable women to be properly represented in school history teaching. Thus, the current form in which the secondary school history curriculum is taught is biased against women as it marginalizes their accounts and experiences.

Studies on gender differences and the academic performance of learners contradict this study (Oppong, 2013, Wangu, 2014). Those studies indicate that female learners outperform the boys especially in essay type questions. Parajuli and Thapa (2017) in their study on gender and academic achievement in Nepal show that female students were found outperforming their male counterparts. The study outlines the following

reasons for such a finding; sensitization on education government, policies on girls, females rights, skill development among others.

6.8.1. Type of Syllabus by Type of Paper

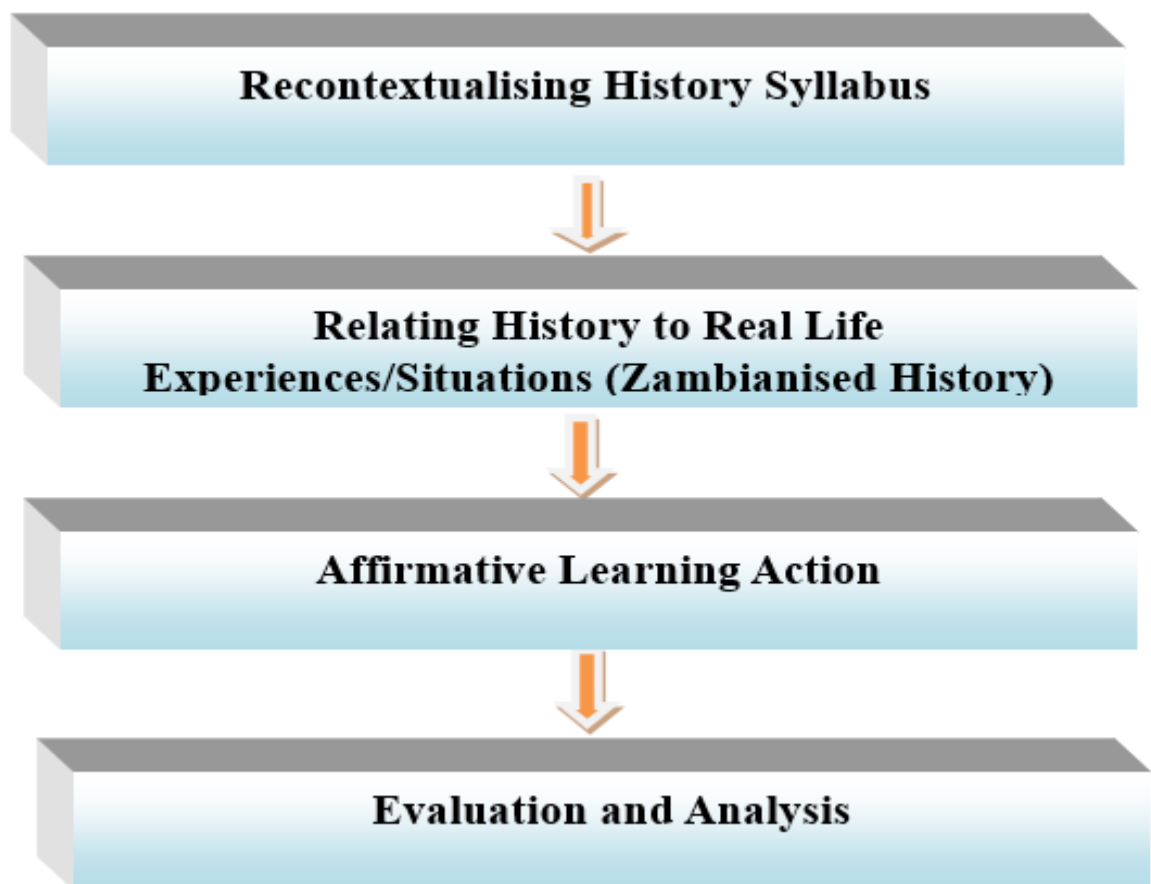
The findings of the study depict a significant difference in the two syllabus types and papers. Generally, it was found that history learners performed statistically better on outcome based in paper I (African history) and paper II (World history) compared with the content-based curriculum. Besides, results of this study equally revealed that learners' performance in paper II was much better in both syllabus types than in paper I. One would expect that learners being African and due to their socialisation from the community would better understand their own histories. However, it is interesting to note that the opposite was the cases in the period under review. Reasons that can be attributed to these findings are that African history is less documented; as a result, learners have little sources to refer to. In addition, the broadness and scope of African history contributes to learners' disliking of the subject and centre their attention more on World history. These results concur with the findings by Chimee (2021) who argues that African history still faces a problem of periodization and a broad course of events as a continent. In addition, the findings are in line with Kabombwe, Machila and Sikayomya (2021) in their study of examination papers who found out that in both the content based and outcome-based assessments concentration of the questions was on low-level leading learners to only remember and memorisation. Their study results further show that in both cases curriculum examination questions lacked higher cognitive levels.

6.9. Proposed Framework for Teaching History in Secondary Schools

It is clear from the findings that History teachers' experiences in the school evolve around the power and control within the system. It is vital to note that from the lessons observed of the History teachers, the curriculum taught in schools is in the power of the schools. This is because teachers are, in most cases, just followers of what is pertaining in schools. Teachers do not have any power to influence the content taught, as this is done through the school curriculum. Thus, most of the lessons taught followed a weak framing because learners were not involved in

selecting the content, sequence and pacing of the classroom activities. Arising from the findings, this study suggests the recontextualising history framework that can be adopted to teach history in secondary schools in Zambia. The framework is suggested in order to suit the learning environment of the current ideological situation in Zambia. This framework is hoped to improve and strengthen the teaching of History in the Zambian secondary schools arising from Bernstein's theory. Thus, the proposed framework confirms Bernstein's theory of class, code and power. The key variables that I identified from the findings that form up this framework include recontextualising History, relating History to real life experiences/situations (Zambianised History), affirmative learning action, evaluation and analysis.

Figure 6: Proposed Framework for Teaching History



6.9.1. Recontextualising Secondary History Teaching

This first stage, borrowing from Bernstein's notion of pedagogical device, teachers are required to critically analyse and select the appropriate knowledge from the official knowledge (curriculum). On the other hand, teachers are required to clearly implement, interpret, and re-interpret the curriculum. It is at this point that teachers should be able to give meaning and contribute effectively to the teaching process. In addition, the teacher is required to adopt learner centred methods such as group discussion, project, games, and field trips. In these methods, the teacher and the learner must both play a vital role in order to enhance effect teaching/learning.

This proposed framework is in line with the current curriculum (OBE) which focuses on learners acquiring historical values, norms, and skills. In this case, recontextualising the History syllabus requires that the teacher of History gives meaning to the History syllabus content through deducing the appropriate method for the lesson. For example, when teaching the causes of Bantu migration, the teacher cannot use a map as it will not show the factors for the causes. The teacher should use pictures or document study as a teaching/learning aid while map study can be applicable when teaching the course or roots taken by the Bantu during the migration.

6.9.2. Relating History to Real Life Experiences/Situations (Zambianised History)

According to CDC (2015), the main aim of teaching History in secondary schools is to ensure that learners are able to relate historical knowledge to real life experiences. This requires that teachers produce a whole rounded up learners who can analyse, interpret, and apply the knowledge to real life situations. Drawing from the above statement, it can be suggested that the historical content taught to learners must be interrelated with to their learning environment. For instance, when teaching the First World War, Second World War, and the Cold War, it is important for the syllabus to be able to relate the part Zambia played in these events. Another example is on teaching apartheid in South Africa, the current syllabus must be able to relate the role played by Zambia. In accordance with Bernstein's lens on Horizontal and Vertical discourse, it is clear that learners are not empty tins; they may have learnt or heard

historical stories from their communities. Therefore, it is important that teachers relate the syllabus content to the real-life Zambian experiences to the learners.

6.9.3. Affirmative Learning Action

At this stage, the teacher must apply Affirmative Learning Action (ALA). ALA implies that teachers of History must take deliberate positive action towards the delivery of the History syllabus content in order to benefit all learners in the classroom. In this way, the teacher must deliberately engage the learners in participatory and learner centred approaches. This will help to enhance learners' self-confidence, motivation and esteem thereby resulting in their liking the subject as noted in Bernstein's Code theory that every individual is inducted by the school into knowledge referred to 'school code' (Hoadley, 2005, Moore, 2010). Since the school is the major socialising agent of the learner, the teachers must play an active role by ensuring that all learners are dynamically engaged in the classroom.

6.9.4. Evaluation and Analysis

This is the last proposed stage which requires the teacher and the learner to make critical and meaningful judgement of the secondary school History syllabus. At this stage the teacher reflects on how historical content has been taught from the point of recontextualisation to the point where the learner acquires the knowledge. This can be done by asking questions such as 'what content was taught? how did I teach it? who was it meant for? and how was it received. From these questions, the teacher can make judgements that help to evaluate the knowledge taught and later give assessment to learners to make further evaluation. On the other hand, learner analysis can be seen by giving them adequate opportunities during the lesson delivery. This ability to analyse historical facts must be also accompanied with the development of life skills that can help them become better citizens (CDC, 2015).

6.10. Summary

It is clear from the discussion that lesson preparedness was lacking in most schools in History as teachers preferred lesson notes to lesson plans. Further, the study notes that traditional methods such as lecture methods were commonly used to teach the

subject. It was also observed that most teachers failed to recontextualise official knowledge and implement it through the use of learner centred methods. The study contends that in order to enhance effective teaching/learning, teachers must be able to apply the Horizontal and Vertical discourse as alluded to by Bernstein. Further, the chapter suggested a proposed framework that can help teachers interpret the syllabus content.

CHAPTER SEVEN: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1. Overview

This chapter presents the conclusion of the findings of the study. It provides the purpose and research questions that guided my study. It also presents the major findings of the study and draw some implications based on Basil Bernstein's theory of power and control to understand the teaching of history in Zambian secondary schools in Lusaka District. The chapter concludes with recommendations and suggests future studies.

7.2. The Main Research Findings and Conclusions

The purpose of the study was to critique the teaching of secondary school history using Bernstein's lens. The gap identified from reviewed literature was that of not knowing the extent to which teachers prepare for their lesson delivery in history. Secondly, the study sought to investigate grade 12 learners' performance between the Outcome based curriculum and the content-based curriculum. Below are the research questions and a summary of the main findings.

1. How do teachers prepare for history lessons for their classes?
2. What factors do they consider selecting various historical content knowledge from the syllabus to be delivered to the learners?
3. What pedagogical practices are used in teaching history to ensure effective outcomes?
4. What challenges do history learners face in grasping the subject?
5. Are there statistically significant mean differences between content-based education and outcome-based education in general certificate history?

7.2.2. Teacher Lesson Preparedness

Research question one sought to determine how teachers prepare lessons for their classes. In ascertaining the lesson preparedness of history teachers in their classes, this study discovered that the process of History curriculum development had lapses at the point of curriculum development by MOE and CDC and, therefore, the study

concludes that, in order to enhance lesson preparedness among teachers, there is need to reduce the power and control relations in the process of curriculum development. In addition, most teacher preferred to use lesson notes as compared to lesson plans in order to reduce paperwork involved in preparing for class lessons. Since teachers are the main agents of knowledge, they should be part and parcel of the curriculum development process. These findings on teacher lesson preparedness confirm that there is a major gap in the understanding of lesson planning and it's important by most teachers. As a result, there is need for government, through the Ministry of education and Curriculum Development Centre (CDC) to work with teachers through continuous professional development to re-educate teachers on the importance of lesson planning.

7.2.3. Sieving Historical Content Knowledge

Research question two sought to consider factors that influenced the selection of various historical content knowledge from the syllabus to be delivered to the learners. With regard to how history teachers sieve the various historical content knowledge from the syllabus that is delivered to the learners, this study found that most teachers did not have proper guidelines on what to select from the syllabus. From the findings can be deducted that some of the challenges teachers face in sieving historical content were large classes, limited time to prepare for the lessons, lack of involvement in syllabus designing and processes. Thus, teachers did not develop the skill of sieving the real classroom knowledge to be delivered to learners. Hence, the history content that was taught was for examination and testing purposes only. By implication, there was no real-life teaching that is propounded in OBE curriculum, in that, at the final examination, schools produce half-baked learners as they lack analytical skills since they just memorise the history content to pass the examination.

7.2.4. Pedagogical Practice

Research question three aimed at exploring the pedagogical practices used in teaching history to ensure effective outcomes. The study further revealed that most teachers did not use learner centred methods in implementing the History syllabus. It can be further shown that most of the teachers failed to apply some learner centred

approaches such as games, project, ICT, and role play. This was attributed to lack of teaching/learning resources and high teacher-pupil ratio especially in government secondary schools. Therefore, one can conclude that the lack of use of appropriate teaching/learning materials highly contributes to poor learning achievements especially in government secondary schools.

7.2.5. Challenges faced by History Teacher and Learners

The fifth question was on the challenges faced by teachers and pupils in history. The findings of the study show that there were a number of challenges that affected both teachers and pupils in the teaching and learning process in history. For example most teachers and pupils indicated that: history was too broad, negative attitude of some teachers and pupils towards the subject, poor learning environment, Lack of teaching/learning materials and poor managements skills by administration among others. Thus, the study confirmed that history teachers and learners were faced with a lot of challenges in the teaching/learning process, hence there was a need to critically review the process in order to enhance effective delivery of the knowledge.

7.2.6. Learner Performance

The last research question was centred on statistically significant mean differences between content-based education and outcome-based education in general certificate history. The results show that there was a significant difference between the Outcome based education syllabus and the Content based education syllabus. It is important to note that pupils showed better performance in the Outcome based education than that of the Content based education. From the findings, the performance of history learners at grade 12 from 2011 to 2020, the study showed that the general performance of the high performing candidates exhibited characteristics of understanding, adherence to instructions and were able to apply historical knowledge to the real-life situations, while low performing candidates showed characteristics of poor writing skills, lack of historical knowledge and inability to interpret questions. In this regard, it can be concluded that failure by teachers to adhere to the learning objectives set in the syllabus and to apply them to the real-life situations of learners and learners' lack of appropriate application to display knowledge with regards to the

subject matter, negatively affects the performance. By implication, there was no real-life teaching that is propounded in OBE curriculum, in that, at the final examination, schools produce learners lacking analytical skills since they just memorise the history content to pass the examination.

7.3. Theoretical Implications of the Study

It is interesting to note that the findings of the study revealed that the Outcome based much better than the Content based curriculum. This can be attributed to improvements in pedagogical approaches used in schools. Despite, the shift from the content based education; the existing model of outcome based education still faces a number of challenges due to the fact that history teaching and the final examination still focus on mastery of content for learners. It clear from the findings that OBE is centred on learner achievements, hence teachers only focus on the end results at the final examination. The consequences of such a model are producing a half-baked learner who cannot articulate and critical analyse historical concepts. This is because OBE is centred towards is enhancing outcomes or competencies. This is in line with the study by Bertram (2008) who used an analysis of the curriculum reform and argues that learners were mostly not doing history as they lacked demonstration of strong and in-depth knowledge of history. This is because emphasises of assessment in OBE may encourage a forward looking approach in which the focus is on mastery of the subject content. As a result, most learners produced lack the ability to use and apply the knowledge acquired to real life situations. In addition, the current state of teaching history encourages a backward approach of teaching in which teachers firstly are concerned with the final product (Final examination) and not the skills, values and norms that learners must acquire in order to understand and apply historical concepts.

There is no major change in the content coverage between the content based syllabus and the outcome based syllabus. The only major noticeable change is on the format and pedagogical approaches such as the use of modern technologies (computers) in teaching history. From the lesson observations, it is interesting to note that history teaching in the selected schools in Lusaka district is still autocratic as the teacher is

the main play in the process. Learners still remain passive plays as teachers' poses more power and control in the classroom activities. Learners lack critical thinking and reasoning as the teaching is highly centred on memorizing the content in order to pass the examination. As a result teachers teach to test learners. From findings it is clear that the current OBE History curriculum just like the CBE does not focus on a gender balanced historical content. Thus it can be argued that the curriculum content is a male dominated and neglects the role that women play in both paper 1 (African history) and paper 2 (World history) see appendix H and I. This greatly affects girls in their performances as the historical narratives lack a gender sensitive context that can motivate female learners.

7.4. Recommendations

Based on this study, the following recommendations are proposed;

- i) History is a broad subject in nature and this negatively affects the preparation of lessons as noted in the findings. Thus, it is recommended that MOE through secondary schools administrations should revisit lesson preparations through the Continuous Professional Development (CPD) for teachers. For example, there is need to review the broad nature of the History content.
- ii) There is need for MOE and CDC to strengthen the teaching methodologies that are silent in the History syllabus by giving a clear outline on learner centred methods that can be used in teaching History.
- iii) In addition, CDC, MOE and Secondary School stakeholders should clearly state the syllabus teaching/ learning materials that teachers should use.
- iv) MOE, CDC and Secondary School Stakeholders should revisit the senior secondary school History syllabus for it to respond to the Zambian changing dynamics such as a shift from emphasis Eurocentric views to Zambianised History.
- v) The MOE through CDC should evaluate the implementation of the OBE in Zambian secondary schools in order to identify its failures and successes for better future policy implementation.

7.5. Suggestions for Future Studies

The study sought to critique the teaching of history in Zambian secondary schools particularly in Lusaka district. The study used Bernstein code theory and educational notions of classification and framing knowledge in understanding the teaching of history in Lusaka District. This allowed the researcher to clearly understand how power and control affect the knowledge messages which Bernstein refers to as curriculum, pedagogy and evaluation. Therefore, based on this discourse this study further recommends the following areas of study:

1. Follow up and investigation of history teaching in Zambian schools using Bernstein's lens especially in the rural areas.
2. Examine the impact of power and control relations among learners as agents of knowledge.
3. Explore the extent of women representation in history curriculum in Zambia.
4. Investigate and compare the official knowledge systems (Actual Teaching in Schools) and Hidden Curriculum in history education using Bernstein's lens of Recontextualisation.
5. Examine the power relations that may exist in history textbooks in relation to historical knowledge.
6. Investigate the best pedagogical approach in which history curriculum can be decolonised in Zambia.

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APPENDICES

RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

Appendix A: Semi-Structured Interview Schedule For Teacher(S)

PERSONAL DATA

1. Where did you secondary schooling from?
2. When did you do your secondary schooling from?
3. Where did you do your secondary school education training from? Give reasons why?
4. How long have you been teaching history?
5. How many schools have you taught in?
6. Do you teach any other subject apart from history?
7. What subject do you enjoy teaching most and why?
8. What are some of the topics that you learnt from college or university that you still use in your teaching of history?

HISTORY CLASSROOM

1. How long have you been teaching the class?
2. What is your aim of teaching history?
3. Do your learners have a similar view of your objectives for learning history?
4. What have you noticed as some of the changes that pupils face in the learning of history?
5. What history do you teach?
6. Which history do you learners prefer? Give reasons

HISTORICAL KNOWLEDGE

1. How many times is history taught to your learners in a week?
2. Is history an optional subject or not?
3. Where do you get the material/ content that you teach your grade 12 class?
4. Do you strictly follow the history syllabus or not? Give reasons.
5. How do you select the content that you teach your learners?

6. How do you sequence your teaching materials and content? What/who guides you in this process?
7. How do you evaluate what you have taught?
8. What approach do you use when teaching your class? Is it deductive or inductive approach? Why?
9. Do you have any recommended resources that you use to teach your class?
10. Do you think that learners easily understand what you teach them? Reasons?
11. What is the general status of history at your school compared to other social sciences?
12. How do other teachers' perceive history as a school subject at your school?

OUTCOME BASED CURRICULUM

1. Outline the changes that have taken place since the introduction of the new Curriculum?
2. What is the new Curriculum called?
3. What do you understand by the term outcome-based education?
4. How do you understand the changes that have taken place in the new Zambian history Curriculum since 2013?
5. What is the value of this new curriculum?
6. What disadvantages do you think are in the new history Curriculum?
7. Do you think that the new Curriculum changes have any influence on your history class teaching? If any, how?
8. What is the value of these Curriculum changes on the way you teach history to your learners?
9. Do you think that the curriculum changes have any influence on the way you assess your learners? Why and how?
10. How have you planned your lessons for this year's history class?
11. What do you think can be removed or added to the history secondary school syllabus?
Give reasons

IMPLEMENTATION OF TEACHING

1. Are you aware of the Teacher's Curriculum Implementation Guide?
2. What is the value of this guide in the teaching of history?

3. What key elements do you think the guide outlines that are crucial in your teaching process?
4. What methodologies do you use to teach your learners?
5. How do you use the methods?
6. What teaching aids do you use to teach? Where do you source them from?
7. What strategies do you use when teaching your history class?

Appendix B: Semi-Structured Interview Schedule For Grade 12 Learner

1. Where do you live?
2. Have you heard of any curriculum changes in history?
3. Who decided that you study history?
4. Do you think that history is important to you? Give reasons
5. Who was teaching you in grade 10 and 11?
6. Is it the same teacher who was teaching you in grade 10 and 11?
7. How different are content and activities that you were taught in grade 10 and 11?
8. How has been your performance from grade 10, 11 to grade 12 in history?
9. What makes one a good history pupil?
10. Do you think that history is a difficult or easy subject? Explain
11. What are the attributes of a good history teacher?
12. What do you think your teacher expects from you after every lesson?
13. Does your teacher involve you in any activity during the lessons? Give examples, if any?

Classroom lesson observation Activities

Teacher gives the class assessment. After the activity I ask the following questions to the learner.

1. Do you think it is important to be assessed in history lesson from time to time? Give reasons.
2. What do you think your teacher was looking for in the assessment?
3. What do you think your teacher wants you to do in order to become a good pupil in history?
4. Do you understand the criteria that your teacher used for you to arrive at the grade you got?
5. Did you learn the aspects that your teacher assessed you on?

Appendix C: Semi-Structured Interview Schedule For Curriculum Specialists

1. What is your name?
2. How long have you been working at Curriculum Development Centre as a history specialist?
3. Where did you do your training when?
4. What did you train in?
5. What curriculum changes in history have taken place in Zambia since 1964?
6. Do you think the changes have added any value to the teaching of history?
7. What do you understand by the Outcome based curriculum?
8. Describe the process of curriculum development and change?
9. Who are the key players in this process?
10. What is the role of the key players in this process?
11. Do persons involved in the curriculum design process have any training of policy formulation processes?
12. What processes are involved in Policy formulation and development?
13. How do you arrive at the content and key aspects to be put in the history curriculum?
14. What new concepts have been changed, removed, or added in the new history curriculum? Give reasons
15. What guides you on what, how and when change the curriculum?
16. How often do you review the curriculum?
17. Based on an evaluation carried out, if any, what could be the value, if any, of these aspects and concepts on the teaching process in history?
18. What is the relationship between the Curriculum Development Centre and the history teacher?
19. What role do teachers play in the curriculum change or review process if any?
20. Do you think that history teachers understand the meaning and role of OBE in the teaching of history?
21. Do you offer any training and guidance on how teachers can utilise the teacher implementation guide in their teaching?
22. What methods does CDC recommend in implementing OBE in a history classroom?
23. What strategies can history teachers apply to enhance OBE policy in teaching history?

24. What skills do you think teachers of history have to effectively implement the OBE policy in their classes?
25. Do you have any specific teachers' guide that helps history teachers to teach?
26. How do you understand the old history syllabus? How different is it from the new one?
27. What is the best approach on how history should be taught in secondary schools?
28. What do you think are some of the challenges of the OBE policy?
29. Do teachers have any ways in which they can change the curriculum?

Appendix D: Semi-Structured Interview Schedule For Examination Council Of Zambia History Specialist

1. What is your position?
2. How long have you been working for Examination Council of Zambia?
3. What university or college did you train from?
4. Do you have any background in teaching history?
5. Describe your role as a history specialist.
6. What do you know about the new curriculum framework?
7. What role in the curriculum change process and development do you play?
8. In what way has the new curriculum impacted on the way you evaluate the final grade 12 examination in history?
9. What is your view on the new changes in the curriculum? It it positive or negative?
10. What is the purpose of assessment in history?
11. How do you frame your examination paper, sequence, selection, pacing?
12. Are teachers involved in setting the final examination? If so to what extent?
13. Who determines what must be examined in the final grade 12 paper?
14. Do you take into account what and how teachers of history have implemented the OBE curriculum before coming up with the final examination paper?
15. What do you think teachers must do in implementing the OBE curriculum in history teaching?
16. How has been the performance of learners in history over the past 5 years?
17. To what extent do you think that history teachers stick to the syllabus when teaching?
18. Which history (African or World) do learners perform well in?
19. Do you think that history teaching should only aim at results outcome?
20. Do you carry out any evaluation in after the examination results are out? If so, what evaluation?
21. What are some of the challenges in the new OBE curriculum?
22. What strategies can history teachers use to help implement OBE?

Appendix E: Questionnaire

University of Zambia (UNZA)
Department of Language and Social Sciences Education
Doctor of Philosophy in History Education
Questionnaire to be filled out by History Teachers

Dear Teachers,

This questionnaire is intended to collect data that will be used in a doctoral study in Lusaka Province. The data you provide will be kept with great confidentiality and used only for the purpose of the study. There is no need to write your name or employment number anywhere on the questionnaire. Note that participation in the study is highly voluntary. It is your choice whether to participate or not. The choice that you make will have no bearing on your job or on any work-related evaluations or reports. You may change your mind later and stop participating even if you agreed earlier. However, since the study is hoped to contribute to enhancing the quality of history teaching/learning in schools, your contribution to the success of the study will benefit history education in Zambia. Hence, you are encouraged to take part in this study.

Thank you so much for your willingness to fill out the questionnaire.

PART 1: PERSONAL INFORMATION

Put a tick (√) in the given box

1. Sex. Male 2. Female
2. Age
 - a) 20-30years
 - b) 31-40years
 - c) 41-50years
 - d) 51 years and above
3. Type of School: a) Public b). Non-Public
4. Length of service.....

5. Years of experience as a history teacher
 - a) Less than 5 years
 - b) 6-10years
 - c) 11-15years
 - d) 16 years and above
6. What is your academic qualification?
 - a) Diploma
 - b) Bachelor's Degree
 - c) Masters
 - d) Doctors Degree
 - e) Any other.....

PART 2: LESSON PREPAREDNESS OF HISTORY TEACHERS

Direction: Put a tick (√) in the appropriate box in front of each item based on the following cues?

Strongly Disagree=1 Disagree=2 Uncertain=3 Agree=4 Strongly agree=5

SD 1

DA 2

UC3

A4

SA5

No	Items	1	2	3	4	5
	I like to prepare for history class before the lesson					
	I don't need to plan for my lesson since I have served long in the profession					
	I recognise individual differences of learners in my lesson planning					
	Lesson planning helps me know how I will teach my topics					
	Lesson planning is vital to understand the previous knowledge of the learners					
	Lesson planning helps me research more and deliver my lesson					
	Lesson planning helps me evaluate the understanding of learners on a given topic					
	Lesson planning helps me develop a learner-centred environment					
	I feel that lesson planning is vital to achieve learners' outcomes					
	I feel confident to teach a lesson when I plan					

PART 3: HISTORY TEACHERS SIEVE THE VARIOUS HISTORICAL CONTENT DELIVERED TO THE LEARNERS.

Direction: Put a tick (√) in the appropriate box in front of each item based on the following cues.

Strongly Disagree=1 Disagree=2 Uncertain=3 Agree=4 Strongly agree=5

SD 1 DA 2 UC3 A4 SA5

No	Items	1	2	3	4	5
	I am guided by the National Curriculum while selecting the teaching activities					
	The school management has an influence upon the selection of what I teach					
	I consider the syllabus material before selecting the teaching content					
	The final examination has an impact upon my selection of the learning materials and content					
	I consider the learners' experiences and background before selecting what to teach					
	I research more on the topic before selecting what to teach					
	I choose the teaching learning activities based on the available resources for history in the school					
	I am not influenced by anyone as I have the power to choose what to teach					
	I consider the amount of time I have to determine what I teach					
	I feel that there are a lot of history materials that can be used in the teaching/learning of history in schools					

PART 4: PEDAGOGICAL PRACTICES UTILISED IN TEACHING HISTORY TO ENSURE EFFECTIVE TEACHING.

Circle your answer

Questions

1. All teachers need to use various teaching methods?
a) Yes b) No
2. Teaching methods are of little importance in teaching history because teachers are skilled
a) Yes b) No
3. Learner-centred teaching methods are better than teacher-centred methods?
a) Yes b) No
4. The lecture method is not important in teaching history?
a) Yes b) No
5. Teachers can explain topics without using any methods
a) Yes b) No
6. Teachers' selection of teaching methods affects the learners' learning skills.
a) Yes b) No

Instructions: Kindly indicate to what extent you use the methods in your history class.

Direction: Put a tick (√) in the appropriate box in front of each item based on the following cues.

Not used=1 rarely used=2 Sometimes used=3 frequently used=4 Highly used=5

NU1	RU 2	SU3	FU4	HU5					
No	Items				1	2	3	4	5
	Question and Answer								
	Demonstration								
	Project								
	Lecture Method								
	Group Study								
	Pictures								
	ICTS (computer, internet, PowerPoint etc)								
	Assignments								
	Class discussion								
	Role Play								
	Stories								
	Games								
	Field Trips								

Direction: Put a tick (√) in the appropriate box in front of each item based on the following cues.

Not effective =1 Little effective=2 Somewhat effective=3 Effective=4 Very effective=5

NE1 RU 2 SU3 FU4 HU5

No	Items	1	2	3	4	5
	Question and Answer					
	Demonstration					
	Project					
	Lecture Methods					
	Group Study					
	Pictures					
	ICTS (computer, internet, PowerPoint etc)					
	Assignments					
	Class discussion					
	Role Play					
	Stories					
	Games					
	Field Trips					

PART 5: PERFORMANCE OF HISTORY LEARNERS

What is the general performance of learners in your class?

- a) Below average 39-00
- b) Average-40-59
- c) Good 60-79
- d) Excellent 80-100

Appendix F: History

LESSON EVALUATION FORM

SCHOOL:GRADE:Class:

TEACHER:....NO. OF PUPILS.....

TOPIC:.....

DATE:TIME:

Rating	5	4	3	2	1	0
Meaning	Excellent	Very Good	Good	Satisfactory	Unsatisfactory	Absent

	CATEGORY	RATING					
		5	4	3	2	1	0
	NOTE: Not all categories will be applicable to every lesson						
A	OBJECTIVES						
	Clear, uniqueness, attainability in the time available						
	Realistic in terms of the class and its previous knowledge						
B	INTRODUCTION/ LEARNER DEVELOPMENT						
	Capturing pupils' attention						
	Teacher addresses prior knowledge of learners on topic						
	Linked subject matter to current knowledge						
	Teacher creates a learning environment that meets learners' differences of language, gender, ability, and culture						
C	APPLY CONTENT KNOWLEDGE						
	Preparation and selection of lesson content						
	Teacher Knowledge of the subject matter						
	Teacher ability to connect topic from past to present through clear sequence of instruction						
	Use of practical activity by engaging learners in creativity, critical thinking and problem solving						
	Teacher ability to give relevant and quality examples to help learners achieve historical interpretation and evaluation of topic						
	Time management						
	Teacher's use of appropriate language in the lesson						
	Level and clarity of speech						
	Pupils' participation in the lesson activities						
D	APPLY CONTENT THROUGH USE OF METHODS/RESOURCES						
	Teacher ability to apply content knowledge through use of applicable multiple methods						
	Use of the chalkboard						
	Use of teaching aids suitable to topic						
	Engage learners in various learner-centred pedagogies i.e., demonstrations and skilful instructions						
E	ASSESSMENT/QUESTIONING TECHNIQUES						
	Teacher distribution of questions to the class i.e., volunteers, gender etc						

	Teacher treatment of class questions						
	Quality of questions						
	SUMMARY / CONCLUSION						
	Summary of main points of the lesson						
	Linkage to next lesson						
H	EVALUATION						
	Allowing pupils verbalization of concepts						
	Class management						
	Evidence of Teaching/learning						
	How would you rate the lesson as a whole?						
I	PERSONALITY						
26	Appearance						
27	Teacher-pupil relationship						
	TOTAL						

RESEARCHERS' REMARKS.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

Appendix G: Questionnaire to be filled out by History Pupils

University of Zambia (UNZA)

Department of Language and Social Sciences Education

Doctor of Philosophy in History Education

Dear Respondent,

I am a PhD Student carrying out a study on the teaching of history in Zambian secondary schools in Lusaka District. This study is purely for academic purposes and all information given shall be used for the purpose for which it is intended. Note that participation in the study is highly voluntary. It is your choice whether to participate or not. The choice that you make will have no bearing on your studies or on any education-related evaluations or reports. You may change your mind later and stop participating even if you agreed earlier. However, since the study is hoped to contribute to enhancing the quality of history teaching/learning in Schools, your contribution to the success of the study will benefit history education in Zambia. Hence, you are encouraged to take part in this study.

PART 1: PERSONAL INFORMATION

Put a tick (✓) in the given box

7. Sex. Male 2. Female
8. Age
 - e) 14years
 - f) 15years
 - g) 16years
 - h) 17 years and above
9. Type of School: a) Public b). Non-Public

PART 2: LESSON PREPAREDNESS OF HISTORY TEACHERS

Direction: Put a tick (√) in the appropriate box in front of each item based on the following cues. SA-Strongly agree, A-Agree, U- Undecided, D-Disagree, and SD-Strongly disagree

No	ITEMS	SA	A	U	D	SD
	I like learning history					
	I don't like learning history					
	I find history to be simple and interesting					
	I find history to be hard and difficult					
	I like learning history because my teacher explains well					
	History is an easy subject					
	I don't like learning history because my teacher is boring					
	The best way to learn is by studying					
	History is an important subject and can help me understand society					
	History must not be taught it is irrelevant to society					
	I think all pupils must learn history					
	I don't understand history because teacher dictates note to class					
	History uses various method i.e., discussion, group work, question, and answer, etc.					
	History teacher gives a lot of assessments					
	I like my history teacher					

Thank you so much.

Below are some of the selected topics covered by learners from grade 10 to 12.

Table 14: GRADE 10: PART I - HISTORY OF SOUTHERN AFRICA

TOPICS	SUB-TOPIC	SPECIFIC OUTCOMES	CONTENT		
			KNOWLEDGE	SKILLS	VALUES
10.1 Geographical Setting	10.1.1 Physical and climatic features of Southern Africa	10.1.1.1 Describe the physical and climatic features of Southern Africa	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Relief and climatic features of Southern Africa 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Drawing a map showing physical and climatic features of South Africa Analysis of the influence of physical and climatic features on the distribution of people 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Appreciation Awareness
10.2 Indigenous Communities	10.2.1 Earlier inhabitants of Southern Africa	10.2.1.1 Discuss the socio-economic and political organisation of the Saan and Khoi-khoi	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Socio-economic and political organisation of the Saan and Khoi-khoi 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Analysis of the socio-economic and political organisation of indigenous communities of South Africa Drawing a map showing the movements of the Bantu-speaking people into South Africa Identification of the kingdoms established in south-eastern South Africa Analysis of the causes and course of the Mfecane Assessment of the relationship between the Bantu and the Saan and Khoi-Khoi 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Appreciation of the way of life of the indigenous Africans of South Africa Awareness
	10.2.2 Bantu migration into Southern Africa	10.2.1.2 Describe the movements of Bantu-speaking people into Southern Africa	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Nguni speaking groups in the eastern wing and the Ambo and Herero group in the western wing 		
	10.2.3 Kingdoms and nation-states	10.2.1.3 Describe the establishment of kingdoms and nation-states in south-eastern South Africa	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Establishment of the Ndwandwe, Zulu and Nguni kingdoms and the Basuto Nation 		
	10.2.4 The Mfecane	10.2.1.4 Explain the causes and results of the Mfecane	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Causes: shortage of resources (land, water and pasture) population increase Effects: social, political, economic and military Conflict over resources (land, water, pasture and livestock) 		
	10.2.5 Relationships between the Bantu and Saan and Khoi-khoi	10.2.1.5 Explain the conflict between the Khoi-Saan and the Bantu	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> European search for a sea route to the Far East 		
10.3 European Settler Communities	10.3.1 Arrival of the Dutch at the Cape	10.3.1.1 Describe the arrival of the European settlers at the Cape	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> European search for a sea route to the Far East 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Assessment of the impact of the arrival of Europeans in South Africa Analysis of the relationships between the Dutch and British settlers Identification of the causes and course of the Great Trek and the causes of the Anglo-Boer Wars 	
	10.3.2 Arrival of the British at the Cape	10.3.1.2 Describe the arrival of the British settlers at the Cape	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Conflict over resources and attitude towards the African population 		
	10.3.3 Relationship between the British and Dutch settlers at the Cape	10.3.3.1 Explain the conflicting political and economic interests between the British and the Dutch	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Causes: Introduction of English as official language and law, circuit courts, land tenure, attitude towards Africans Course: First and Second Trek 		
	10.3.4 The Great Trek	10.3.4.1 Describe the causes and course of the Great Trek	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> First and Second Anglo-Boer Wars Vereeniging Treaty, 1902 Unification of states Boer recognition of British authority Bloemfontein National Convention, 1908 Economic reconstruction Union Act, 1909 effected 1910 		
	10.3.5 Anglo-Boer War	10.3.5.1 Describe the Anglo-Boer Wars	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Conflicts over ownership of resources and provision of labour Discovery of minerals, confinement to native reserves, pass system, disenfranchisement, land seizure 		
10.4 Race Relations in Southern Africa	10.4.1 Relationships between indigenous Africans and the white settlers	10.4.2.1 Describe the socio-economic interactions between the European settlers and the indigenous communities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Conflicts over ownership of resources and provision of labour 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Analysis of the relationships between the European settlers and the indigenous Africans Assessment of the significance of early African resistance to white domination 	
	10.4.2 African resistance to white domination and the rise of African nationalism	10.4.2.1 Explain the reasons leading to African resistance to white domination	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Discovery of minerals, confinement to native reserves, pass system, disenfranchisement, land seizure 		
10.5 Majority Rule	10.5.1 Liberation movements in Southern Africa	10.5.1.1 Describe the various liberation movements in South Africa after the formation of the Union of South Africa	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The African National Congress (ANC) and the Pan-Africa Congress (PAC) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Analysis of the role of political parties and liberation movements in the attainment of majority rule in South Africa 	
	10.5.2 Attainment of majority rule	10.5.2.1 Describe the process leading to the end of Apartheid and introduction of majority rule	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> End of Apartheid 		
	10.5.3 Post-independence developments				

Source: CDC, 2013

	<p>11.6.8 The Arab League</p> <p>11.6.9 The Association of South-East Asian Nations</p> <p>11.6.10 The Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa</p> <p>11.6.11 The Southern Africa Development Community</p>	<p>11.6.8.1 Describe the objectives of The Arab League</p> <p>11.6.9.1 Describe the objectives of The Association of South-East Asian Nations</p> <p>11.6.10.1 Describe the objectives of The Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa</p> <p>11.6.11.1 Describe the objectives of The Southern Africa Development Community</p>	<p>Union</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Objectives of the Arab League • Objectives of the Association of South-East Asian Nations • Objectives of the Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa • Objectives of the Southern Africa Development Community 	
11.7 Contemporary Issues	<p>11.7.1 The Middle East Crises</p> <p>11.7.2 DR Congo regional conflict</p> <p>11.7.3 Rwanda genocide</p> <p>11.7.4 The land issue in Zimbabwe</p> <p>11.7.5 International terrorism</p> <p>11.7.6 HIV/AIDS</p> <p>11.7.7 Environmental degradation</p> <p>11.7.8 Child labour and child abuse</p> <p>11.7.9 Human trafficking</p> <p>11.7.10 Gender-based violence</p>	<p>11.7.1.1 Discuss the major causes of conflicts and their consequences in the modern world</p> <p>11.7.1.2 Discuss the efforts applied in conflict resolution and management in the modern world</p> <p>11.7.6.1 Discuss the effects of HIV/AIDS in economic development</p> <p>11.7.7.1 Discuss major causes and effects of environmental degradation</p> <p>11.7.8.1 Discuss the effects of child labour and abuse to children</p> <p>11.7.9.1 Describe possible solutions to human trafficking</p> <p>11.7.10.1 Discuss gender-based violence</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Causes: conflict over resources, ethnicity • Conflict resolution and management: arbitration, mediation, prosecution, compromise • Loss of life • Greed, ignorance • Traumatization, • Prosecution, • Conflict between man and woman 	

Table 15: GRADE 11: PART II- WORLD HISTORY FROM 1870 TO THE PRESENT

TOPICS	SUB-TOPIC	SPECIFIC OUTCOMES	CONTENT		
			KNOWLEDGE	SKILLS	VALUES
11.1 Geographical Setting	11.1.1 Geographical positions of major European kingdoms, 1850 – 1870	11.1.1.1 Locate on the map of Europe the major European empires by 1870	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Political set up of Europe by 1870 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Map reading Analysing Comparing and contrasting 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Appreciation Reflection Self-identity Courage Loyalty Independence Patriotism Cooperation Bravery
11.2 Nation Building, 1850 – 1900	11.2.1 Bismarck and the unification of Germany, 1870	11.2.1.1 Describe the stages leading to the unification of Germany 11.2.1.2 Explain Bismarck's home and foreign policies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Political divisions of Europe by 1870 Economic status of major world nations by 1914 		
	11.2.2 The Ottoman Empire up to 1914	11.2.2.1 Analyse the factors that led to the decline of the Ottoman Empire			
	11.2.3 The British Splendid Isolation Policy	11.2.3.1 Assess the advantages and disadvantages of the British policy of Splendid Isolation			
	11.2.4 Russia under Tsarist rule, 1870 – 1914	11.2.4.1 Describe Russia's efforts at industrialisation leading to the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-05			
		11.2.4.2 Assess the impact of Russia's defeat by Japan on revolutionary activity leading to the 1905 Revolution			
	11.2.5 France, 1870 – 1914	11.2.5.1 Explain the efforts France made to regain her lost provinces of Alsace and Lorraine to Germany			
	11.2.6 China, 1900 – 1914	11.2.6.1 Describe China's political, economic and social development before the First World War			
		11.2.7 Japan, 1900 – 1914			
11.2.8 The United States of America, 1900 – 1914	11.2.8.1 Briefly explain America's non-involvement in the alliance systems of Europe before 1917				
11.3 Rivalry among Major World Kingdoms and Nations	11.3.1 The European Alliance Systems	11.3.1.1 Describe the alliance systems that European states entered into before 1914	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Three Emperor's League, Dual Alliance, Triple Alliance Entente Cordiale, Dual Entente and Triple Entente Social, economic, political reasons System of alliances, militarism, nationalism, international crises, the Eastern Question, domestic political factors 		
	11.3.2 European scramble for and partition of Africa	11.3.2.1 State and analyse the reasons for the European scramble and partition of Africa			
	11.3.3 First World War	11.3.3.1 Explain the causes of the First World War			
11.4 The World During the Inter-War Era	11.4.1 The end of the First World War and the Treaty of Versailles	11.4.1.1 Discuss terms of the Treaty of Versailles and their impact on defeated nations 11.4.1.2 Describe Woodrow Wilson's Fourteen Points	12 Terms of the Versailles Treaty 13 Wilson's Fourteen Points		
	11.4.2 The Weimar Republic – 1919-1933	11.4.2.1 Explain the weaknesses of the Weimar Republic	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The Weimar Republic 		
	11.4.3 The rise of Adolf Hitler	11.4.3.1 Discuss the circumstances that led to the rise of Adolf Hitler and Nazism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The rise of Hitler and Nazism 		
		11.4.3.2 Analyse Hitler's political career, showing his role in the Second World War, 1939-1945	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Hitler's domestic and foreign policies 		
	11.4.4 The rise of Benito Mussolini in Italy	11.4.4.1 Discuss the circumstances that led to the rise of Benito Mussolini and Fascism in Italy 11.4.4.2 Analyse Mussolini's political career, showing his role in the Second World War, 1939-1945	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The rise of Benito Mussolini Mussolini's domestic and foreign policies. 		
11.4.5 1917 Russian Socialist Revolution	11.4.5.1 Describe conditions in Russia under the monarchy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Russia under Tsarist rule 			

Source: CDC, 2013.

	<p>11.4.6 The Spanish Civil War, 1936 – 1939</p> <p>11.4.7 China from 1919 to 1939</p> <p>11.4.8 Japan from 1919 to 1939</p> <p>11.4.9 The Second World War</p>	<p>11.4.5.2 Discuss the role of Lenin in the 1917 Socialist Revolution and thereafter</p> <p>11.4.5.3 Describe Stalin's home and foreign policy</p> <p>11.4.6.1 Explain the causes of the 1936 – 1939 Spanish Civil War and the role played by Francisco Franco</p> <p>11.4.7.1 Discuss the political and economic developments in China from 1919-1939</p> <p>11.4.8.1 Describe the political and economic developments in Japan from 1919 to 1939</p> <p>11.4.9.1 Discuss the causes of the Second World War</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lenin and the formation of the Bolshevik Party • The Russo-Japanese War and the 1905 Revolution • Russia during the First World War • The October 1917 Socialist Revolution • Russia after 1917 • The Spanish Civil War and General Franco • China before the First World War • China during the First World War • China during the inter-war period • Japan before the First World War • Japan during the First World War • Japan during the inter-war period • Causes of the Second World War 	
<p>11.5 Attempts at World Peace and the Balance of Power, 1919 to Present</p>	<p>11.5.1 The League of Nations</p> <p>11.5.2 The United Nations Organisation</p> <p>11.5.3 The North Atlantic Treaty Organisation</p> <p>11.5.4 The Non-Aligned Movement</p> <p>11.5.5 The Warsaw Pact</p>	<p>11.5.1.1 Assess the successes and failures of the League of Nations</p> <p>11.5.2.1 Outline the steps leading to the formation of the United Nations Organisation</p> <p>11.5.2.2 Describe the objectives, structure and functions of the United Nations Organisation</p> <p>11.5.2.3 Assess the achievements and failures of the United Nations Organisation</p> <p>11.5.3.1 Describe the objectives of The North Atlantic Treaty Organisation</p> <p>11.5.4.1 Describe the objectives of The Non-Aligned Movement</p> <p>11.5.5.1 Describe the objectives of The Warsaw Pact</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Successes and failures of the League of Nations • The formation of the United Nations Organisation (its objectives, structure, functions, failures and achievements) • Objectives of the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation • Objectives of the Non-Aligned Movement • Objectives of the Warsaw Pact 	
<p>11.6 Other International Organisations</p>	<p>11.6.1 The Commonwealth of Nations</p> <p>11.6.2 The European Union</p> <p>11.6.3 The Caribbean and Pacific States</p> <p>11.6.4 The Organisation of African Unity/African Union</p> <p>11.6.5 The Organisation of American States</p> <p>11.6.6 The Economic Community of West African States</p> <p>11.6.7 The Maghreb Union</p>	<p>11.6.1.1 Describe the objectives of The Commonwealth of Nations</p> <p>11.6.2.1 Describe the objectives of The European Union</p> <p>11.6.3.1 Describe the objectives of The Caribbean and Pacific States</p> <p>11.6.4.1 Describe the objectives of The Organisation of African Unity/African Union</p> <p>11.6.5.1 Describe the objectives of The Organisation of American States</p> <p>11.6.6.1 Describe the objectives of The Economic Community of West African States</p> <p>11.6.7.1 Describe the objectives of The Maghreb Union</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Objectives of the Commonwealth of Nations • Objectives of the European Union • Objectives of the Caribbean and Pacific States • Objectives of the Organisation of African Unity/African Union • Objectives of the Organisation of American States • Objectives of the Economic Community of West African States • Objectives of the Maghreb 	

Table 16: GRADE 12 PART III - HISTORY OF CENTRAL AFRICA

TOPICS	SUB-TOPIC	SPECIFIC OUTCOMES	CONTENT		
			KNOWLEDGE	SKIL	VA
12.1 GEOGR APHICA L SETTIN G	12.1.1 Physical and Climatic Features and their Influence on Population Distribution	12.1.1.1 Describe the physical features of Central Africa in relation to population distribution by 1800	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ☐ Influence of relief and rainfall patterns on population distribution 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ☐ Map drawing ☐ Interpretation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ☐ Appreciation ☐ Acceptance
12.2 INDIG ENOUS AFRICA N POPULA TION	12.2.1 Bantu Migrations into Central Africa	12.2.1.1 Describe the causes and courses of Bantu migrations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ☐ Causes: social, political, economic ☐ Courses: Earlier migrations of Tonga, Tumbuka, Namwanga, Mambwe, Iwa, Lungu, Lambya, and later migrations from Luba and Lunda kingdoms (Lunda, Bemba, Bisa, Lenje, Kaonde, Luvale, Luyi, ☐ The Tonga in southern Zambia, Luyi and associated groups in western Zambia, Bemba, and 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ☐ Analysis ☐ Identification Location of places ☐ Comparing and contrasting ☐ Critiquing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ☐ Sense of belonging ☐ Awareness ☐ Courage ☐ Patriotism ☐ Self-identity
		12.2.1.2 Locate on the map the areas of Bantu settlement after migration			

TOPICS	SUB-TOPIC	SPECIFIC OUTCOMES	CONTENT		
			KNOWLEDGE	SKIL	VAL
	<p>12.2.1 Decentralised Societies</p> <p>12.2.2 Centralised Societies of Central Africa</p>	<p>12.2.2.1 Identify decentralised societies of Zambia</p> <p>12.2.2.2 Describe the social, political, and economic organisation of decentralised societies</p> <p>12.2.2.1 Identify centralised societies of Central Africa</p>	<p>□ Tonga, Lenje, Soli, Sala, Senga, Nsenga, Kunda, Tumbuka</p> <p>□ Social, political, and economic organisation</p> <p>□ Luba and Lunda empires of Congo, Kongo and Ndongo kingdoms of Angola, the Ngoni kingdom, the Chewa kingdom of Kalonga and Undi, and Mwenemutapa kingdom, Luyi</p>	□	□

TOPICS	SUB-TOPIC	SPECIFIC OUTCOMES	CONTENT		
			KNOWLEDGE	SKILL	VAL
12.3 EXPLORATION OF CENTRAL AFRICA	12.3.1 Opening up of Central Africa by Europeans	12.3.1.1 Identify Europeans who opened up Central Africa prior to colonisation 12.3.1.2 State the results of the activities of explorers and missionaries in Central Africa	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▫ Explorers: David Livingstone and Henry Morton Stanley ▫ Traders and hunters: F C Selous and George Cobb Westbeeck ▫ Missionaries: David Livingstone, Francois Coillard ▫ The Portuguese in Angola and Mozambique ▫ Introduction of Christianity, introduction of slave trade (by the Portuguese), imposition of foreign culture on Africans (assimilation), stopping of slave trade and introduction of legitimate trade (by the British, colonisation 		

TOPICS	SUB-TOPIC	SPECIFIC OUTCOMES	CONTENT		
			KNOWLEDGE	SKILLS	VALUES
12.4 EUROPEAN ACQUISITION OF TERRITORIES IN CENTRAL AFRICA	12.4.1 European Scramble for and the Colonisation of Central Africa	12.4.1.1 Describe the Scramble for and Partition of Central Africa 12.4.1.2 Discuss the steps leading to the colonisation of Central Africa by the British and Portuguese	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ☐ Contra Costa policy of the Portuguese ☐ Cape to Cairo policy of the British ☐ The Berlin Colonial Conference and the Partitioning of Central Africa ☐ The Ware, Lawley, and Lochner Concessions in western Zambia ☐ Military conquest of eastern and northern Zambia by the British ☐ The Rudd Concession in Zimbabwe ☐ Military conquest of Angola and Mozambique 		
12.5 EUROPEAN SETTLERS IN CENTRAL AFRICA	12.5.1 Relationship Between Indigenous Africans and White Settlers 12.5.2 Colonial Administration	12.5.1.1 Describe the relationship between Africans and Europeans 12.5.2.1 Discuss colonial direct and indirect methods of ruling Africans	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ☐ Reasons behind the uprisings against colonial rule: resources, tax and forced labour ☐ Direct rule: direct involvement of colonial administration (by the Portuguese and French) ☐ Indirect rule: colonial administration through traditional rulers (by the British) 		

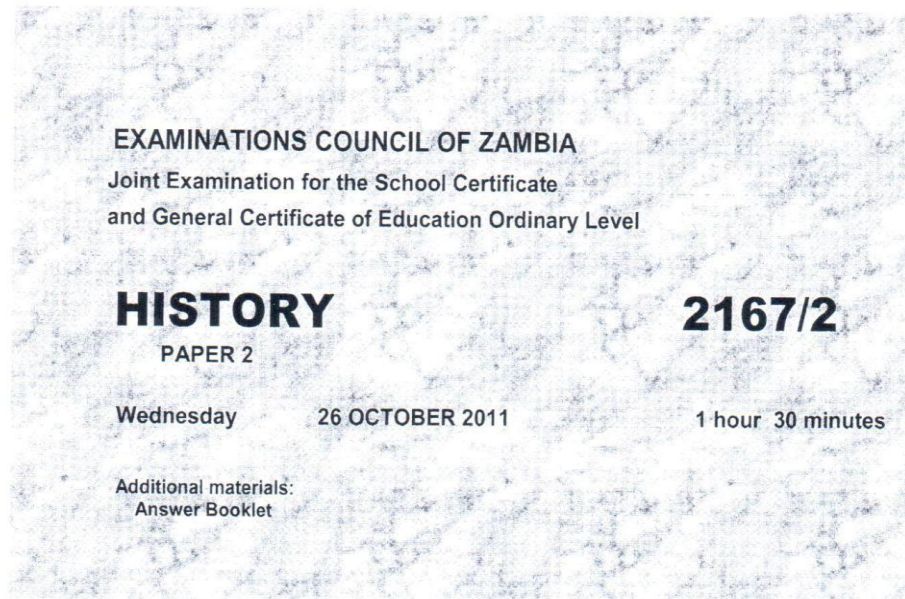
TOPICS	SUB-TOPIC	SPECIFIC OUTCOMES	CONTENT		
			KNOWLEDGE	SKILLS	VALUES
	12.5.3 African Resistance to European Domination	<p>12.5.3.1 Distinguish between primary and secondary resistance</p> <p>12.5.3.2 Discuss specific incidents of early African resistance to colonialism</p> <p>12.5.3.3 Describe important welfare associations which represented the interests of Africans in Northern Rhodesia</p> <p>12.5.3.4 Describe how early African church leaders resisted colonial rule</p> <p>12.5.4.1 Describe the methods employed by Africans in resisting colonial rule</p> <p>12.5.4.2 Explain the role of educated Africans in the struggle for independence</p> <p>12.5.4.3 Explain the role of educated Africans in the struggle for independence</p> <p>12.5.4.4 Describe the role played by</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> □ Primary resistance: early resistance to arrival of Europeans in Central Africa □ Secondary resistance: later resistance against colonial rule in Central Africa □ Chilembwe Uprising in Nyasaland, Ndebele and Shona Rebellions in Southern Rhodesia, Chewa rebellion led by Nyangu □ The Mwenzo Welfare Society □ Through sermons, open rebellions, formation of African dominated churches □ Welfare societies, trade unions, formation of political parties 	□	□

TOPICS	SUB-TOPIC	SPECIFIC OUTCOMES	CONTENT		
			KNOWLEDGE	SKILLS	VALUES
	12.5.4 The rise of African Nationalism	<p>12.5.4.1 Analyse the political parties and liberation movements in Central Africa that fought for independence</p> <p>12.5.4.2 Describe the role played by labour movement in fighting colonial rule</p> <p>12.5.4.3 Analyse the political parties and liberation movements in Central Africa that fought for independence</p> <p>12.5.5.1 Discuss the reasons for and against the formation of the Federation</p> <p>12.5.6.1 Analyse the successes and failures of the Federation</p> <p>12.5.6.2 Analyse the steps leading to the independence of the three Central African territories (Northern Rhodesia, Southern Rhodesia, and Nyasaland)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ☐ Formation of political parties, conscientising other Africans ☐ Organising strikes ☐ Organising strikes ☐ Northern Rhodesia: Northern Rhodesia African National Congress, African National Congress, United National Independence Party ☐ Nyasaland: Malawi Nationalist Party ☐ Southern Rhodesia: ZAPU, ZANU ☐ Reasons for: economic integration, united front for European domination over Africans ☐ Reasons against slow progress towards political independence, ☐ Successes: ☐ Failures: ☐ Northern Rhodesia ☐ Southern Rhodesia ☐ Nyasaland 	☐	☐

TOPIC	SUB-TOPIC	SPECIFIC OUTCOMES	CONTENT		
			KNOWLEDGE	SKIL	
12.6 MAJORITY RULE	12.6.1 post-Independence Developments	12.6.1.1 Analyse the development of post-independence economic and political systems of the three Central African territories	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> □ Economic developments: mining, agriculture and manufacturing, regional economic blocks, infrastructure □ Zambia and Malawi: multi-party politics just after independence, declaration of one-party participatory democracy, rebirth of multi-party democracy □ Zimbabwe: Unilateral Declaration of Independence, 	□	

Source: CDC 201

Appendix H: Sample Of Examination Papers Under The Content Based Education



TIME: 1 hour 30 minutes

INSTRUCTIONS TO CANDIDATES

- 1 Write your name, centre number and candidate number in the spaces provided on the Answer Booklet provided.
- 2 There are **twenty** questions in this question paper.
- 3 Answer **three** questions.
- 4 Answer **not more than two** questions from any one section.
- 5 Write your answers in the **Answer Booklet** provided.
- 6 If you use more than one **Answer Booklet**, fasten the **Answer Booklets** together.

INFORMATION FOR CANDIDATES

- 1 All questions in this paper carry equal marks.
- 2 You are advised to read carefully through the whole paper before choosing the questions you intend to answer.
- 3 **Cell-phones are not allowed in the examination room**

SECTION A

- 1 What were the reasons and main stages that led to the formation of the Triple Alliance in 1882 and the Triple Entente in 1907? [12:8]
- 2 What was meant by the term "**Scramble for Africa**"? **Why** and **where** did European powers acquire colonies in Africa during the 19th Century? [2:18]
- 3 What were the general causes and results of the First World War 1914 – 1918? [10:10]
- 4 What led to the development of Japanese imperialism during the second half of the 19th century? To what extent did the Sino-Japanese war (1894 – 1895), the Russo-Japanese war (1904 – 1905) and the First World War (1914 – 1918) contribute to Japanese imperialism? [20]
- 5 What changes were introduced in Russia by Czar Nicholas II in 1905? Why did the Russians overthrow the Czar in 1917? [10:10]
- 6 Outline Woodrow Wilson's fourteen points. What were the military provisions of the Treaty of Versailles? [7:13]
- 7 What were the achievements of the League of Nations during the inter-war period? What are the major differences between the League of Nations and the United Nations? [14:6]
- 8 What factors helped Mussolini to rise to power in Italy in 1922? What measures did he take to establish a Fascist dictatorship in Italy between 1922 and 1930? [10:10]
- 9 What made the Nazis a more attractive alternative to take over the reigns of government after 1929? How did Hitler consolidate his hold on to power by 1934? [10:10]
- 10 What were the problems in the U.S.A. which prompted President F.D. Roosevelt to introduce the New Deal between 1932 and 1936? Why did some Americans oppose the New Deal? [10:10]

SECTION B

- 11 Write briefly on the following aspects of the United Nations Organisation (UNO).
 (a) Aims of the UNO.
 (b) Principles of the UNO.
 (c) UN peace-keeping methods.
 (d) WHO and FAO.
 (e) Weaknesses of the UNO. [4:4:4:4:4]
- 12 Why did the United States of America drop the Atomic bombs on Japan in 1945? How has Japan recovered from the defeat of 1945? [6:14]
- 13 What caused Britain to give independence to India and Pakistan? What has contributed to the tension between the two states since 1947? [12:8]
- 14 Describe the aims and membership of any **three** of the following:
 (a) North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO).
 (b) Warsaw Pact.
 (c) The European Union (EU).
 (d) African Union (AU). [7:7:7]
- 15 Write brief notes on any **three** of the following world leaders:
 (a) Fidel Castro.
 (b) Bill Clinton.
 (c) Mikhail Gorbachev.
 (d) Robert Mugabe.
 (e) Jose Eduardo Dos Santos. [7:7:7]
- 16 Describe the Suez Canal Crisis of 1956 and the Six Day War of 1967. [10 : 10]
- 17 Why did the French leave Indo-China in 1954? What actions were taken by the USA to support South Vietnam in the period 1961 – 1975? [10:10]
- 18 Define "Nuclear Arms Race". Why was there a Nuclear Arms Race between 1945 and 1963? How did the civilians react to the Nuclear Arms Race? [2:12:6]
- 19 Describe the aims, membership and organisation of the Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA). [4:6:10]
- 20 Write on any **two** of the following pressure groups:
 (a) Women's Groups.
 (b) Industrial Organisations.
 (c) Civic Organisations.
 (d) Religious Groups. [10:10]

EXAMINATIONS COUNCIL OF ZAMBIA

Joint Examination for the School Certificate
and General Certificate of Education Ordinary Level

HISTORY
PAPER 1

2167/1

Friday

11 OCTOBER 2013

Additional materials:
Answer Booklet

www.eczmaterials.com

TIME: 1 hour 30 minutes

INSTRUCTIONS TO CANDIDATES

- 1 Write your name, centre number and candidate number in the spaces provided on the **Answer Booklet**.
- 2 There are **twenty** questions in this question paper.
- 3 Answer **three** questions.
- 4 Answer **not more than two** questions from any one section.
- 5 Write your answers in the separate **Answer Booklet** provided.
- 6 If you use more than one **Answer Booklet**, fasten the **Answer Booklets** together.

INFORMATION FOR CANDIDATES

- 1 All questions in this paper carry equal marks.
- 2 You are advised to read carefully through the whole paper before choosing the questions you intend to answer.
- 3 **Cell-phones are not allowed in the examination room.**

SECTION A

- 1 Write on all of the following:
 - (a) Homohabilis,
 - (b) Broken Hill Man (Kabwe Man),
 - (c) Bushmen artists. [7:6:7]
- 2 Why did the Bantu migrate to Central Africa before AD 1800? What influences did their settlement in Central Africa have? [14:6]
- 3 Write short accounts of the origins and the rise of **two (2)** of the following kingdoms.
 - (a) The Chewa of Kalonga,
 - (b) The Bemba Kingdom,
 - (c) The Lozi Kingdom up to 1830,
 - (d) Mwata Kazembe's Kingdom. [10:10]
- 4 Give a detailed account of the activities of the following groups of people in Central Africa during the nineteenth century:
 - (a) The Arab/Swahili traders,
 - (b) The Nyamwezi and Yeke,
 - (c) European Hunters and traders. [7:6:7]
- 5 Describe the political, social and economic aspects of the Ndebele people in Zimbabwe in the period from 1840 to 1868. [8:6:6]
- 6 Write detailed accounts on the early work, expansion and results of any **two (2)** of the following missionary societies in Central Africa:
 - (a) London Missionary Society,
 - (b) Universities Mission to Central Africa,
 - (c) White Fathers. [10:10]
- 7 Show how Cecil Rhodes colonized Zimbabwe in the period 1887 and 1893. [20]
- 8 Describe the part played by each of the following figures in African resistance to colonial rule in Central Africa:
 - (a) Willie Mokalapa,
 - (b) John Chilembwe,
 - (c) Elliot Kamwana,
 - (d) Charles Domingo. [5:5:5:5]
- 9 Give the advantages and disadvantages for either
 - (a) Malawi or,
 - (b) Zambia, as a member of the Central African Federation. In brief, account for the break up of the Federation in 1963. [10:10]
- 10 What economic, social and political changes took place in Zambia from 1991 to 2001? [7:7:6]

SECTION B

- 11 In what ways did Dutch settlement at the Cape affect the San and the Khoikhoi and how did the San and the Khoikhoi react? [10:10]
- 12 Discuss the importance of the following in the early period of the Mfecane:
 (a) Zwide,
 (b) Dingiswayo,
 (c) Sobhuza. [7:7:6]
- 13 Explain how each of the following British reform affected the Boers at the Cape:
 (a) English as official language,
 (b) 50th Ordinance,
 (c) The Circuit Courts,
 (d) The Land Reforms,
 (e) The Emancipation Act. [4:4:4:4:4]
- 14 Give an account of the rule of Cetewayo (Cetshwayo) between 1872 – 1884. [20]
- 15 Give an account of the plans of Cecil Rhodes for British expansion and control of Southern Africa. What methods did he use and who opposed him? [13:7]
- 16 Describe the events that led to the British annexation of Transvaal in 1877. Show how the Transvaalers reacted to the annexation. [12:8]
- 17 Give the terms of the 1909 Union of South Africa. How did it affect the lives of the African groups? [16:4]
- 18 What measures were taken by the South African government after 1948 to effect the Policy of Apartheid? How did African political leaders in South Africa react? [14:6]
- 19 Explain the contributions and influence of Clemens Kadalie in the awakening of African Nationalism through his union. What were the weaknesses of the Union? [10:5:5]
- 20 Briefly describe the economic progress of the following countries since achieving their independence:
 (a) Lesotho,
 (b) Botswana,
 (c) Swaziland. [7:7:6]

Appendix I: Sample of Examination papers under the Outcome based Education



60039210



EXAMINATIONS COUNCIL OF ZAMBIA

Examination for School Certificate Ordinary Level

History
Paper 2

2167/2

Wednesday

20 NOVEMBER 2019

Additional Material:
Answer Booklet

Time: 2 hours 15 minutes

Marks: 100

Instructions to Candidates

- 1 Pull out the **Answer Booklet** from this question paper.
- 2 Write your **name**, **centre number** and **candidate number** in the spaces provided on the **Answer Booklet**.
- 3 Write your answers in the **Answer Booklet** provided.
- 4 There are **four** sections in this question paper.
- 5 Answer **all** questions from Section **A** and Section **B**.
- 6 Answer **one** question from Section **C** and **one** from Section **D**.

Information for Candidates

- 1 All questions in Section **A** add up to 30 marks and all questions in Section **B** add up to 30 marks.
- 2 All questions in Section **C** and Section **D** carry **equal** marks.
- 3 You are advised to read carefully through the whole paper before choosing the questions you intend to answer.
- 4 Cell phones are not allowed in the examination room.

©ECZ/SC/2019/J4

This question paper consists of 10 printed pages

SECTION A : WORLD HISTORY FROM 1870 – 1945 (30 MARKS)

Answer all questions in this section.

1 (a) Study the map below and answer the questions that follow.

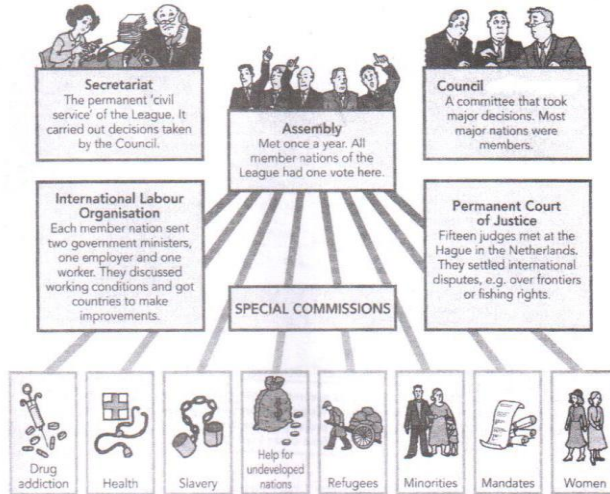


Questions

- (i) Name the region marked **P** on the map which was declared a demilitarized zone. [1]
- (ii) Why was the region marked **P** declared a demilitarized zone? [1]
- (iii) Which one of the named towns on the map is the capital of Germany? [1]
- (iv) According to map evidence, which **two** regions were reclaimed back by Poland at the Versailles Treaty? [1]
- (v) Name the country marked **R**. [1]
- (vi) What term was used to refer to the union between Germany and the country marked **R** on the map? [1]

[6 marks]

(b) Study the chart below and answer questions that follow.

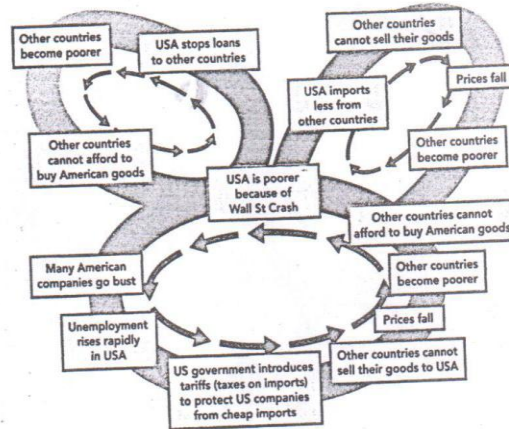


Questions

- (i) Name the organization represented by the chart above. [1]
- (ii) In which year was the organization mentioned in (i) formed? [1]
- (iii) State **two** social problems the special commissions dealt with. [2]
- (iv) Explain **two** other functions of the secretariat apart from the ones mentioned in the chart. [2]
- (v) Why did the organization named in (i) fail to achieve its aims? [2]

[8 marks]

(c) Study the diagram below and answer the questions that follow.



Questions

- (i) In which year did the USA experience the situation represented by the diagram above? [1]
- (ii) What term was used to refer to the situation depicted on the diagram? [1]
- (iii) Explain **three** measures undertaken to solve the situation mentioned in (ii). [3]
- (iv) Name the American leader who undertook the measures mentioned in part (iii). [1]
- (v) State **two** results of the measures undertaken in question (iv). [2]

[8 marks]

(d) Study the picture below and answer the questions that follow.



Questions

- (i) To which organization did the people in the picture belong? [1]
- (ii) Who was the leader of the organization mentioned in question (i)? [1]
- (iii) Why did the people in the picture took to the streets by 1933? Give **three** reasons. [3]
- (iv) What name was given to the symbol shown on the flag carried by the people in the picture? [1]
- (v) Name **two** groups of the secret police introduced by the organization in the picture when they came to power by 1933. [2]

[8 marks]

SECTION B: WORLD HISTORY FROM 1945 TO PRESENT TIME (30 Marks)

Answer all questions in this section

2 (a) Study the map below and answer the following questions.



Questions

- (i) What do the acronym COMESA stand for? [1]
- (ii) Describe **two** aims of COMESA [2]
- (iii) From which of the named COMESA member countries on the map are the Headquarters found? [1]
- (iv) Identify the COMESA members labelled **A**, **B** and **C** on the map. [3]
- (v) Explain **two** ways in which Zambia benefits for being a member of COMESA. [2]

[9 marks]

(b) Read the passage below and answer the questions that follow.

United Nations (UN) forces stormed ashore at Inchon in September 1950. At the same time, other UN forces and South Korean troops advanced from Pusan.

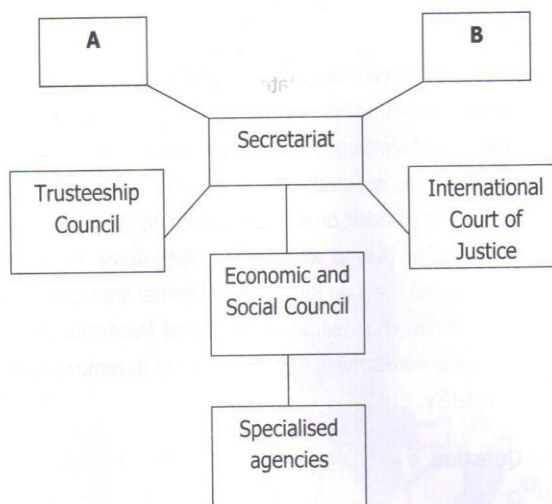
The North Koreans were driven back beyond their original boarder (the 38th parallel) within weeks. MacArthur had quickly achieved the original UNO objective of removing North Korean troops from South Korea. But the Americans did not stop. Despite warnings from China's leader Mao Tse Tung, that pressing on would mean China joining the war. The UNO approved the plan to advance into North Korea. By October, USA forces had reached the Yalu River and the border with China. The nature of the war had now changed. It was clear that MacArthur and Truman the USA president were striving for a bigger prize to remove communism from Korea completely.

Question

- (i) Which cold war incident is referred to in the passage? [1]
- (ii) When did the incident referred to take place? [1]
- (iii) Who was the leader of South Korea at that time? [1]
- (iv) Name the American force commander referred to in the passage. [1]
- (v) Why did Mao Tse Tung join the war? [1]
- (vi) Name the leader of the USA named in the passage. [1]
- (vii) How was this conflict resolved? [1]

[7 marks]

- (c) Study the structure of the United Nations Organisation (UNO) below and answer the questions that follow.



Questions

- (i) Name the organs labelled **A** and **B** on the chart. [2]
- (ii) Who heads the Secretariat? [1]
- (iii) Name the current head of the Secretariat. [1]
- (iv) Name any **two** specialized agencies of the UNO. [2]
- (v) State **one** duty of the economic and social council. [1]
- (vi) Where is the Headquarters of the International Court of Justice? [1]
- (vii) Give **one** function of the Secretariat. [1]

[9 marks]

(d) Read the passage below and answer the questions that follow:

Nationalism was the consciousness, feeling or desire to obtain independence. During the Second World War (WW2), the colonial powers recruited a number of Africans to fight in the war. After the war, the service men realized that it was wrong for one foreign country to rule another. They therefore, started to agitate for independence. The colonial powers Britain and France were too weak to suppress serious African revolts for self-rule. In this way, nationalistic movements rapidly grew after the Second World War. In addition to this, the two super powers, USA and USSR were every hostile to colonialism, so they gave assistance to nationalist leaders in form of money, equipment and training. The United Nations with its principal of self-determination offered a platform to nationalist leaders to appeal for world support.

Questions

- (i) What do you understand by nationalism? [1]
- (ii) Name the **two** leading colonial powers in Africa. [2]
- (iii) Mention **two** forms of support the two super powers, USA and USSR gave to nationalist leaders. [2]

[5 marks]**SECTION C: WORLD HISTORY FROM 1870 TO 1945 (20 MARKS)****Answer only one essay question from this section**

- 3 What were the causes and effects of the partition of Africa? [14: 6]
- 4 Why did Britain adopt the policy of Splendid Isolation. Why did she abandon it by 1914? [10:10]
- 5 State the aims of the League of Nations. Why did the League fail to achieve some of its aims? [4:16]
- 6 Discuss the career of Joseph Stalin under the following sub headings:-
- (a) Collectivisation of agriculture.
- (b) Industrialisation of Russia. [12:8]

SECTION D: WORLD HISTORY FROM 1945 TO PRESENT TIME (20 MARKS)

Answer only one essay question from this section

- 7 What are some of the common features of the Arab states? Show why and how relations between Israel and the Arab States have resulted in any two wars fought between 1948 and 1973. [4:8:8]
- 8 Why did Britain decide to give independence to her colonies? What common problems did most African countries face after independence? [10:10]
- 9 What were the aims of the Southern African Development Community (SADC)? Describe the organizational structure of SADC. [4:16]
- 10 Answer any **two** questions.
- (i) Comment on the rural-urban population drift.
- (ii) Does Zambia have a good or bad work culture?
- (iii) Describe gender violence. Explain the forms and effects of gender violence. [10:10]

EXAMINATIONS COUNCIL OF ZAMBIA

Examination for General Certificate of Education Ordinary Level

History
Paper 2

2167/2

Thursday

3 AUGUST 2017

Additional Material:
Answer Booklet

Time: 2 hours 15 minutes

Marks: 100

Instructions to Candidates

- 1 Pull out the **Answer Booklet** from this question paper.
- 2 Write your **name, centre number** and **candidate number** in the spaces provided on the **Answer Booklet**.
- 3 Write your answers in the **Answer Booklet** provided.
- 4 There are **four** sections in this question paper.
- 5 Answer **all** questions from Section **A** and Section **B**.
- 6 Answer **one** question from Section **C** and **one** from Section **D**.

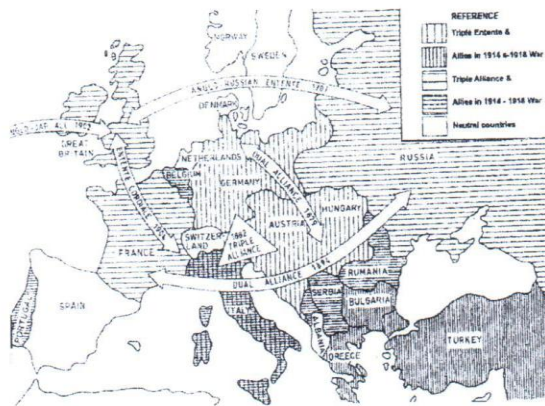
Information for Candidates

- 1 All questions in Section **A** add up to 30 marks and all questions in Section **B** add up to 30 marks.
- 2 All questions in Section **C** and Section **D** carry **equal** marks.
- 3 You are advised to read carefully through the whole paper before choosing the questions you intend to answer.
- 4 Cell phones are not allowed in the examination room.

SECTION A : WORLD HISTORY FROM 1870 – 1945 (30 MARKS)

Answer all questions in this section.

- 1 (a) Study the map below and answer the questions that follow.



Questions

- (i) Name the Germany statesman who started the idea of signing alliances shown in the map across Europe. [1]
- (ii) Who were the members of the Triple Alliance? [3]
- (iii) Explain **two** terms of the Triple Alliance. [2]
- (iv) Give **one** reason why most of the alliances in the map above where Germany was involved collapsed after 1890. [1]

[7 marks]

(b) Study the table below and fill in the blanks.

28 th June 1914	Arch duke Franz Ferdinand was murdered by(i)..... of the Black Hand terrorists group. The assassination took place at(ii)..... in Bosnia.	[1] [1]
23 rd June 1914(iii)..... blamed Serbia of the assassination and issued an ultimatum to be answered within(iv)..... hours.	[1] [1]
28 th June 1914	Serbia accepted two demands and offered to offer the third one for arbitration of the international Court of Justice at Hague. Austria -Hungary declared war on(v).....	[1]
29 th June 1914(vi)..... began mobilizing troops ready to help Serbia.	[1]
30 th June 1914	Germany demands that Russia stops mobilizing Russia refuses.	
1 st August 1914(vii)..... declared war on Russia.	[1]
3 rd August 1914	many declared war on France and sent troops through Belgium to attack France.	
4 th August 1914(viii)..... was neutral and Britain had agreed to protect her. Britain ordered Germany to withdraw. Germany refused.	[1] [1]
6 th August 1914(ix)..... declared war on Germany. Austria – Hungary declared war on(x).....	[1]

[10 marks]

Questions

- (i) Name the symbol in the picture that represented Hitler's political party. [1]
- (ii) Explain **two** problems in Germany between 1929 and 1933 that made Hitler's rise to power easy. [2]
- (iii) Which government faced the problems mentioned in question (ii) which Hitler took advantage of? [1]
- (iv) State **two** of Hitler's aims in foreign policy. [2]
- (v) What title was given to Hitler when he combined the positions of President and Chancellor? [1]

[7 marks]**SECTION B: WORLD HISTORY FROM 1945 TO PRESENT TIME (30 Marks)****Answer all questions in this section**

- 2 (a) **Study the table below and answer the questions that follow.**

United Nations (UN) Secretary Generals		
Secretary General	Nationality	Dates of Office
Trygve Halvdan Lie	Nowegian	1946 – 1953
Dag hammerskjold	Swedish	1953 – 1961
U Thant	Burnese	1962 – 1971
Kurt Waldheim	Austrilia	1972 – 1981
Javier Perez de Cueller	Peruvian	1982 – 1991
Boutros Boutros Ghali	1992 – 1996
Koffi Annan	1997 – 2006
.....	South Korean	2007 – 2017

Questions

- (i) Which organ of the United Nations does the Secretary General Head? [1]
- (ii) State **two** functions of the organ mentioned in question (i). [2]
- (iii) For how long did Kurt – Waldheim stay in office as UN Secretary General? [1]
- (iv) Name **two** African countries whose citizens worked as UN Secretary Generals. [2]
- (v) Which **one** of the named UN Secretary Generals in the table died in a plane crash in Zambia? [1]
- (vi) Who was the Secretary General between 2007 and 2017? [1]

[8 marks]

(b) Study the picture below and answer the questions that follow.

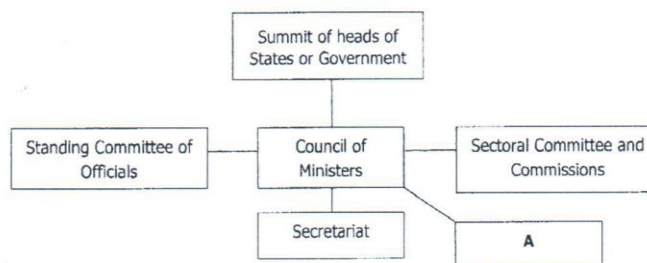


Questions

- (i) Identify by name any **two** prominent leaders seated in the picture above. [2]
- (ii) In which country is Crimea. [1]
- (iii) What was the result of the Yalta Conference? [1]
- (iv) Describe **two** aims of the organization that resulted from the San Francisco conference of April 1945. [2]

[6 marks]

(c) Study the diagram below showing the structure (SADC).



Question

- (i) Identify the highest policy making organ of SADC on the chart above? [1]
- (ii) State **two** functions of the organ mentioned in questions (i). [2]
- (iii) Name the organ marked **A** which settles disputes. [1]
- (iv) Explain **two** functions of the secretariat. [2]
- (v) What do the letters **SADC** stand for? [1]

[7 marks]

(d) **Read the following passage and answer the questions that follow.**

NATO was formed in April 1949 consisting of mainly western countries. Basically American policy was to restrict Russia to her existing position. On no account was she to move any further westwards. This idea of containment was disliked by some anti – communists because it did nothing for the millions under soviet occupation.

Questions

- (i) What does NATO stand for? [1]
- (ii) In which year was NATO formed? [1]
- (iii) Name any **two** members of NATO. [2]
- (iv) Explain any **two** aims of NATO. [2]
- (v) Name the block formed by Eastern European countries to counter NATO. [1]
- (vi) What do we call the clash of interest between the capitalists and the communist countries? [1]

[8 marks]

Appendix I: Lesson Plan

**MINISTRY OF GENERAL EDUCATION
SECONDARY SCHOOL X
SOCIAL SCIENCES DEPARTMENT LESSON PLAN**

TEACHER: X
GRADE: 11B
 MINUTES
SUBJECT: HISTORY
 41
TOPIC: THE GREAT TREK
SUB-TOPIC: THE CAUSE OF THE GREAT GREK
T/L AIDS: TEXT BOOK AND CHALK PICTURES SHOWING THE MOVEMENT OF THE BOERS

DATE: 8th April 2021
 DURATION: 40

NUMBER OF PUPILS:

REFERENCES:

MK Senior Secondary History of Southern Africa, learners Book, Grade 10

OBJECTIVES: By the End of this Lesson Pupils Should Be Able To (L.P.B.A.T):

- I. Describe the course of the great Trek
- II. Explain the movement in the 3 major groups the Boers travelled in
- III. Answer class exercise.

INTRODUCTION: Teacher will write the topic on the board, do a recap on the previous lesson and then move on the course of the great trek.

TIME	CONTENT	TEACHER ACTIVITY	PUPILS ACTIVITY
	<p><u>Course of the Great Trek</u></p> <p>-The great Trek was the well organised movement, about 10 000 Boers were involved.</p> <p>- They organised themselves in 3 groups and each group had its own</p>	<p>Teacher exposition</p> <p>Teachers to distribute the pictures</p>	<p>Question and answer</p>

<p>15 mins</p>	<p>leader.</p> <p><u>Stages of the great trek</u></p> <p>- It began in 1836</p> <p>A. <u>Trigardt and Ransburg</u></p> <p>- Louise Trigardt was the leader of the pioneers of the great trek.</p> <p>- On the way this group was joined by that of <u>Van Pensbeg</u></p> <p>- the 2 leaders and their followers moved into the Transvaal where they separated.</p> <p>- Trigardts group settled at Zoutpansberg while Renberg moved towards Delagoa bay.</p> <p>B. Liensberg and Erasmus</p> <p>- this group passed through the Ndebele territory and they were wiped out by the Ndebele.</p> <p>- The Boers</p>	<p>showing the stages of the great trek</p> <p>Discuss</p>	
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	<p>then attached the Ndebele at Vegkop in 1836 but the Ndebele won the battle</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Hendrick and Grief joined hands and attacked the Ndebele and the Ndebele were defeated at the battle of Mosega in 1837. They lost about 7000 cattle and left the area and the Boers took over. Q. Piet Retief: leader of the last group that left in 1837 moving towards the Zulu territory. - Retief asked for permission from Digane to settle in Zulu land . - he promised to give them land if they recaptured Zulu land and cattle from Sikonyela. - Retief and his group managed to perform the task. 		
--	--	--	--

CONCLUSION: Question and answer

FOLLOW UP EXERCISE: 1. Mention the administrative reforms that the British introduced at the Cape, which led to the great trek?

2. Describe the stages of the great trek?

3. How did the following contribute to the course of the great trek?

(i) Piet Refief and Adries Peronous

EVALUATION:



THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA
DIRECTORATE OF RESEARCH AND GRADUATE STUDIES
RESEARCH DEPARTMENT
APPROVAL OF STUDY

23rd December 2020.

REF NO. HSSREC-2020-NOV-017

Nisbert Machila

LUSAKA

Dear Ms., Machila,

RE: “CRITIQUING THE TEACHING OF HISTORY IN ZAMBIAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS THROUGH BASIL BERNSTEIN’S LENS”

Reference is made to your protocol dated 1st November 2020. HSSREC resolved to approve this study and your participation as Principal Investigator for a period of one year.

REVIEW TYPE	ORDINARY REVIEW	APPROVAL NO. HSSREC-2020-NOV-017
Approval and Expiry Date	Approval Date: 24 th December, 2020	Expiry Date: 23 rd December, 2021
Protocol Version and Date	Version - Nil.	23 rd December, 2021

Information Sheet, Consent Forms and Dates	• English.	To be provided
Consent form ID and Date	Version - Nil	To be provided
Recruitment Materials	Nil	Nil
Other Study Documents	Questionnaire.	
Number of Participants Approved for Study		

Specific conditions 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 HSSREC within 5 days.
- All protocol modifications must be approved by HSSREC 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.
- All protocol deviations must be reported to HSSREC within 5 working days.
- All recruitment materials must be approved by HSSREC prior to being used.
- Principal investigators are responsible for initiating Continuing Review proceedings. HSSREC will only approve a study for a period of 12 months.
- It is the responsibility of the PI to renew his/her ethics approval through a renewal application to HSSREC.
- Where the PI desires to extend the study after expiry of the study period, documents for study extension must be received by HSSRE Cat least 30 days before the expiry

date. This is for the purpose of facilitating the review process. Documents received within 30 days after expiry will be labelled “late submissions” and will incur a penalty fee of K500.00. No study shall be renewed whose documents are submitted for renewal 30 days after expiry of the certificate.

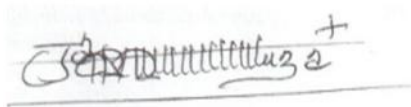
- Every 6 (six) months a progress report form supplied by The University of Zambia Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee as an IRB must be filled in and submitted to us. There is a penalty of K500.00 for failure to submit the report.
- When closing a project, the PI is responsible for notifying, in writing or using the Research Ethics and Management Online (REMO), both HSSREC and the National Health Research Authority (NHRA) when ethics certification is no longer required for a project.
- In order to close an approved study, a Closing Report must be submitted in writing or through the REMO system. A Closing Report should be filed when data collection has ended, and the study team will no longer be using human participants or animals or secondary data or have any direct or indirect contact with the research participants or animals for the study.
- Filing a closing report (rather than just letting your approval lapse) is important as it assists HSSREC in efficiently tracking and reporting on projects. Note that some funding agencies and sponsors require a notice of closure from the IRB which had approved the study and can only be generated after the Closing Report has been filed.
- A reprint of this letter shall be done at a fee.
- All protocol modifications must be approved by HSSREC by way of 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. In all cases, except where

noted above regarding subject safety, any changes to any protocol document or procedure must first be approved by HSSREC before they can be implemented.

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 HSSREC, we would like to wish you all the success as you carry out your study.

Yours faithfully,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Dr. J. Mwanza', is written over a horizontal line. There is a small '+' symbol above the end of the signature.

Dr. J. Mwanza

DR. JASON MWANZA

Dip. Clin. Med. Sc., BA.M.Soc., PhD

CHAIRPERSON

THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA HUMANITIES AND
SOCIAL SCIENCES RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE - IRB

cc: Director, Directorate of Research and Graduate Studies

Assistant Director (Research), Directorate of Research and Graduate Studies

Assistant Registrar (Research), Directorate of Research and Graduate Studies